ADDITIONS or CORRECTIONS

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CONFERENCE PROCEEDINGS

........... Assembled by ............

ADAM CLETZER
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<td>Gaea Wimmer</td>
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Applying the Situational Leadership® II Model: Assessing Follower Competence and Commitment
Dr. Gaea Wimmer, Assistant Professor, Mississippi State University
Dr. Todd Brashears, Associate Professor, Texas Tech University
Dr. Scott Burris, Associate Professor, Texas Tech University
Dr. Steve Fraze, Professor & Department Chair, Texas Tech University

The Situational Leadership® II Model asks the leader to consider their followers’ competence and commitment on any particular task. This quantitative study investigated the perceived competence and commitment of student teachers during the semester and estimated the development level of each student in order to apply this leadership model.

Assessing Student Leadership Development and Transformational Learning Following an Alternative Break Experience
Dr. Eric Buschlen, Assistant Professor - Leadership Studies, Central Michigan University
Dr. Cathy Warner, Resident Hall Director/Adjunct Leadership Faculty, Central Michigan University

This qualitative study compares two pilot projects. Both were hands-on, week-long service trips involving college students following two separate natural disasters. From these two pilot data collections, the research team developed an assessment tool that may be used at any university for similar experiences.

Behavioral Integrity: The Effects of Student Perceptions on Student Achievement
Barrett Keene, Tony Simons, Kristen Steves, & Eric Hooker, Cornell University

We examined the relationship between teachers’ behavioral integrity and student learning outcomes. We found a significant relationship between students’ perceptions of their teachers’ behavioral integrity and the students’ standardized test scores. These findings suggest that teachers’ word-deed and values alignment may impact student achievement.

Country Club Management and Self-directedness: Implications for Academics and Practitioners of Leadership
Dr. Robert Strong, Texas A&M University

Developing a comprehension of students’ previous leadership experiences may provide more insight
into their location on the leadership grid and level of self-directedness. Gaining a deeper understanding of self-perceived skills or behaviors of leadership majors or those minoring in leadership would be beneficial for leadership educators.

Examining the Blogging Habits of Agricultural Leadership Students: Enhancing Student Engagement

*Dr. Robert Strong, Texas A&M University*

This study sought to explore agricultural leadership students’ motivations for blogging. Teacher training could be used to increase awareness among educators about the benefits of blogging. Educators must be able to convey the benefits of educational blogging in terms of its ease and benefit for student acceptance.

Exploration of Leadership Undergraduate Curricula: A Practical and Critical Review

*Dr. Kris Gerhardt, Assistant Professor, Wilfrid Laurier University
Dr. Lamine Diallo, Associate Professor, Wilfrid Laurier University*

It is important to know if undergraduate leadership programs offer a common core curriculum. Analysis of the curriculum for 26 undergraduate Organizational Leadership programs in the United States using an approach suggested by Brungardt et al. (2006) suggests that there are major differences in courses offered by Organizational Leadership programs.

From the Gridiron: NCAA National Championship Head Football Coaches Talk Leadership

*James E. Lindsey, EdD, Assistant Football, Lovejoy High School, GA
Jeannette M. Dubyak, EdD, Professor, Argosy University/Atlanta
Qiana M. Cutts, PhD, Professor of Practice, Argosy University/Atlanta*

A qualitative phenomenological case study was utilized to explore the leadership experience of NCAA national championship head football coaches. This study concentrated on the head football coaches’ perspective about the leadership qualities and vision philosophies they believed to be essential for leading their team to a national championship.

Leader-member Exchange, Cognitive Style, and Student Achievement

*Chaney Mosley, Ph.D., Metro Nashville Public Schools*
Thomas Broyles, Ph.D., Tennessee State University
Eric Kaufman, Ph.D., Virginia Tech University

The purpose of this study was to explain how the quality of teacher-student relationships and the gap of cognitive styles between teachers and students impact student achievement. Leader-member Exchange (LMX) theory and Adaption-innovation theory guided the research.

Outside the Comfort Zone: Strategies for Developing Emotionally Intelligent Leaders, Can emotional intelligence of emerging leaders be increased through intentional intervention?
Michael Liepold, Extension Educator, University of Minnesota
Catherine Rasmussen, Extension Educator, University of Minnesota
Kim Boyce, Regional Director, University of Minnesota
Denise Trudeau Poskas, Ph.D., Leadership Specialist, University of Minnesota

The fast pace of our world today creates a greater need than ever to enhance leaders’ ability to handle complex situations, communicate clearly, and to maintain an even temperament in emotionally-charged situations. Learn how to increase the social and emotional skills of leadership program participants.

Perceived Volunteer Leadership Core Competencies of Nonprofit Professionals
Dr. Janet Fox, Professor and Associate Department Head, Louisiana State University
Dr. Krisanna Machtmes, Associate Professor, Louisiana State University
Ryan Machtmes, Statistican, Pennington Biomedical Center

The purpose of the descriptive study was to investigate Non-profit Youth Development Professionals’ perceptions of their current level of competence as a volunteer resource manager. Based on a five-point scale, Youth Development Professionals rated their overall volunteer development competence as a 3.3 with a range of 1.4 to 4.7.

Self-vs.-Teammate Assessment of Leadership Competence: The Effects of Gender and Motivation to Lead
Daniel A. Collier, Graduate Student, University of Illinois
David M. Rosch, Assistant Professor, University of Illinois

A sample (N=81) of students enrolled in a freshman course designed to teach team project management skills were placed in semester-long teams. Students completed self-reported assessments of leadership
skills, leadership self-efficacy, and motivation to lead. Students’ AI MTL was a significant predictor of teammate-assessed leadership skill.

Students’ Self-identified Long-term Leadership Development Goals: An Analysis by Gender and Race

David M. Rosch, Assistant Professor, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign
Barry L. Boyd, Associate Professor, Texas A&M University
Kristina M. Duran, Undergraduate Student, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign

The self-identified long-term leadership development goal statements of 92 undergraduate students enrolled in a self-directed leadership development program were analyzed using mixed methodology to investigate differences across gender and race. Significant differences in type emerged by gender. No differences emerged by race.

The Chefs of Gumbo University: The Experiences of Women Who Are Senior-level Higher Education Administrators in Louisiana

Dr. Jennifer Jackson, Associate Faculty, University of Phoenix

There appears to be a disparity of equitable representation between women and men in senior leadership positions in higher education. The focus of this qualitative phenomenological study was to explore the lived experiences of 17 female senior level higher education administrators in Louisiana. Themes that emerged from the interviews included the f

The Development of Youth Leadership Life Skills as a Result of Project-Based Experiences

Ashley S. Whiddon, Student, Oklahoma State University
John C. Ricketts, Associate Professor, Tennessee State University
Penny P. Weeks, Associate Professor, Oklahoma State University

The primary purpose of this study was to assess youth leadership life skills development (YLLSD) of high school students participating a project-based experience, specifically the commercial dairy heifer exhibition. The study yielded that students increased their YLLSD as a result of this project within a period of four months.
The Undergraduate Leadership Teaching Assistant: A High-Impact Practice in Leadership Education

Summer F. Odom, Assistant Professor, Texas A&M University
Sarah P. Ho, Graduate Student, Texas A&M University
Lori L. Moore, Assistant Professor, Texas A&M University

High-impact learning environments help students develop, practice, and evaluate leadership knowledge, skills, and abilities. The purpose of this qualitative study was to describe eight undergraduate leadership teaching assistant (ULTA) experiences in terms of the specific leadership characteristics and perspectives gained through the experience.

Type Preference and U.S. Government Executive Leaders: Insight into the Function and Dysfunction of the Federal Bureaucracy

Greg Gifford, Faculty, Leadership Development, Federal Executive Institute

This study analyzed MBTI type preferences of 3,606 executive leaders in the U.S. Federal government over a seven year period. Results are compared to a national sample of MBTI preferences. The discussion focuses on the challenges and opportunities of government leaders based on type preferences and is important for leadership educators to consider.

Undergraduate Leadership Students' Self-Perceived Level of Moral Imagination: An Innovative Foundation for Morality-Based Leadership Curricula

Tony Andenoro, Assistant Professor, University of Florida
Summer Odom, Assistant Professor, Texas A&M University
M’Randa Sandlin, PhD Candidate, Texas A&M University
Jaron L. Jones, Graduate Student, University of Florida

This study examined undergraduate students' self-perceived level of moral imagination. Eighty-two students in a leadership course at [university] were given an instrument to measure their level of moral imagination on three constructs: productive, reproductive, and creative imagination providing baseline data for creating leadership curriculum.

Veterans’ Perceptions of Current Leadership Education and Suggestions for the Future at a Land-Grant University

M’Randa R. Sandlin, Graduate Student, Texas A&M University
Summer F. Odom, Assistant Professor, Texas A&M University
Veterans represent a unique group for leadership educators. A needs assessment was conducted. Veteran responses revealed: education-related skills gained from military, effective and ineffective higher education practices, and suggestions for veteran engagement. A foundation for the improvement of leadership curriculum for veterans was established.

What They Think: Faculty Perceptions on Effective Methods for Teaching Ethical and Moral Leadership

McKenzie Watkins Smith, University of Florida
Hannah S. Carter, Assistant Professor, University of Florida

Study sought to determine methods faculty members perceive effective for teaching ethical/moral leadership. Study found when teaching leadership principles, participants perceive instructor-led discussion, traditional lecture and activities to be most effective. Participants believe students’ moral development to drastically increase as a result.

You Got the Grant, Now What? Understanding Differences in Leadership Style and Perceptions of Teamwork by Principle Investigators

Nicole Stedman, Associate Professor, University of Florida
Brittany Adams, Doctoral Candidate, University of Florida

The purpose of this study was to begin exploring the nature of leadership behavior and style, along with team functionality. As the extent to which the problems we face grow and become more complex, researchers must be prepared to deal with issues related not just to the problem at hand, but leading large groups of diverse researchers.
EMERGING RESEARCH
IN BRIEF
A Fantasy Theme Analysis of Leadership in the Harry Potter Books
Lisa Jenice Scheeler, Associate Director, Georgetown University

This poster session will present my emerging doctoral research on a fantasy theme analysis of the messages surrounding leadership as presented in the Harry Potter series. It will explore the vision and community of the Harry Potter books by exploring the rhetorical arts and artifacts, and the themes of setting action, and character.

All The World's A Stage: Theatrical Mentorship Programs in Primary, Secondary, and Post-Secondary Education
Laura Puchalski, Graduate student, Eastern Michigan University

This study of theatrical mentorship examines the integration of the current model of cross-age mentoring with theatrical training in a school setting. Formatted as a three tier mentorship program, this study includes mentoring between graduate, high school, and middle school students over a fourteen week period.

Emerging Research on the Outcomes of Alumni Association Involvement in the Development and Engagement of Students at a Public Land-Grant University
Kevin B. Andrews, Graduate Assistant, The Association of Former Students
Dr. Jennifer R. Williams, Assistant Professor, Texas A&M University
Dr. Landry L. Lockett, Senior Lecturer and Academic Advisor, Texas A&M University
Kelli Hutka, Director of Campus Programs, The Association of Former Students

Description of a new model of student alumni organization, one based on leadership development. The model incorporates leadership education, mentorship, and experiential learning, a combination not previously found in the literature. The model is expected to have positive implications for college leadership experts and alumni professionals.

Enhancing Students’ Cultural Awareness: Implementing Global Leadership Experiences
Travis L. Irby, Doctoral Student, Texas A&M University
Robert Strong, Assistant Professor, Texas A&M University

The majority of students reported becoming the most aware of religion, social relations, food and clothes as elements of culture. Faculty should strive to provide global leadership experiences to enhance
current students’ leadership skills in order for future organizations to reap the benefits of a more culturally aware employee corps.

**Fostering Resiliency through a Leadership Development Program in A Florida Gulf Coast Community**

*Adam Boudreaux, Doctoral Student, University of Florida*
*Dr. Hannah Carter, Assistant Professor, University of Florida*
*Dr. Angie B Lindsey, Adjunct Lecturer, University of Florida*

This study proposes a leadership development program to increase the resiliency and leadership capacity of a non-profit organization seeking to provide protection and development of the region's natural resources. Program includes effective communication, conflict resolution, opinion leadership, and impacts on individual leadership abilities.

**From cultural awareness to cultural understanding: Influences from an international service and learning experience**

*Natalie Coers, Program Coordinator, University of Florida*

This emerging qualitative research idea focuses on an international, short term experience for undergraduate students in [program]. Cognitive maps, journal entries, and reflection statements will be analyzed to connect various activities encountered on the international experience with cultural awareness or cultural understanding.

**How Differentiated Leader-Member Relationships, Group Potency, and Cynical Team Members Affect Team Performance**

*Juan E. Garza, Doctoral Student, Texas A&M University*

As organizations continue to seek new and innovative ways of adapting to change, what impact do these organizational changes have on the relationships of groups, leader-subordinate and individual team members?
iLEADER: Post Jobs Era
Jessica Benson, Graduate Research/Teaching Assistant, University of Georgia
Jill Rucker, Assistant Professor, University of Georgia
Sunny Wilcox, Graduate Teaching/Research Assistant, University of Georgia

This presentation focuses on the real-life leadership of Steve Jobs, former CEO of Apple, Inc. Jobs’ leadership, innovation, and focus drove Apple to be the successful and lucrative business that it is today. However, the “Post Jobs” era provides evidence that Jobs’ leadership was neither sustainable nor transferable.

Incorporating Online Learning Tools into Adult Leadership Programs
Milton Newberry, Graduate Student, University of Florida
Avery Culbertson, Graduate Student, University of Florida
Dr. Hannah S. Carter, Assistant Professor, University of Florida

Agricultural leadership programs build leaders through developing skills and issue awareness. Curriculum has traditionally followed a format of face to face interaction. Though successful, traditional formats may not meet the needs of future populations of diverse learners. This paper outlines emerging research on incorporating online learning in

Leadership and Risk-Taking
Shaan Shahabuddin, Ph.D Student, Texas A&M University
Chanda Elbert, Associate Professor, Texas A&M University
Steven Estrada, Assistant Professor, Stephen F. Austin State University

The current study intends to use framing effects in a spinner game to measure risk-taking behavior between leaders and non-leaders. It is hypothesized that leaders will rely more on a verbatim-based process of decision making by taking risks and non-leaders will rely more on a gist-based process of decision making by avoiding risks. /

Leadership Identity Development Through an Undergraduate Teaching Assistant Experience
Jana L. Kubecka, Undergraduate Student, Texas A&M University
David W. Bood, Undergraduate Student, Texas A&M University
M’Randa R. Sandlin, Ph.D. Candidate, Texas A&M University
Summer F. Odom, Assistant Professor, Texas A&M University
The use of undergraduate teaching assistants (UGTAs) has been found effective in classroom management, UGTA development, and enrolled student populations. This poster will visually depict ongoing research to describe the development of leadership identity of UGTAs as a result of a 15 week undergraduate teaching assistant experience.

Leading the Farm League: An Interdisciplinary Approach to Leadership Education Among Agricultural Education Teachers
Jennifer Johnson, Graduate Assistant/Student, University of Georgia
Marcus Stephen Pollard, Graduate Assistant/PhD Candidate, University of Georgia
Milton G. Newberry III, Graduate Assistant/PhD Candidate, University of Florida

This study looks outside of the field of agriculture to an athletic setting, assessing strengths and skills baseball coaches harbor that may be suitable for agricultural education teachers to integrate into their current leadership philosophies.

Quantifying the Impact of a Leadership Development Program
Aaron J. McKim, Graduate Student, Oregon State University
Jonathan J. Velez, Assistant Professor, Oregon State University

The authors developed an innovative instrument to assess the impact of a leadership development program. The instrument focused on identifying time spent in eight key leadership impact areas. Students enrolled in the program indicated growth in seven areas with the greatest increase in time spent directly interacting with the community.

Using Leadership Theories to Develop a Program for Agriculture and Natural Resources Professionals
Ashley Powell, Graduate Student, Montana State University
Dr. Shannon Arnold, , Montana State University
Janelle Booth, Program Director, REAL Montana

Built upon the need for practical leadership skills and advanced knowledge of complex topics, REAL [state] was created for adult professionals in the agriculture and natural resources industry in (state). Participants will receive comprehensive training on applying leadership theory and ethical practices to agricultural and natural resources issues.
Why are we STILL Talking about Gender?

Caroline Tart, Undegraduate, North Carolina State University
Jackie Bruce, Associate Professor, North Carolina State University

As we move firmly into the middle of the 21st century we still find ourselves, men and women alike, hindered because of issues of gender. The outcome of this study is to understand the discussions of gender differences and discrimination and to help guide and direct the course of leadership studies to promote gender equity.
“Failure Is Not the End!” Implementing an Experiential Learning Project in an Agricultural Leadership Program

Milton Newberry, Graduate Student, University of Florida
Chris Morgan, Assistant Professor, University of Georgia
Nick Fuhrman, Assistant Professor, University of Georgia

Experiential Learning Projects (ELP) can develop resiliency through problem-solving, self-efficacy, teamwork, and communication skill development, and should be used in all disciplines. The ELP described resulted in mastery of forestry techniques, thereby developing resilience. Statistically significant growth was seen in all assessed skills.

A Classic Approach and a Fresh Perspective: Using Management By Objectives to Teach Servant Leadership

Greg Gifford, Faculty - Leadership Development, Federal Executive Institute
Robert L. McKeage, Associate Professor of Management, University of Scranton

This practice session integrates the teaching of servant leadership with a classic approach to organizational goal setting—Management By Objectives (MBO). For leadership educators, the practice described in this session provides a powerful tool to link a classic management technique with a leadership behaviors. A sample activity will be provided.

A Teaching Model for Concept Learning and Changes in Critical Thinking

Sharon Hoffman, Ph.D., Assistant Professor, Southeastern Louisiana University
Marilyn Grady, Ph.D., Professor, University of Nebraska-Lincoln

This session presents a teaching model that facilitates a deeper understanding of theoretical constructs. Participants will engage in the deconstruction/reconstruction of theory, guided practice, and elaborative interrogation in critical thinking. Formative and summative assessments, the illustrated model, and a graphic organizer outlining the tea

Capstone Experiences within Colleges of Agriculture: A Review of Literature and Proposal for Future Research

Marianne Lorensen, PhD Student/Lecturer, University of Nebraska-Lincoln
Carrie Stephens, Associate Professor, University of Tennessee

This session explores current capstone classes and experiences offered to leadership students in colleges of agriculture at land-grant institutions. Learn about best practices, unique features, innovative
ideas, and future goals of undergraduate leadership programs in colleges of agriculture across the country.

**Development of an Undergraduate, Interdisciplinary Leadership Studies Minor**

*Robert J. Birkenholz, Professor, Ohio State University*

*Juolie Robinson, Doctoral Candidate, Ohio State University*

*Caryn M. Filson, Ph.D., Ohio State University*

Ohio State University recently approved an undergraduate, interdisciplinary Leadership Studies minor. This session will focus on our experiences in developing the proposal, along with the issues and barriers encountered during the process of securing approval of the Leadership Studies minor.

**Examining Self-Regulated Learning and Problem Solving Style in Adult Leadership Programs**

*Avery Culbertson, Graduate Student, University of Florida*

*Dr. Hannah Carter, Assistant Professor, University of Florida*

*Dr. Alexa J. Lamm, Assistant Professor, University of Florida*

The objective for this paper is to provide leadership program facilitators with instruction on assessing cognitive styles of participants using Kirton’s Adaption- Innovation and a modified version of the Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire. Through this knowledge, facilitators can then better equip leaders to assume leadership roles.

**Fostering Student Leaders to Affect Positive Change through an Inter-State Collaboration**

*Jaci Jenkins Lindburg, PhD, Manager of Academic Affairs, University of Nebraska-Omaha*

*Dale-Ellen O’Neill, Coordinator of Leadership Programs, University of New Orleans*

This session will discuss a collaborative leadership program, between two universities, designed to expand students’ global mindsets and educate students about issues facing young leaders. Attendees will learn how this collaboration was created and consider ways professionals can inspire student leaders to affect positive change at their campuses.

**Hear All About It: The New York Times In Leadership Project**

*Matthew J. Sowcik, Assistant Professor of Leadership Studies, Wilkes University*

*Robert McManus, McCoy Associate Professor, Marietta College*
The New York Times and Leadership project was designed to give professors, practitioners, and students opportunities to connect leadership concepts to real-world examples. Session participants will have a chance to explore the different NY Times in Leadership resources and student/faculty data will be presented to discuss the impact of the project.

How do You Roll? Innovative Practice for Using the Individual Factors Leadership Inventory Wheel

Jon C. Simonsen, Assistant Professor, University of Missouri
Jonathan J. Velez, Assistant Professor, Oregon State University
Robert J. Birkenholz, Professor, Ohio State University
Aaron J. McKim, Graduate Associate, Oregon State University

The search for a versatile leadership assessment that yields quick and applicable feedback led researchers at three universities to develop the Individual Leadership Factors Inventory Wheel (ILFIW). The ILFIW’s process has participants score their leadership skills, plot summated scores, reflect upon their findings, and assemble action steps.

Exploring the Congruence in Values between Individuals and Organizations

Summer Odom, Assistant Professor, Texas A&M University
Sarah Ho, Ph.D. Graduate Assistant, Texas A&M University

Leadership educators prepare students for future careers with various organizations. Facilitating students’ understanding of congruence between their individual values and organizational values is important to the long-term success of their career. Examples of assignments designed to help students understand the congruence of individual and organizational values will be shared with participants.

Infusing Leadership Insight and Development into Business Economics

Christopher Leupold, Associate Professor of Psychology, Elon University
Cassandra DiRienzo, Associate Professor of Economics, Elon University

The purpose of this research is to assess the effect of infusing leadership principles into business economics. This practice session will discuss the tools and methods used in the leadership infusion, as well as pre- and post-test results. Participants will be offered the chance to complete a leadership self-assessment inventory.
**Leadership That Settled the Frontier**
*Barry L. Boyd, Associate Professor, Texas A&M University*

This practice session explores the leadership lessons displayed by the characters of Louis L’Amour’s western novels. Participants will receive a paperback edition of one of L’Amour’s novels to use as we examine their values, vision. Participants will leave with a tool that can help students see leadership in a new light.

**Learning the Five Dysfunctions of a Team with Cool Runnings**
*Jessica Poore, Ph.D., University of Tennessee - Knoxville*

Teams are often subjected to a plethora of potential dysfunctions that could derail individuals from achieving success. Leadership skills can be gained and improved from reflection on prior experience. However, some students do not have a personal experience to reflect upon. The in-class assignment (analyzing the film Cool Runnings) guides students through an experience that highlights the five dysfunctions of a team. Furthermore, students are required to answer questions related to each dysfunction area. Once the film is viewed, the facilitator engages students in reflective questioning and builds an understanding of content knowledge of dysfunctions related to team productivity.

**Resilient Leader-Teachers: The Influence of Adaptive Leadership and Case-in-Point Methodology on Faculty Culture and Community**
*Kerry L. Priest, Assistant Professor, K-State School of Leadership Studies  
Tamara Bauer, Instructor, K-State School of Leadership Studies  
Sharon Breiner, Instructor, K-State School of Leadership Studies  
Mary Kay Siefers, Sr. Assoc Director and Assistant Professor, K-State School of Leadership Studies*

In this session, we will reframe teaching as exercising leadership and teachers as leaders. Specifically, we focus on our experience integrating adaptive leadership into a leadership minor curriculum. We will also unpack the culture-shaping effects of case-in-point method on teacher resiliency and professional growth.

**Resilently Complex: Deconstructing Complexity Leadership Theory through Experiential Pedagogies**
*Daniel M. Jenkins, Assistant Professor of Leadership & Organizational Studies, University of Southern Maine, Lewiston-Auburn College  
Amanda B. Cutchens, Adjunct Professor of Leadership Studies, University of South Florida*
This session showcases innovative pedagogy for teaching Complex Leadership Theory. Facilitators will simplify this dynamic theory by demonstrating interactive classroom-based role-play activities that activate the connection between theory and practice, highlight best practices, and lead participants in a focused discussion and debrief.

**Teaching Leadership Concepts Using an Online Simulation**  
*William Weeks, Ph.D., Oklahoma State University*

Teaching leadership in an online format presents many challenges to educators who value experiential learning as a teaching method. An online simulation designed to teach leadership concepts to change agents will be demonstrated in this innovative practice session.

**Using Epic Fails to Facilitate Students’ Perceptions of Leader Behavior**  
*K. Jill Rucker, Assistant Professor, Agricultural Leadership and Communications, The University of Georgia  
Jennifer Williams, Assistant Professor, The Texas A&M University*

It is easy to use examples of great leaders when discussing philosophies, models, and theories. What if the converse occurred: using leaders who have crashed and burned? With increasing accessibility to information on the personal/professional lives of leaders reported by the media, how do we use negative coverage for positive classroom pedagogy?

**Using International Service-Learning to Develop Servant Leaders**  
*Annalee N. Antoon, Undergraduate Student, Texas A&M University  
Lori L. Moore, Assistant Professor, Texas A&M University  
Landry L. Lockett, Senior Lecturer and Academic Advisor, Texas A&M University  
Gary Wingenbach, Professor, Texas A&M University*

An International Service Learning program was implemented in 2012 to achieve specific educational objectives and positively contribute to a community in the Highlands of Guatemala. Specific and tangible actions taken by students after the program displayed servant leadership. This session will describe positive impacts and lessons learned.
Using the "Giving Voice to Values" Curriculum to Teach Ethics in Leadership Classes
Barbara W. Altman, Ph.D., Texas A&M University

This practice session will share the classroom tested use of the “Giving Voice to Values (GVV)” curriculum as supplemental modules for teaching ethics in leadership courses. This curriculum challenges students to learn ways to express their values in the workplace, despite organizational barriers. Background on the GVV framework, and lessons plans and support materials for use in a graduate leadership course will be presented. Implications for future use in undergraduate courses will be discussed.

Virtual Values: Teaching Undergraduates Stated and Acted Values
Natalie Kincy, Graduate Teaching Assistant, The University of Georgia
K. Jill Rucker, Assistant Professor, Agricultural Leadership, The University of Georgia

Do you walk the walk or just talk the talk? This interactive practice session will showcase a curriculum unit demonstrating the use of social media to illustrate stated and acted values.

What I Know for Sure: Their Stories, Our Words
Deborah N. Smith, Assistant Department Chair, Leadership Studies Director and Associate Professor of Higher Education, Department of University Studies - Kennesaw State University
Deborah B. Roebuck, Professor of Management, Department of Management and Entrepreneurship - Kennesaw State University
Shannon Ferketish, Integrative Studies Director and Leadership Studies Lecturer, Department of University Studies - Kennesaw State University
Dick Teters, Executive Director, The Center for Accountable Leaders - Kennesaw State University

Participants will learn about a cross-campus collaboration which resulted in a student-created multimedia program grounded in the oral histories of local leaders ranging from a former university president to CEOs. Presenters will detail leadership lessons students learned from viewing the leader videos and the process of creating the program.

What’s Next in Leader Development: Know, See, Plan Do
Scott J. Allen, Assistant Professor of Management, John Carroll University
Beth Ann Martin, Professor of Psychology, John Carroll University
Rosanna Miguel, Assistant Professor of Human Resources, John Carroll University
Although corporations and institutions of higher learning are spending billions of dollars on leader development, there is still no empirically validated framework. The Know, See, Plan, Do framework is an innovative approach to the design, implementation and evaluation of stand alone courses, minors, majors and even workshops.
ROUTABLE DISCUSSIONS
IN BRIEF
A Model for Leader Development Across the Lifespan

Sarah K. Hanks, Graduate Student, Virginia Tech
Eric K. Kaufman, Assistant Professor, Virginia Tech
Curtis R. Friedel, Assistant Professor, Virginia Tech
Nicholas A. Clegorne, Assistant Professor, Virginia Tech

Informed by Avolio’s (2005) multi-level view of leadership development, the social change model of leadership development (HERI, 1996), and Erikson’s (1980) stages of psychosocial development, this presentation highlights a leader development across the lifespan model and rationale for this perspective of leadership development in practice. /

Best Picture in the Leadership Classroom: "And the Oscar Goes To..."

Penny Pennington Weeks, Associate Professor, Oklahoma State University

Still showing 12 Angry Men and Hoosiers in your leadership classroom? If so, it is time to update your leadership library. This roundtable session will serve as an opportunity for leadership educators to discover new leadership films while discussing successful strategies for using film in the leadership classroom. We will specifically focus on usi

Business Ethics Curricula: The Nuts and Bolts of a Holistic Approach

Dr. Laura-Ann Migliore, Online Faculty - School of Advanced Studies, University of Phoenix
Dr. Anne DeClouette, Campus College Chair - Oklahoma, University of Phoenix

This roundtable session provides participants with a leadership development opportunity to self-reflect and apply critical thinking skills for ethical decision-making using relevant scenarios with application to a variety of fields. It provides opportunity to exchange ideas for improving the teaching of ethics education in business & other fields.

Changing Roles: The Effect of Leadership Education on the Selection of Personal Role Models

Jessica Benson, Graduate Assistant, University of Georgia
Jennifer Johnson, Graduate Assistant, University of Georgia

This discussion seeks to foster a greater understanding of why chosen role models are accepted or rejected, with particular attention to leadership education; as participants have enhanced their education in regard to leadership, is there a difference in their criteria in selection of mentors and idols?
Creating Teacher Resiliency: A Dialogue on Professional Development for Leadership Educators

Daniel M. Jenkins, Assistant Professor of Leadership & Organizational Studies, University of Southern Maine, Lewiston-Auburn College
Kerry L. Priest, Assistant Professor of Leadership Studies, Kansas State University

There is an increased demand for leadership faculty and program directors. How are future leadership educators being prepared to teach leadership? This roundtable will provide a forum for reviewing existing professional development opportunities, and more importantly, explore the relative gaps therein.

Go Big or Go Home! A Roundtable Discussion of Doing More with Less

K. Jill Rucker, Assistant Professor, The University of Georgia
Dennis Duncan, Professor, UGA
Natalie Kincy, Graduate Teaching Assistant, UGA
Sunny Wilcox, Graduate Teaching Assistant, UGA

Budget cuts in higher education are becoming a consistent reality causing a problem for academic departments as faculty are forced to figure out how to serve more students with fewer faculty, instructors, and graduate teaching assistants. This discussion will focus on the feasibility of converting small leadership classes to large lecture courses.

Optimizing Doctoral Education in Leadership: A Round Table Session for Program Directors, Faculty and Students

Jennifer Moss Breen, Director, Ph.D. Program in Human Capital Management, Bellevue University
Denise Trudeau Paskas, Associate Professor and Leadership Specialist, University of Minnesota Center for Community Vitality
Stephen Linenberger, Associate Professor of Leadership, Bellevue University

Providing an outstanding doctoral program in leadership, one that results in scholars and practitioners who can guide the leadership field in the future, is a mandate of leadership departments. Doctoral programs are unique as they require not only academic excellence from faculty, they also require the ability of faculty to mentor effectively, provide emotional support to students, and balance a diverse workload. Doctoral programs are also facing challenges regarding recruitment and retention of qualified students. In the spirit of continuous improvement, this roundtable discussion is intended for program directors, faculty and doctoral students will come together to discuss innovative ways to ensure our doctoral programs prepare students to demonstrate change leadership.
Service Learning in Higher Education: A discussion of best practices for the leadership education classroom

Laura Lemons, Doctoral Candidate, Texas Tech University
Dr. Gaea Wimmer, Assistant Professor, Mississippi State University
Dr. Courtney Meyers, Assistant Profession, Texas Tech University

Service learning has been identified as a high impact educational practice with many benefits for all parties involved. The session will foster discussion regarding best practices in designing and implementing service learning, as well as potential barriers. Participants will be encouraged to share experiences with SL as an instructor or student.

The Flipped Classroom: Finding the Pros and Cons

Justin Greenleaf, Assistant Professor, Fort Hays State University
Jill Arensdorf, Assistant Professor, Fort Hays State University

As leadership educators it is important to consider both what and how we teach. In regards to the latter, the flipped classroom approach offers leadership educators a new teaching approach. As with any new and innovative approach, there are pros and cons. The purpose of this roundtable is to explore the concept of the flipped classroom.

Using the Pack Leader metaphor to develop a behavioral framework to support authentic leadership

Lesley Hunter, Miss, University of Sunderland, UK

This Roundtable will present emerging UK-based research using a metaphor-based model to produce a framework of behavior to underpin the development of authentic leadership. It will provide examples, drawn from qualitative research, of the core behaviors considered by a sample of current leaders to be fundamental to leadership effectiveness.
TEACHING CASE STUDIES

IN BRIEF
Does having a leadership title mean you have the skills to thrive in the position?

Jackie Bruce, Associate Professor, North Carolina State University
Caroline Tart, Undergraduate, North Carolina State University

This case study addresses the immediate need to capitalize on college students’ passion for service to an organization to which they are deeply invested by channeling their passions into opportunities and providing the appropriate learning and development experience.

Leading Through Change: The Generational Transition of Ownership of Mama Voodoo’s Shrimp & Oyster House

Jacklyn Bruce, Associate Professor of Leadership Education, North Carolina State University
Sara Brierton, Distance Education Instructional Designer, North Carolina State University

This case study prompts students to explore effective change management practices and leadership actions necessary to achieve them. The study focuses on an iconic New Orleans restaurant and what happens with transitional ownership and a changing business model. Students are challenged as leadership and management consultants for the restaurant.

The Three Faces of Marketing

William Weeks, Professor, Oklahoma State University

Presented in three acts, the case profiles disgruntled Lily, a recent hire, Barney, the well-meaning head of marketing, and Ted, a favored employee. Lily thinks Ted gets all the preferred job assignments and Barney’s undivided attention. Ted, on the other hand, is trying to keep up with his boss’s inexhaustible number of projects.
POSTER SESSIONS
IN BRIEF
4-H Camp Counselors’ Development of Leadership Skills: An Investigation of the Connection between Counselor Training and Ability to Create a Sense of Belonging among Campers

*Melissa Cater, Assistant Professor, Louisiana State University AgCenter*
*Mark Tassin, Professor, Louisiana State University AgCenter*
*Janet Fox, Professor, Louisiana State University AgCenter*

Recent camping program research indicates that camp counselors build leadership skills as a result of their role at camp. This study investigated the association between training and 4-H camp counselors’ ability to create a sense of belonging among campers and perception of adult support.

A Case Study of Leadership Pedagogy in an Organizational Behavior Classroom

*Katharyn A. Ingerson, Graduate Assistant, North Carolina State University*
*Dr. Jackie Bruce, Associate Professor, North Carolina State University*

Participation in organizational behavior classes and hands on learning can lead to successful college graduates as well as an innovative way of teaching. The purpose of this study is to create a deeper understanding of leadership pedagogy in an organizational behavior classroom through participatory class activities.

A Survey Exploring What Employers within the Equine Industry Seek in College Graduates

*Kelsey Pearson, Undergraduate Student, Texas A&M University*
*Summer F. Odom, Assistant Professor, Texas A&M University*
*M'Randa Sandlin, Ph.D. Candidate, Texas A&M University*
*Melinda Young, Texas A&M University*

The equine industry is looking to increase leadership competencies and streamline desired attributes of potential employees. This study sought to identify leadership and work attributes desired by employers when hiring college graduates in the equine industry. Results will increase student and professor understanding of employer expectations.
An Assessment and Analysis of Self-Consciousness of Undergraduate Students Enrolled in a Leadership in Agriculture Course
Guang Han, Graduate Student, Iowa State University
Awoke D. Dollisso, Senior Lecturer, Iowa State University

Self-consciousness has important implications for one's leadership skills. This study assessed and analyzed the undergraduate students’ private self-consciousness and public self-consciousness by a survey adapted from the Self-Consciousness Scale. This study may help the students become more aware of their inward personality.

Behavioral Integrity as a Key Conceptual Framework for Developing Ethical Leaders
Tony Simons, Associate Professor, Cornell University
Barrett Keene, Ph.D. Candidate, Cornell University

Behavioral integrity offers a science-based approach to character development that facilitates learning in a few profound ways. It does not encompass all that is character or all that is leadership, but a lack of behavioral integrity would undermine either profoundly. Behavioral integrity can serve as an excellent basis on which to build.

Building Resilency: Assessing the Effectiveness of School-Based Mentoring On At-Risk Youth
Juanita O. Waits, County Director/Area Extension Agent, University of Arizona Cooperative Extension

Mentoring is a critical element in a child's social, emotional, and cognitive development. Mentors can create positive outcomes for youth. This study investigated the impact of school-based mentoring on academic achievement, at-risk behaviors, and attitudes toward school. Evaluation results of school-based mentoring will be presented.

Capstone ePortfolios: Framework and insight from a newly implemented leadership course
Kelsey Brunton, Graduate Research Assistant, Virginia Tech
Dr. Eric Kaufman, Assistant Professor, Virginia Tech
D. Adam Cletzer, Ph.D. Candidate, Virginia Tech

This poster explains the framework for a newly implemented capstone course, including learning
objectives, reflection prompts, and evaluation rubrics. Insights from this innovative practice will be communicated as improvements are made for future implementation of ePortfolios in leadership courses.

Creating Leaders Affecting Positive Change through State Youth Leadership Boards

Janet, Fox, Louisiana State University AgCenter
Kimberly Jones, Instructor, LSU AgCenter
Melissa Cater, Evaluation Specialist, LSU AgCenter
Lanette Hebert, Regional Coordinator, Southwest Region

The 4-H Youth Development program is committed to developing leadership skills in youth by providing opportunities for youth voice. One of the methods in which leadership skills are developed and enhanced is through the State 4-H Leadership Board experience.

Developing Leaders in Communities through CLPs: How Do They Do It?

Kristina G. Ricketts, Ph.D., University of Kentucky
Curtis R. Friedel, Ph.D., Virginia Tech University
Brielle Wright, Virginia Tech University

Community Leadership Programs (CLPs) play an important role in development of community leaders. This exploratory study sought to provide baseline data describing CLPs within Kentucky and Virginia. Overall, findings suggest potential opportunities for university faculty to collaborate with CLPs, especially regarding curriculum and evaluation.

Developing Leadership Competencies Through an Undergraduate Teaching Assistant Experience

Miles L. Vann, Undergraduate Student, Texas A&M University
Summer F. Odom, Assistant Professor, Texas A&M University
Sarah P. Ho, Ph.D. Student, Texas A&M University

This study sought to determine the skills developed by undergraduate teaching assistants. Qualitative content analysis was used to analyze two UTAs’ reflexive journals through the lens of the Skills Model of Leadership to identify developed leadership competencies. This study found that UTAs develop problem-solving and social judgment skills
Empowering Trust in International Contexts: A Foundation for Community Leadership Development for Future Sustainable and Resilient Communities

S. Janine Parker, McKnight Doctoral Fellow, University of Florida
Anthony Andenoro, Assistant Professor, University of Florida

The establishment of trust is the foundation of all relationships. Volunteers through accompaniment can create relationships with international community members, where leadership skills can be developed for a more resilient and sustainable community. Leadership educators can play a role in developing those volunteers for international work.

Engaging Faculty as Leaders in Service-Learning

Melissa R. Shehane, M. Ed., Assistant Director, Leadership and Service Center, Department of Student Activities, Texas A&M University
Maria Lazo, M.S., Graduate Assistant, Center for Teaching Excellence, Texas A&M University
Jennifer Williams, Ph.D., Assistant Professor, Agricultural Leadership, Education, and Communications, Texas A&M University
Patty Ann Bogue, M.A., Graduate Assistant, Department of Communications, Texas A&M University

The Service-Learning Fellows (SLF) program is a year-long development program that provides an opportunity for selected faculty to integrate service-learning into their teaching, research, and public service work while becoming recognized campus leaders in service-learning pedagogy and community engagement.

Getting to Know Tomorrow’s Leaders: Connecting Leadership Skills to Personality and Emotional Intelligence

L.J. McElravy, Doctoral Student, University of Nebraska - Lincoln
Lindsay Hastings, Ph.D., Director, Nebraska Human Resources Institute, University of Nebraska - Lincoln

In this study, we explored the relationship between traits, including the Big-Five model of personality and emotional intelligence, and self-perceived leadership skills in youth participating in summer leadership conferences. Emotional intelligence and age predicted the youths self-perceived leadership skills.

Importance versus Competence: Identifying the Needs of Leadership Students

Jonathan J. Velez, Assistant Professor, Oregon State University
Aaron J. McKim, Graduate Associate, Oregon State University
Jon C. Simonsen, Assistant Professor, University of Missouri
The authors modified and adapted an existing leadership evaluation tool to focus on evaluating both the perceived importance and competence of 13 different leadership constructs. The assessment, employing a Borich needs assessment model, was used on a group of students enrolled in a yearlong leadership academy program.

**Incorporating Critical Reflection in Youth Leadership Organizations**

*Mollie Dykes, Undergraduate Student, University of Arkansas*
*Casandra Cox, Instructor, University of Arkansas*
*Chelsey Ahrens, Graduate Student, Texas Tech University*
*Scott Burris, Assistant Professor, Texas Tech University*

Research has revealed that critical reflection is essential in leadership development, but a major obstacle is figuring out how to incorporate this key concept into leadership education and teaching students about the relationship between critical reflection and leadership development. We review how researchers incorporated both into a conference.

**Lance Armstrong: Live Strong, Lead Strong. Live Wrong, Lead Wrong.**

*Jennifer Johnson, Graduate Assistant/Student, University of Georgia*
*Jessica Benson, Graduate Assistant/Student, University of Georgia*

This study seeks to construct a timeline of Lance Armstrong’s leadership; what contributed to both his rise and demise? Details from the past intertwine in this synthesis of literature to tell the tale of his fall from grace.

**Leadership Competency Training Certificate for Extension Leaders**

*Chris Mott, Graduate Student, University of Florida*
*Dr. R. Kirby Barrick, Professor, University of Florida*

The Cooperative Extension system is the world’s largest non-formal adult education provider, working in American communities to solve local problems and improve lives. The majority of Extension leaders, including those in state director and administrator positions, is promoted exclusively from their performance in previously-held positions and has not had any prior leadership competency training. The purpose of this project is to develop an online Certificate in Leadership Competency for Leaders in Extension to meet the needs of Extension Directors in the state and nationally.
Leadership Effectiveness of Agricultural and Extension Education Department Heads
Katharyn A. Ingerson, Graduate Assistant, North Carolina State University
Dr. Jackie Bruce, Associate Professor, North Carolina State University

Effective leadership is necessary at all levels of an institution of higher education. The purpose of this study was to discover a holistic view of factors influencing the leadership effectiveness of agricultural and extension education department heads from 1862 land-grant universities.

Leadership Minor Capstone Project
Julie Robinson, Doctoral Candidate, The Ohio State University
Robert J. Birkenholz, Professor, The Ohio State University
Caryn M. Filson, Ph.D., The Ohio State University

Leadership capstone projects provide students with opportunities to integrate theory with practice. This poster will describe the planning and assessment rubrics used in the Leadership Studies minor.

Organizational Climate: The Leader's Influence
Laura Lemons, Doctoral Candidate, Texas Tech University
Shawna Newsome, Graduate Assistant, Texas Tech University
Dr. Todd Brashears, Assistant Professor, Texas Tech University

It is said that organizational climate has a direct impact on the motivation of members within an organization. This study sought to determine the differences in organizational climate and leadership behaviors as perceived by members of the Vocational Agriculture Teachers Association of Texas before and after a change in leadership occurred.

Chelsey Ann Ahrens, Doctoral Graduate Assistant, Texas Tech University
Dr. Scott Burris, Associate Professor, Texas Tech University
Ms. Casandra K. Cox, Lecturer, University of Arkansas
Mollie Dykes, Undergraduate Research Assistant, University of Arkansas

It is important to evaluate the leadership life skills youth develop to determine the effectiveness of leadership curriculum and its quality and impact. This research study surveyed [State] FFA members
after attending the 2012 [State] Leadership Conference to determine the leadership life skills developed while at the conference.

**Perceived Youth Leadership Life Skills Developed in Selected [State] FFA Leaders**

*Chelsey Ann Ahrens, Doctoral Graduate Assistant, Texas Tech University*

*Dr. Scott Burris, Associate Professor, Texas Tech University*

*Ms. Casandra K. Cox, Lecturer, University of Arkansas*

*Mollie Dykes, Undergraduate Research Assistant, University of Arkansas*

Understanding youth leadership life skills also allows for the understanding of leadership involvement. This study utilized survey methodology and correlational design to describe youth leadership life skill development (YLLSD) of selected [State] FFA leaders after attending the [State] Leadership Conference. Researchers also explored relationships between FFA participants and participation and YLLSD.

**Political Skill: Improv in the Leadership Classroom**

*Andrew J. Wefald, Assistant Professor, Kansas State University*

*Mary H. Tolar, Assistant Professor & Director, Kansas State University*

*Dwight Tolar, Assistant Professor, Kansas State University*

Political skill is an important component of effective leadership and refers to skills related to influencing other people, negotiating, deal-making, and building trust. One way to build those skills in through improvisation exercises. This session will examine ways to build political skill and why it is important for leadership education.

**Quack Leadership: Analyzing the Three Skills Approach through an Analysis of Duck Dynasty**

*Sunny Wilcox, Graduate Teaching Assistant, The University of Georgia*

*Jessica Benson, Graduate Teaching/Research Assistant, The University of Georgia*

*K. Jill Rucker, Assistant Professor, The University of Georgia*

In an introductory leadership and service-learning course at [University] students were asked to evaluate leaders from Duck Dynasty based on the Three Skills Approach. The use of popular culture assisted with the learning process and knowledge retention by providing the student with a medium that was easily obtained and readily understood.
Self-Directed Leader Development: A Case Study of Student Engagement and Resilience in Interdisciplinary Leadership Programs

Ashley Pater, Undergraduate Student: Leadership and Social Change Minor, Virginia Tech
Nicholas A Clegorne, Assistant Professor and Director of the Residential Leadership Community, Virginia Tech

Informed by Situational Leadership (Hersey, Blanchard, & Johnson, 1988) and Grow’s (1991) Staged Self-Directed Learning (SSDL) Model, the session highlights a case study of teaching assessment within interdisciplinary leadership programs. Using the SSDL, our recommendations focus on promoting self-directed, resilient student learning.

Self-Perceived Leadership Life Skills Assessment of Animal Science Majors

Cody Weaver, Undergraduate Student, Texas A&M University
Summer Odom, Assistant Professor, Texas A&M University
Don Barry, Undergraduate Student, Texas A&M University

The Leadership Skills Inventory (LSI) was used to examine self-perceived leadership skills of senior animal science majors at two universities. Students scored lowest in the leadership scale. No significant differences were found in self-perceived leadership and life skill ability between students with FFA experience and those without.

Serve with Purpose: Exploring Vocation as Servant Leaders through Service-Learning

Michael E. Shehane, Senior Career Coordinator, Texas A&M University
Melissa R. Shehane, Assistant Director, Leadership and Service Center, Department of Student Activities, Texas A&M University

Educators are charged with aiding students during the quest for purpose and development of self. A proven tool for this endeavor is the incorporation of service-learning into curriculum. This poster will explore how to help students draw connections between service-learning and career aspirations within the context of a first-year seminar course.
**Service Learning: The Legacy That Continues**

*Jessica Benson, Graduate Research/Teaching Assistant, University of Georgia*

*Sunny Wilcox, Graduate Teaching/Research Assistant, University of Georgia*

*Jill Rucker, Assistant Professor, University of Georgia*

Service-learning is an innovative way to engage students in leadership curriculum. This form of experiential learning is increasing in popularity because of its benefit to the student and the community. The application of service learning integrates community service with course concepts.

**Spark Learning with Effective Leadership**

*Marcia Collins, Independent Educational Consultant, Independent*

Reignite the passion of learning by sparking the learning of effective leaders. During this roundtable discussion, participants will reunite with like minds, discuss effective, collaborative tools, and create resiliency in schools, sustain faculty momentum and enhance student academics in the process.

**Strengthening the connection between undergraduate leadership development programs and research using the Collegiate Leadership Development Model**

*Elizabeth A. Foreman, Student Services Specialist, Iowa State University*

*Michael S. Retallick, Associate Professor, Iowa State University*

Researchers identified the disconnect between research and practice and suggested a comprehensive framework to implement leadership development programs and conduct leadership development research. However, a review of the literature revealed that a comprehensive model was missing from the literature. The primary purpose of this study was to synt

**The Generational Leadership Model: Classifying and Demystifying the Leadership Differences in Generations**

*Angel Futrell, Graduate Assistant, Texas A&M University*

*Jennifer Williams, Assistant Professor, Texas A&M University*

With the millennial generation’s coming of age, it is possible for up to four different generations to be present in the realm of academia. That is why it is imperative for leadership educators have a conceptual model for generational differences in leadership. This poster provides The Generational Leadership Model.
The Influence of Extra-Curricular Activities on Undergraduate Students’ Communication Competencies
Sarah Nerswick, Graduate Teaching Assistant, The University of Georgia
Dennis Duncan, Professor, UGA
K. Jill Rucker, Assistant Professor, UGA
Nick Fuhrman, Associate Professor, UGA

There is a strong connection between leadership and communication skills. The purpose of this descriptive study was to determine if extra-curricular activities that undergraduates participated in influenced their perceived communication and leadership confidence.

The Role of Leadership Efficacy in Agricultural Education
Aaron J. McKim, Graduate Student, Oregon State University
Jonathan J. Velez, Assistant Professor, Oregon State University

The leadership efficacy of 154 early career agriculture teachers in five western states is explored. Results include an investigation of the relationship between teaching experience and leadership efficacy.

Threads for Thought: Empowering the Women of Chajul
Annalee N. Antoon, Undergraduate Student, Texas A&M University
Lori L. Moore, Assistant Professor, Associate Professor
Gary Wingenbach, Professor, Texas A&M University

Exploring the mentoring relationship between academic advisors and distance-based graduate students
Fexlix.Arnold, Ph.D.
Many universities are now turning to professional staff advisors to help advise distance students on academic issues and serve as mentors by providing a new perspective on mentoring as it relates to distance-based graduate students. This paper explores this relationship through a literature review with anecdotes from a qualitative study.
RESEARCH PAPERS IN FULL
Applying the Situational Leadership® II Model: Assessing Follower Competence and Commitment

Gaea Wimmer, Ph.D.
Mississippi State University

Todd Brashears, Ph.D.
Texas Tech University

Scott Burris, Ph.D.
Texas Tech University

Steve Fraze, Ph.D.
Texas Tech University

Abstract
The student teaching semester is a capstone experience for future agricultural education teachers. Cooperating teachers play a vital role in developing student teachers during this experience. The Situational Leadership® II Model takes into consideration the followers’ competence and commitment and asks the leader to make appropriate adjustments in their leadership style. This quantitative study investigated the perceived competence and commitment of agricultural education student teachers during the semester. Cooperating teachers assessed their student teacher’s level of competence and commitment at four points over the semester using a researcher developed instrument. Application of the Situational Leadership® II Model was encouraged through feedback forms sent after each round of the instrument. Student teachers increased in their developmental level over the course of the semester, with the exception of two student teachers who remained in the D3 category at each of the four administrations. Future research is encouraged to further develop the competence and commitment instrument.

Introduction
Most teacher education programs offer a student teaching experience as the capstone experience for students in the degree program. Student teaching consists of the period of time college students spend working in a secondary school learning the intricacies of teaching by gradually taking over the responsibilities of teaching from a cooperating teacher (Borne & Moss, 1990). The student teaching semester has been an important component of the teacher preparation process for many years. Schumann (1969) wrote about the importance of the student teaching semester in preparing future agriculture teachers. He stated, “The student teacher should be developing professional competence
and at the same time gaining confidence as a teacher” (Schumann, 1969, p. 156). The student teaching experience is the time when theories and methods learned in the college classroom are applied in an actual classroom (Borne and Moss, 1990).

Norris, Larke, and Briers (1990) wrote, “the student teaching experience serves as a culmination of the teacher education process” (p. 58). They stated the cooperating teacher and the cooperating teaching site were the two most important components of the student teaching experience. The cooperating teacher serves as the supervisor and leader to help the student teacher develop during the experience.

One of the variables that may affect the relationship between student teachers and cooperating teachers is the leadership style of the cooperating teacher. This category of leadership approaches is defined as “an act or behavior- the things leaders do to bring about change in a group” (Northouse, 2010, p. 2).

The leadership style of the cooperating teacher is not the only important variable in the total experience. The follower and the situation also impact how successful the experience will be. Northouse (2010) stated, “situational leadership focuses on leadership in situations” (p. 89). This approach to leadership implies that the most effective style of leadership will depend on the situation and changes as the situation changes.

**Literature Review**

The original Situational Leadership Model was based on a management style of developing workers first proposed by Paul Hersey and Kenneth Blanchard (1969). This model requires the leader to evaluate the follower, “The importance of a leader’s diagnostic ability cannot be overemphasized” (Hersey, Blanchard, & Johnson, 1996, p. 188). The leader must be able to identify their followers’ development level and then “adapt their leadership style” (Hersey et al., p. 188) to meet their needs.

In 1982, “Blanchard and his colleagues at Blanchard Training and Development (BTD) began to modify the original Situational Leadership Model and developed diagnostic instruments and training materials to support their approach (called SLII®) in training seminars and presentations” (Hersey et al., 1996, p. 189). This second version of the model is very similar to the original model first proposed by Hersey & Blanchard (1969), but it went through several revisions and adjustments between the late 1960s and 1982 (Hersey, Blanchard, & Johnson, 1996).

The major difference between the first model and the second is the verbiage used to describe follower development. The original model used the terms, “ability and willingness” (Hersey et al., 1996) while the new model uses the terms “competence and commitment” (Blanchard et al., 1985) to describe the followers. Also, the first model used the term “follower readiness” (Hersey et al., 1996) whereas Situational Leadership® II uses the term “follower development” (Blanchard et al., 1985). Follower development “refers to the extent to which a person has mastered the skills necessary for the task at hand and has developed a positive attitude toward the task” (Blanchard, Zigarmi, & Nelson, 1993, p. 27).
Hersey and Blanchard’s situational leadership model has been used in prior agricultural education studies. Fritz and Miller (2003a) applied the model in their Escalation Model in terms of the ‘maturity’ feature of the first Situational Leadership Model, which is connected to the willingness and ability of the individual in a specific context. They labeled the four supervisory styles in the moderately structured level of the Escalation Model as “directing, coaching, supporting, and self-regulating” which bears a striking similarity to the four leadership styles in Hersey and Blanchard’s original Situational Leadership Model (1969). Similar to the need for the leader to recognize and adapt their leadership style to meet their follower developmental level in Hersey and Blanchard’s (1969) model Fritz and Miller (2003a) state “a supervisor must be able to analyze a teaching situation and select an appropriate supervisory approach for each teacher” (p. 36).

A qualitative study conducted by Stephens and Waters (2009) allowed student teachers to choose the supervisory model used during the student teaching experience. The Supervisory Options for Instructional Leaders (SOIL) framework (Fritz & Miller, 2003b) was used to outline the types of supervision models available to student teachers. One student selected “contextual supervision” which required the supervisor to assess the competence and confidence of the student teacher. “The readiness levels are based on the teacher’s competence and confidence in teaching” (Stephens & Waters, 2009, p. 91). They encouraged the supervisor to analyze the student teacher’s confidence and competence in the classroom before selecting the supervisory style.

**Theoretical Framework**

Situational leadership theory served as the theoretical framework for this study. The need for the leader to evaluate their followers and assess their skill level and motivation is a key component of this theory (Northouse, 2010). The model applied to this research study was the Situational Leadership II Model (Blanchard, Zigarmi, & Zigarmi, 1985). Situational Leadership II is displayed in Figure 1.

![Situational Leadership II Model](http://elmundopequeno.wordpress.com/2010/10/03/situational-leadership)

*Figure 1. Situational Leadership II* Model. (Graphic from http://elmundopequeno.wordpress.com/2010/10/03/situational-leadership)

The first part of the model focuses on the leader and the two types of behavior they could exhibit when working with followers. The four leadership styles are: Directive, Coaching, Supporting, and Delegating. The second component of the model is the level of follower development which will vary due to the
competence and commitment of the follower on any given task. The follower development levels were the focus of this research study.

Followers in the first level (D1) are excited about the job or task ahead of them, but require assistance in developing the skills to perform it effectively (Blanchard, Zigarmi, & Nelson, 1993). The second development level (D2) consist of followers who have begun to learn the competencies necessary to perform the task, but realize the amount of work ahead of them to become fully competent and may begin to feel overwhelmed and frustrated. Followers in the D3 level will begin to welcome new responsibilities and challenges, but may begin to waver in their day-to-day commitment. The final follower development level is the D4 level. Followers in this level are also called “self-reliant” (Blanchard, 2007, p. 92) because they have developed to the point in which they are competent and committed to performing the particular task.

The perceived level of competence and commitment of the student teacher is an important part of the Situational Leadership® II model, but is difficult to ascertain. Cooperating teachers must determine the level of development their student teacher possesses at any given time. The perceived level of development is important because that is what the cooperating teacher will use to make the decision as to the most appropriate leadership style to utilize in order to meet the student teacher’s developmental level. As the student teacher gains in perceived competence and commitment the cooperating teacher should adjust his leadership style to better meet the student teacher’s developmental level (Blanchard, 2007; Blanchard, Zigarmi, & Nelson, 1993).

Commitment can be defined in numerous ways. One definition states that it “is a force that binds an individual to a course of action” (Cohen, 2003, p. xi). Mowday, Steers, and Porter (1979) characterize the behaviors of commitment as those that reflect behaviors that place the organization above the individual. These may be staying late to work on a project, coming in early, and making sacrifices in one’s personal life for work events. Attitudinal commitment reflects how much an individual identifies with a particular organization or profession (Mowday et al., 1979). Examples of this would be a strong feeling of loyalty toward the organization, personal and company goals are the same and the individual identifies themselves with the company.

The competencies that make a teacher effective are somewhat subjective and discipline specific. Roberts, Dooley, Harlin and Murphrey (2006) stated “competency in subject matter and pedagogy is more subjective, and thus more difficult to measure” (p. 1). Shippy (1981) reported 246 competencies that were found to be needed in at least average competence by agricultural education teachers. Roberts and Dyer (2004) conducted a Delphi study to develop a list of competencies needed by effective agricultural education teachers. The study yielded a list of 40 characteristics that were grouped into 8 categories. The eight categories were: “instruction, FFA, SAE [supervised agricultural experience], building community partnerships, marketing, professional growth/professionalism, program planning, and personal qualities” (p. 93).
Roberts et al. (2006) further expanded on previous research efforts to identify the “required competencies and traits of successful agricultural science teachers” (p. 1). They utilized previous studies by Shippy (1981) and Roberts and Dyer (2004) and a focus group to identify the competencies and traits needed by successful agricultural education teachers. They also worked to classify the identified competencies into a working model (Figure 2). They duplicated 7 of the 8 categories (combined program planning and marketing into one category) that were identified by Roberts and Dyer (2004) while adding an 8th overlapping category; ‘working with diverse groups.’

![Figure 2. Model of Competencies and Traits of Successful Agricultural Science Teachers (Roberts, Dooley, Harlin, & Murphrey, 2006).](image)

**Purpose/Research Objectives**

The purpose of this study was to quantify the commitment and competence of each student teacher as assessed by their cooperating teacher in an effort to estimate the development level of the student teacher as defined by the Situational Leadership® II Model.

The following research objectives were formulated:

1. Determine student teacher’s level of commitment and competence as assessed by their cooperating teacher.
2. Determine the developmental level of each student teacher at four points in the semester.
3. Determine the change in developmental level over the course of the semester as perceived by the cooperating teacher.

**Methods**

Quantitative methodologies were employed to explore the research objectives. The cooperating teachers completed four questionnaires over the course of the semester to gauge the development level of their student teacher (in terms of the perceived level of competence and commitment).
The accessible population for this study were the agricultural science teachers in Texas who served as cooperating teachers during the spring 2012 semester for student teachers at Texas Tech University \((N = 8)\). These teachers were purposively selected as cooperating teachers based on the characteristics of their program, their willingness to serve as a cooperating teacher and the accessibility of their location. All teachers included in this study had previously served as a cooperating teacher on one or more occasions, but not all for Texas Tech University. The second accessible population consisted of the college students participating in the spring 2012 student teaching block at Texas Tech University \((N = 8)\) completing the requirements of their teaching certification program.

Cooperating teachers were asked to assess their student teacher based on the competencies that are identified as being needed by effective agricultural education teachers. They also assessed the student teacher’s perceived level of commitment toward teaching. The instrument for this portion of the study was developed by the researcher through a thorough literature review. It was delivered as a web-based questionnaire using Qualtrics™, an online survey website. The questionnaire consisted of 8 statements for competence, 15 statements for commitment and one question to identify the school for follow-up purposes.

Face and content validity was established by a panel of experts. In order to establish reliability of the competence and commitment instrument for this research study a pilot test was conducted during the fall 2011 semester. There were five student teachers and five cooperating teachers in the pilot test. The Cronbach’s alpha for the competence section yielded a .54 and an alpha coefficient of .35 for the commitment section of the instrument.

Prior to data collection, approval for the use of human subjects was obtained from the Texas Tech University Institutional Review Board. Data were collected from cooperating teachers at the end of the first week the student teachers were on site, then also at the end of week 5, week 9, and week 12 (Table 1). When needed, a follow-up Email was sent to all participants reminding the participants of the study for each round. There was a 100% response rate for each of the four rounds.

Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Round</th>
<th>Date Sent</th>
<th>Date Closed</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>February 28</td>
<td>March 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>March 26</td>
<td>April 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>April 23</td>
<td>May 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>May 9</td>
<td>May 19</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Competence and Commitment Instrument Administration Schedule*
Questionnaire results were analyzed using appropriate statistics within SPSS® 18.0. After each round of the questionnaire, the results were analyzed to estimate the competence and commitment level of each student teacher. Depending on the score given by the cooperating teacher for each area, the student teacher was then assigned a developmental level by the researcher. A follow-up email was sent to the cooperating teacher with tips for better meeting the student teachers’ development level by adjusting their (the cooperating teacher) leadership style after all rounds except the fourth. The tip sheets were created based on previous literature on the four follower developmental levels in the Situational Leadership Model™ II (tip sheets are included in the Appendix).

The developmental levels are related to the stage of development that the student teacher appears to be in according to their level of competence and commitment (Table 2).

Table 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Follower (Student Teacher) Developmental Level</th>
<th>Level of Competence</th>
<th>Level of Commitment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>D1</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D2</td>
<td>Some</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D3</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>Variable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D4</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* Adapted from Blanchard, Zigarmi & Nelson (1993)

In order to assign each student teacher to a specific developmental level the researcher determined breaks between “high” and “low” for competence and commitment based on the pilot test and prior literature. For the competence section of the instrument the maximum score a student could receive was 40 (8 questions, 5 points each). The researcher split the competence category into low (score of 20 or less) and high (score of 21 to 40). For the commitment section of the instrument the maximum score a student could receive was 75 (15 questions, 5 points each) the researcher split the commitment category into low (score of 38 or less) and high (score of 39 to 75). Score breakdowns are shown in Table 3.

Table 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scoring Breaks for Competence and Commitment Instrument</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Low</th>
<th>High</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Competence</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>≤ 20</td>
<td>≥ 21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commitment</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>≤ 38</td>
<td>≥ 39</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* The determination of the high or low score breaks was based on a pilot study and prior literature. The breaks are therefore exploratory in nature.
Findings

There were eight agricultural education student teachers at Texas Tech University completing their student teaching experience during the Spring 2012 semester. The majority (75%, \( n = 6 \)) of the student teachers were female. The age of the student teachers ranged from 21 to 25 with the average of 22.75 (\( SD = 1.28 \)). Cooperating teachers had taught an average of 18 years (\( M = 18.14, SD = 11.82 \)) with a range of experience from nine years to forty-three years. The cooperating teachers had worked with an average of 5.29 (\( SD = 4.07 \)) student teachers during their years teaching agriculture. The range of student teachers worked with prior to this particular student teacher was from two to ten.

Research objective one and two were closely tied together and will be reported as such. Research objective one sought to determine student teacher’s level of competence and commitment as assessed by their cooperating teacher. Research objective two sought to determine the developmental level of each student teacher at four points in the semester.

Cooperating teachers completed the Competence and Commitment Instrument at four points during the student teaching semester. Cooperating teachers assessed their student teachers on the two categories using a 6-point Likert-type scale ranging from no opportunity to observe yet (0) to proficient (5) for Competence and not yet observed (0) to strongly agree (5) for Commitment. Each student teachers’ scores for the two sections were calculated and their developmental level was assigned based on their scores. The “high” and “low” categories for each section of the Competence and Commitment instrument were established before the first administration of the instrument.

The first round of the Competence and Commitment instrument was emailed to the cooperating teachers on February 28 and analyzed on March 7. Table 4 displays the scores the cooperating teachers reported for each of the student teachers. After the competence and commitment scores were totaled and graphed, estimations as to their development level were made. The estimations were made by the researcher by using previously set guidelines. After analyzing the scores reported for round one, the majority (\( n = 7 \)) of the student teachers were estimated to be in the D3 category for development. The graph for each round is found in Appendix A.
### Table 4

*Cooperating Teachers’ Perception of Student Teacher’s Competence and Commitment- Round 1*  
\( (N = 8) \)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Student Teacher</th>
<th>Competence(^1) (Raw Score</th>
<th>Percent)</th>
<th>Commitment(^2) (Raw Score</th>
<th>Percent)</th>
<th>Development Level(^3)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>95.00</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>82.67</td>
<td>D3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>82.50</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>81.33</td>
<td>D3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>45.00</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>24.00</td>
<td>D2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>92.50</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>72.00</td>
<td>D3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>65.00</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>84.00</td>
<td>D3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>75.00</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>88.00</td>
<td>D3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>100.00</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>84.00</td>
<td>D3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>72.50</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>74.67</td>
<td>D3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* \(^1\)Maximum possible score of 40, \(^2\)Maximum possible score of 75, \(^3\)Estimation made using preset cutoff values. Competence: low = < 20; high ≥ 21. Commitment: low = < 38; high ≥ 39.

The second round of the Competence and Commitment instrument was sent to the cooperating teachers on March 26 and analyzed on April 2. Table 5 displays the scores the cooperating teachers reported for each of the student teachers. After analyzing the scores reported for round two, the majority \((n = 6)\) of the student teachers were still estimated to be in the D3 category for development. Two student teachers regressed to the D1 category.

### Table 5

*Cooperating Teachers’ Perception of Student Teacher’s Competence and Commitment- Round 2*  
\( (N = 8) \)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Student Teacher</th>
<th>Competence(^1) (Raw Score</th>
<th>Percent)</th>
<th>Commitment(^2) (Raw Score</th>
<th>Percent)</th>
<th>Development Level(^3)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>25.00</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>92.00</td>
<td>D1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>92.50</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>90.67</td>
<td>D3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>70.00</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>66.67</td>
<td>D3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The third round of the Competence and Commitment instrument was sent to the cooperating teachers on April 23 and analyzed on May 1. After analyzing the scores reported for round three, the group was evenly split with four in the D3 category and four in the D4 category (Table 6).

Table 6

Cooperating Teachers’ Perception of Student Teacher’s Competence and Commitment- Round 3 (N = 8)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Student Teacher</th>
<th>Competence</th>
<th>Commitment</th>
<th>Development Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Raw Score</td>
<td>Percent</td>
<td>Raw Score</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>87.50</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>97.50</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>92.50</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>100.00</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>100.00</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>60.00</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>100.00</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>100.00</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. ¹Maximum possible score of 40, ²Maximum possible score of 75, ³Estimation made using preset cutoff values. Competence: low= < 20; high ≥ 21. Commitment: low = < 38; high ≥ 39.
The fourth round of the Competence and Commitment instrument was sent to the cooperating teachers on May 9 and analyzed on May 19. After analyzing the scores reported for round four, there were two levels tied; D3 ($n = 4$) and D4 ($n = 4$) (Table 7).

Table 7

Cooperating Teachers’ Perception of Student Teacher’s Competence and Commitment - Round 4 ($N = 8$)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Student Teacher</th>
<th>Competence 1</th>
<th>Commitment 2</th>
<th>Development Level 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Raw Score</td>
<td>Percent</td>
<td>Raw Score</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>75.00</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>100.00</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>95.00</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>97.50</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>100.00</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>60.00</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>100.00</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>100.00</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. 1 Maximum possible score of 40, 2 Maximum possible score of 75, 3 Estimation made using preset cutoff values. Competence: low = < 20; high > 21. Commitment: low = < 38; high > 39.

Objective three sought to describe the student teachers development over the course of the student teaching semester (Table 8). Two students started at the D3 level and never changed from that level over the course of the semester. Four students started at the D3 level and progressed to the D4 level by the end of the experience. The final two students varied in their development level over the course of the semester.

Table 8

Student Teacher Development Level Change During the Semester ($N = 8$)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Student</th>
<th>CP 1</th>
<th>CM 2</th>
<th>DL 3</th>
<th>CP 1</th>
<th>CM 2</th>
<th>DL 3</th>
<th>CP 1</th>
<th>CM 2</th>
<th>DL 3</th>
<th>CP 1</th>
<th>CM 2</th>
<th>DL 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>D3</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>D1</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>D4</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>D4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>D3</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>D3</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>D4</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>D4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The average competence score, commitment score and developmental level for the group was calculated for each round of the Competence and Commitment instrument administration. The results can be seen in Table 9. On average, the group was in the D3 level for the majority of the semester with very little variation in the average scores on the Competence and Commitment instrument over the course of the semester.

Table 9

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Round</th>
<th>Competence</th>
<th>Commitment</th>
<th>Development Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>31.38</td>
<td>55.38</td>
<td>D3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>29.50</td>
<td>60.13</td>
<td>D3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>36.25</td>
<td>60.25</td>
<td>D4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>31.38</td>
<td>59.88</td>
<td>D3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. 1CP = Competence Raw Score, 2CM = Commitment Raw Score, 3DL = Developmental Level

Conclusions/Implications

Research objective one sought to determine student teacher’s level of competence and commitment as assessed by their cooperating teacher. Research objective two sought to determine the developmental level of each student teacher at four points in the semester. Cooperating teachers completed the Competence and Commitment Instrument four times over the duration of the semester. The first instrument resulted in all the student teachers, except one, estimated to be in the D3 category. The D3 category is reflective of followers who are high in competence and variable in commitment. Followers in the D3 category “feel insecure, unready, and dependent on others with expertise” (Blanchard, Zigarmi, & Nelson, 1993, p. 28). One student teacher was reported to be in the D2 level of development for the first round. A D2 follower is one who has “developed some competence, but having low commitment” (Blanchard et al., 1993, p. 27).
The first evaluation of the student teacher’s abilities and commitment level would appear to be high for the first administration of the instrument. The rating of the student teachers as D3 or D2 may or may not be an accurate reflection of their competence and commitment levels. It may also imply that the student teachers are actually in the D3 category when they arrive at their student teaching location. This may imply the student teachers are being well-prepared by the teacher education program before they begin their student teaching experience and are at the D3 level.

The second administration of the Competence and Commitment instrument resulted in two D1 category student teachers and the remaining six as D3. The D1 follower is described as high in commitment, but low in competence. This is to be expected of someone new to a job (Blanchard, Zigarmi, & Nelson, 1993), such as student teachers learning how to teach or performing specific tasks related to teaching. It may also imply the more accurate assessment of competence and commitment by the cooperating teacher.

The third administration of the Competence and Commitment instrument resulted in four student teachers moving to the D4 category. This category of follower is highly developed with high competence and commitment. This is the level in which a leader would be comfortable turning over the task to their follower (Blanchard, Zigarmi, & Nelson, 1993). Cooperating teachers who reported their student teacher as a D4 should match their development with a delegating style of leadership. It is unlikely that a cooperating teacher would just turn over all aspects of the agricultural education program to a student teacher, but they may allow the student teacher to teach in any manner they wish.

The fourth and final administration of the Competence and Commitment instrument resulted in four student teachers reaching the D4 category and four reaching the D3 category of follower development. For those reaching the D4 level of development this indicates that their cooperating teacher believes they are ready to take on full responsibilities and are fully developed.

Research objective three sought to determine the change in developmental level over the course of the semester as perceived by the cooperating teacher. Student teachers were reported to increase in their developmental level over the course of the semester, with the exception of two student teachers who remained in the D3 category at each of the four administrations. This may indicate the lack of accurate assessment by the cooperating teacher or the lack of growth by the student teacher.

As a group, student teachers were reported to be in the D3 category for the majority of the semester. This could be due to their actual abilities or to cooperating teachers’ responses on the Competence and Commitment instrument not accurately gauging those constructs and growth over the semester. It may also indicate that the development of future teachers begins as soon as they enter the teacher education process. Therefore, they begin as D1 their first semester in the program and develop across the span of several semesters and experiences before student teaching.
Recommendations

The first recommendation for future research is to improve the Competence and Commitment instrument. It should also be tested on a larger group of student teachers to better gauge where to set the development level ranges. A criticism of Situational Leadership® II Model is how the original authors (Hersey & Blanchard) conceptualized the development levels in relation to the level of competence and commitment for each level (Northouse, 2010). This is a challenge to researchers who do not have a set frame to analyze the development level of followers and how the leader matches their style accordingly (Northouse, 2010).

Further research into preferred leadership style of the cooperating teacher and student teacher’s level of satisfaction with the experience should be conducted. The type of supervision used by the cooperating teacher could be impacted by the type of leadership style preferred. Wimmer, Brashears, and Burris (2012) reported the majority of cooperating teachers in their study preferred the supporting style of leadership. Does this impact the type of supervisory model implemented when working with student teachers? More research should be conducted to correlate leadership style with supervisory style used.

Although there is not one best approach to supervision, it is important for supervisors to analyze their situations to determine the best supervisory approach (Thobega & Miller, 2008). The model focuses on matching the supervisory style with the readiness level of the student teacher on a particular task (Stephens & Waters, 2009) which is connected to the Situational Leadership® II Model.

Several recommendations for practice can be made from this research study. One recommendation is to encourage student teachers to assess their level of competence and commitment. This may help student teachers identify their own weaknesses and request their cooperating teacher’s assistance in certain competency areas. This assessment could be done before they begin their student teaching experience and given to the cooperating teacher to provide a better analysis of their student teacher.

Training efforts should be made by teacher educators in an effort to better equip cooperating teachers with the knowledge and skills needed to more effectively work with student teachers. Previous researchers have also recommended training cooperating teachers in supervision through special workshops or courses (Deeds, 1993; Deeds & Barrick, 1986; Norris, Larke, & Briers, 1990; Young & Edwards, 2006). Training cooperating teachers how to apply the Situational Leadership® II Model when working with the student teachers is a key area for development.
References


Appendix A

COMPETENCE AND COMMITMENT SCORES FOR EACH ROUND

Compence and Commitment Scores- Round 1

Compence and Commitment- Round 2
APPENDIX B
TIP SHEETS SENT TO COOPERATING TEACHERS

Feedback Form (D1)

Thank you completing the Competence & Commitment instrument to evaluate your student teacher’s level of development. After analyzing your responses we are estimating that your student teacher is a D1.

Tips for working with a D1 follower:

- Tell them exactly how you want them to perform
- Be specific when giving instructions
- You make decisions and tell them what to do
- Closely supervise their performance and provide feedback

Thank you again for completing the survey. Please let us know if you have any questions or concerns.

Feedback Form (D2)

Thank you completing the Competence & Commitment instrument to evaluate your student teacher’s level of development. After analyzing your responses we are estimating that your student teacher is a D2.

Tips for working with a D2 follower:

- You make decisions, but explain them & allow opportunity for clarification
- Allow two-way dialogue
- Explain their role
- Ask them questions to better understand their competence
- Reinforce small improvements

Thank you again for completing the survey. Please let us know if you have any questions or concerns.
Feedback Form (D3)

Thank you completing the Competence & Commitment instrument to evaluate your student teacher’s level of development. After analyzing your responses we are estimating that your student teacher is a D3.

Tips for working with a D3 follower:

- Encourage input from the student teacher
- Actively listen
- Allow the student teacher to make the decisions
- Encourage two-way communications and involvement
- Support risk-taking
- Compliment their work
- Praise and build confidence

Thank you again for completing the survey. Please let us know if you have any questions or concerns.

Feedback Form (D4)

Thank you completing the Competence & Commitment instrument to evaluate your student teacher’s level of development. After analyzing your responses we are estimating that your student teacher is a D4.

Tips for working with a D4 follower:

- Delegate tasks
- Allow them to make the decisions
- Employ relatively light supervision
- Monitor their performance
- Reinforce results
- Remain accessible

Thank you again for completing the survey. Please let us know if you have any questions or concerns.
Assessing Student Leadership Development and Transformational Learning Following an Alternative Break Experience

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Abstract
This qualitative study compares two pilot projects. Both were hands-on, week-long service trips involving college students following two separate natural disasters. Using data collected from prompt-based journals, the researchers in this study sought to develop an understanding of the project’s impact and outcomes for participants as well as develop a programmatic assessment tool for similar service projects or “Alternative Break” programs. This project merged participants’ personal narratives with the theoretical frameworks of the Social Change Model of Leadership and transformational learning to further understand participant experiences while serving in extreme conditions. From these two pilot data collections, the research team developed an assessment tool that may be used at any university for similar experiences.

Introduction
In 2011 and 2012, several massive natural disasters struck the United States. Volunteers from local communities were simply not enough to manage the ongoing disaster relief. As a result, volunteers from around the country traveled to Alabama, Virginia, Oklahoma, Missouri, New York, New Jersey, and other devastated locations to offer much needed assistance. Many of these additional volunteers came from the ranks of American universities and colleges.

Many American colleges and universities have been busy developing young men and women through the advent of both academic and co-curricular leadership training programs (Astin, 1993; Buckner & Williams, 1995, Buschlen & Dvorak, 2011). Although a slow moving trend at first, these institutions are now assembling leadership curricula around the philosophical, historical, ethical, and moral aspects of leadership. Co-curricular activities and events allow students to understand the breadth and depth of leadership, the need for personal relationships, and ultimately expand on the notion that students should make a difference (Komives, Lucas, & McMahon, 1998). These endeavors permit students to build empathy skills. Ongoing evidence points to community service as a force that fosters student development for those engaged students (Berger & Milem, 2002). Also, students gain the necessary personal experiences to expand their knowledge of leadership and ultimately become more effective members of society through their leadership practice (Astin, 1993). Any student who desires to become an effective leader must be open to learning the necessary skills and processes to do so (Komives et al.,
Managing these aspects should lead to more civically engaged, socially minded leaders (Arnold & Welch, 2007).

Dugan (2006) argued that one of the most vital functions of colleges or universities is to develop future leaders. It is vital that schools do more than simply list “leadership development” in their marketing and begin to offer useful academic and practical sessions to create an efficient training process. This process must include the idea that leadership is broad, complex, and occurs in a real-world setting with real people (Mumford & Manley, 2003). Jacob (2006) argued that developing future leaders for business is quite different than developing socially-minded, civically-engaged, ethical leaders that serve others. The need for the latter pushes collegiate students beyond an academic experience by developing a portfolio full of both curricular and co-curricular leadership training focused on societal awareness, civic engagement, multiculturalism, ethics, and service-based philanthropy (Dugan, 2006). In short, leadership educators must not simply develop good managers, we must develop effective, collaborative, transformational, ethically-minded leaders (Komives et al., 2005) and universities should push for more service-based endeavors from their students (Berger & Milem, 2002). It is clear that a function of higher education programs is to create responsible citizens who are ready to contribute to leadership (Buschlen & Dvorak, 2011). Serving others as part of a collegiate experience is vital to personal growth and helps create a more well-rounded learning experience (Boyle-Baise & Langford, 2004). Still, the journey to become a life-long servant leader may begin in college, but takes years of dedication to master (Mather, Karbley, & Yamamoto, 2012).

As colleges and universities develop and expand Alternative Break programs and other service-learning projects, a need exists to better assess and understand individual and collective outcomes from these experiences. That premise led to this project’s research question: What do students experience while serving others following a natural disaster? This project also, through the lens of the research question, attempts to narrow the scope by focusing more closely on an appropriate model to collect this data for research and program assessment. Today, the programmatic assessment movement is starting to link more clearly to other facets of university life (Ewell, 2009). The movement began in the 1980’s and for decades focused on academic curriculum (Ewell, 2009). Programmatic assessment works best when it is constant and includes both academic and experiential learning outcomes (Banta, 1997). In this framework, this project can serve as a possible model for collecting qualitative data for ongoing programmatic assessment efforts for non-academic entities.

While previous research has studied the outcomes of service-learning through quantitative or mixed methods approaches, this project looked strictly at the student voice through the lens of the Social Change Model of Leadership. As service-based programs like this are implemented, a need exists to better understand how participants apply curricular and co-curricular knowledge to practice. This study, in part, addresses this issue. Through participants’ pre-knowledge of the Social Change Model of Leadership, and use of that model in journal prompt development, the researchers were able to assess the participants’ application of theory to practice. For this research project, during data analysis, the theme of transformational learning surfaced. Through participant journals, and during later interviews,
participants vividly identified their assumptions, disorienting dilemmas, transformational growth, and their process for making meaning from their shared experience.

This paper will now examine the background of this project, the theory behind it, and the two piloted data collections. The two pilot programs led to the development of a stronger data collection tool that is now being used by one of the largest Alternative Break programs in the nation. This research endeavor focused on the experiences of two teams while also sharpening the data collection tool and method. Participant involvement included extreme heat, intense service, working in extreme socio-economic areas, and many transformational experiences. Outlined in this project are snapshots of the shared phenomenological experiences from the two unique teams. Also outlined in this paper is how similar outcomes can be attained by academic (classes) or co-curricular programs (Alternative Breaks) for assessment purposes, when utilizing a similar model.

Social Change Model, Qualitative Research, and Programmatic Assessment

The research team chose to collect qualitative data from the participants in two pilot phases. This allowed for a better understanding of the participants’ experiences using their own voices as a source for rich, descriptive data (Denzin, 1989). Through participants’ words and reflections, the research team was able to develop an understanding of how they connected the Social Change Model of Leadership to their experiences and, as a result of their participation, were impacted and transformed. The qualitative approach to this study provided a means to better understand the essence of the experience and outcomes. As a research paradigm, qualitative research allows a researcher to inductively create understanding from the data through the application of frameworks or through the discovery of “themes, categories, typologies, concepts, tentative hypotheses, and even substantive theory” from data that cannot be understood through numbers or symbols (Merriam, 2002, p. 5). The researchers in this study worked to develop a “complex, holistic picture” (Creswell, 1998) through the use of data collected from participants, “in a natural setting” (p. 15). Using a phenomenological analysis approach, themes appeared within the data; the “thick descriptions” described “details, contexts, emotions, and the webs of social voices, feelings, actions, and meaning,” further providing insights into participants’ understanding and changing perspectives during and after the service-learning project (Denzin, 1989, p. 83). Before programmatic assessments are developed, researchers must first be able to understand the ‘how’ and ‘what’ of the individuals or shared group experience (Creswell, 1998). In a study that looks at how students connect a learned leadership framework to practice, and the outcomes of such a program, qualitative data is a practical choice.

The purpose behind this endeavor was to capture the dynamic experiences of two unique teams of college students that ventured 850 miles from home to serve others for a week following a natural disaster. The question driving the research was: How do we really know that students are being transformed by week-long service projects? The focus was to move beyond the quantitative values of number of students, number of hours served, number of sites served to delve more deeply into understanding the student’s leadership development and transformation by examining their narratives.
Theoretical Background

Theoretical Framework: Social Change Model

Student affairs educators understand that leadership can also emerge outside of a classroom and that co-curricular student development experiences may transcend some of the academic components of a student’s academic degree (Buschlen & Dvorak, 2011). Leaders have been developed outside of the classroom setting through student organization work, formal leadership roles, weekend retreats, and lecture events. The goal may be to develop “leaders,” but that scope is often too broad. The Social Change Model (SCM) (Figure 1) can be used as a thematic backdrop for curricular and co-curricular leadership education programs (Astin, 1993; Buschlen & Dvorak, 2011; HERI, 1996). The SCM was developed to act as curriculum to foster the development of personal values, group values, and citizenship (Astin, 1993). The SCM provides a framework that is consistent with contemporary leadership paradigms (Dugan & Komives, 2007).

Theoretical Framework: Transformative Learning

To further understand the impact and outcomes of this project, the data were also analyzed using the framework of transformational learning. Mezirow’s theory of transformational learning (Figure 2 in appendix) involves many of the same elements of the Social Change Model - as it requires critical reflection on assumptions regarding self (SCM-individual), cultural systems (SCM-community), places of work (SCM-group), ethics (SCM-individual & group), and emotional constructs (SCM-individual) (Astin 1993; Mezirow, 1998). Mezirow (2000) described the need for a disorienting dilemma, in this case an extreme service-learning project or HITS program (High Intensity, Transformational Service), which would force the participant into self-examination and reflection of their held assumptions. The reflective processes and stages that follow assist the learner as they adjust and adapt their construction of knowledge to accept as part of their experience.

Methodology

Phenomenological Inquiry

Due to the nature of both pilot programs and the sizes of the samples, qualitative methods were implemented. To study and understand the shared experience of this phenomenon, an aspect of phenomenology was used called transcendental phenomenology (Creswell, 2007). Phenomenology is the process of reducing many shared experiences down to a universal theme (Creswell, 2007). Moustakas (1994) explained transcendental phenomenology as outlining a phenomenon, removing one’s personal connection to it, and collecting multiple versions of narratives from those that experienced the phenomenon. In this case, the phenomenon studied was the shared experience of two groups of college students serving separate communities on different occasions following a tornado. This form of qualitative inquiry should allow for a deeper understanding of the service provided by each team. Polkinghorne (1989) stated that this method works well with groups of 5 to 25 individuals that have all shared the same experience. In this case, the participants kept prompt-based journals. These journals were written with the tenets of the Social Change Model of Leadership and were completed in
three phases: before, during, and 30 days after the experience. The settings for the journaling took place in three contexts: 1) during the ride to the site (eight hours long with multiple stops), 2) the town where the service projects took place (the groups both stayed at Boy Scout affiliated campgrounds), and 3) at various locations after the conclusion of the service project (approximately 30 days after the trip). This theoretical framework served as an ideal template for this qualitative project by soliciting responses from the group that focused said responses toward vital leadership development stages.

The Context

On April 10, 2011 the community of Pulaski, Virginia was struck by two tornados: one an EF-1 and one an EF-2 (Myatt, 2011). Families lost their homes, businesses were damaged, and the community was forever changed. The community suffered an estimated $1.7 million dollars in damages (Myatt, 2011). Later that same month on April 27th, the community of Tuscaloosa was devastated as an EF-4 that ravaged a path one mile wide and 5.9 miles long – damage costs rose past the $4 billion dollar mark (MyFoxAl, 2011). In May 2011, six students and a faculty member traveled to Pulaski, Virginia to provide support. In December of the same year, thirteen different students with no faculty chaperone traveled to Tuscaloosa, Alabama. Both groups performed manual labor to restore the damage ridden areas and some voluntarily chose to participate in this project. The groups were not affiliated with an academic course, but rather with a registered student group.

Virginia

The majority of this team’s time was spent working in a single home, 30 days after the storm. The group spent all but one day working in that setting. The homeowners were there and assisted the team when possible. In fact, the team was the first group to enter the home accompanied by the family one month after the tornado. The homeowners had no insurance and no means to pay for the repairs. The home was built on an extreme elevated grade with the basement serving as the first floor and the second floor was the living area. Photos of the home would show the roof was missing sections, a wet, soggy floor from the exposure, and a complete infestation of all sorts of bugs, snakes, odors, and mold (Buschlen & Warner, 2013). The group was there to simply gut the home and remove everything from inside, down to the rafters and floor. The late-May days in Virginia were extremely hot and damp. Temperatures hovered in the upper 90 degrees (Fahrenheit) with matching humidity levels. It was another added element of reflection for the team. At times, the heat was more challenging than the labor (Buschlen & Warner, 2013).

Alabama

Eight months after the EF-4, the Alabama team managed many tasks on multiple properties that each took 1-2 days to complete. The participants completed site clean-up on three adjacent empty lots for two days, picking up debris, broken glass, and many personal items. The homes that were once there were completely destroyed and devastated by the tornado and the site cleanup was the first phase of the rebuilding process. On the other days, the group spent time working at a distribution center that provided food and household goods to people in need, touring local neighborhoods, and visited the University of Alabama. The team was able to assist in the final restoration of an elderly woman’s home and she was permitted to move back in to her re-built home prior to the December holidays. The
Alabama participants worked with various groups during their service week, including those providing the goods distribution and a ministerial group who had rebuilt the elderly woman’s home. As their service project occurred in December of 2011, temperatures were mild and weather was not a factor.

Participants

In the Virginia pilot data collection, the group was made up of five undergraduates, two alumni, a faculty advisor, and a representative from the National Relief Network (the NRN representative did not journal). The NRN is a Michigan-based nonprofit that provides disaster relief around the nation. The NRN coordinated all aspects of travel, lodging, food, and tools for a fee paid by the participants. The students willingly participated in this research project by offering consent. Two of the project participants chose to not keep a journal, resulting in a sample (n=6). Of the research participants, five were female, one was male. All participants were Caucasian. The female student participants ranged in age from 19-23. The faculty advisor was 40 years of age and was also a researcher for this project. The participating members had all taken an academic course in leadership taught by the faculty member who was the chaperone but few students knew each other at the start of the trip. The leadership course was built upon the tenets of the Social Change Model of Leadership. This trip was not part of the academic course. The team shared many discussions and reflections throughout the week, but none of the reflections were prompted or led by the researcher.

In the second pilot collected in Alabama, the group consisted of 13 participants, three participants were male, 10 were female and they ranged in age from 18-23. Four chose to not participate in the project, resulting in a sample of (n=9). Of the nine, one was an African-American female, one was an Asian-American male, and the rest were Caucasian females. All members had also completed a leadership course or two. There was no faculty advisor present during this trip, and participants met with a NRN representative while on-site in Alabama. Similar to the previous group, this trip was not part of any academic course, and was planned through a registered student group affiliated with NRN.

After the data were examined and the process scrutinized, these two pilots led to a refined and sharpened data collection tool that was offered to and later implemented by one of the largest Alternative Break programs in the county. In December of 2012, 48 students participated in another data collection using new journal prompts. The data are still being collected from that service project. In March of 2013, 48 different students will participate in Phase II of the Alternative Break data collection.

Data Collection

In both pilot collections, the data were collected by means of prompt-based journals maintained by the participants. The journal prompts were written in advance and provided to the students in three sealed envelopes. The participants were also given a blank notebook and access to writing utensils. The journal prompts were taped inside the cover of the notebook. Each journal prompt envelope had specific directions as to when the prompt should be opened. This was based on the timing of each journal entry before, during, or 30 days after the experience. Verbal instructions were given to the group from the researcher before the trip. After the journals were completed and returned, they were promptly transcribed and any information regarding individual students was removed. Due to the reflective and
emotional nature of the data, participants were allowed to ask for the return of their journal after transcription. The journal prompts are found in the appendix in (see Table 1). The prompts in Table 1 are followed by (parentheses) indicating which section of the SCM the prompt was connected to – the participants did not know this parenthetical information.

To refine this aspect, the journal prompts were revised and sharpened from collection one in May of 2011 to December of 2011. Following the Alabama data collection, a third researcher joined the team and the journal prompts were revised to fill gaps. Although both sites were disaster related this format would work with any sort of service endeavor as the questions were broad enough to work in any setting. In December of 2012, 48 students participated in an additional data collection. Another 48 will participate in March of 2013. The data collection tool format has also been refined from sealed envelopes taped in a blank pad of paper to a pre-printed, bound journal using “empty boxes” following each prompt. The logic is that participants may feel a sense of obligation to fill the box versus the thought of filling an empty page.

Data Analysis

Both sets of student journals were transcribed from the two pilots and any resemblances to the participants’ names were removed. The data were entered into NVivo 9 software and placed into several nodes. Photos from each site, video footage from a local television crews, and relevant documents from the community were also coded into nodes. Some video footage was recorded 10 months later (during a small group session) as the participants were shown photos of how the homes and area looked after being renovated. That footage was also coded. The nodes corresponded with SCM tenets and also corresponded with the timing of each journal entry and were labeled accordingly. The researchers, first separately, then together, examined the data for themes connected to the SCM and Transformational Learning. This examination took place with the raw transcribed data and also through the NVivo 9 nodes.

Findings

The pilot projects were designed with a similar premise: to capture the experiences of students that entered a community for a week and helped to rebuild after devastating natural disaster. Both projects engaged students in emotionally charged contexts, and both involved varying degrees of extreme labor or HITS – High Intensity, Transformational Service (Buschlen & Warner, 2013). It was evident that neither team was prepared mentally for what they were about to experience in this project. Whether viewed as part of Mezirow’s disorienting dilemma or as the starting point for social change, the projects shocked participants and forced action. Participants’ initial observations captured the absolute destruction suffered by the community. In both cases, time had passed since the tornados had struck, at least one month for Virginia participants, and nearly eight months for those involved in the Alabama trip. Both groups of participants noted their shock at how little had been done to clean up post-tornado, particularly in areas of poverty and homes of lower socio-economic status. Tables 2, 3, and 4 (in the appendix) outline key connections to the Social Change Model (SCM) prompts and to Mezirow’s Transformational Learning model.
The connection to the SCM, for both experiences, can be understood by examining the three main foci of self, teamwork, and positive change in the community. The focus on self and understanding one’s role can be realized by examining transcript snippets (see Table 3). In both trips, participants fundamentally understood that at a human level, they were helping pick people up from likely the lowest point in their lives and helping families rebuild both their homes and lives from a point of utter destruction.

When reflecting, one student commented from the Virginia team, “I do not know if the family was the kind of family that would have done that for me or not, but I bet that with us there – they will do that in the future.” As it related specifically to the family whose house they were working in: “With the amount of ‘blessing’ the mother gave to us each day, I feel blessed.” Still another observed, “I will never forget how thankful these people were for our help.” In Alabama, the tasks were different, but some of the same emotions were expressed. “We mostly picked up broken bricks, glass, bathroom tiles, porcelain, and things like that. On occasions we would find toys, books, and appliances. It was kind of cool when we would find things deep in the dirt but at the same time, very sad. We have to remember that all of these things were people’s belongings that got taken from them when their lives were up rooted by the tornado.”

The participants in both programs framed their teamwork or group values as a part of serving others, understanding that they had a small role in a much larger project. The Virginia participants worked on one house in one location, it was very easy for them to see a measureable difference from the start to the end. One participant noted, “The before and after pictures do not even look like the same house!” Since the Alabama group jumped around on tasks, many of the group’s participants commented that they did not always feel like they were making a visible, measurable difference. In particular, the Alabama team spent two days cleaning up empty lots where homes sat prior to the tornado. Some members described their efforts as futile because there was so much debris. Another described how the task did not match her expectations: “It was a little disheartening the first day because we were picking up an empty lot. I thought it would be more hands on with individual families. We didn’t meet any families (at first) that were affected by the tornados. I had very high expectations of changing the world and it doesn’t feel like I did anything after the first day.”

Discussion

Thematic Commonalities

Three core themes emerged from the two pilot projects. The first theme was the shared experience of shock and unpreparedness for the devastation, followed by noted resolve to be a part of an active solution. In particular, both groups referenced the amount of time that had passed and yet little to no change had happened in either location since the initial storm. Along with this theme was the recognition of the socio-economic strata: wealthier areas were being rebuilt and the poorer districts were the ones still devastated, not receiving as much (if any) assistance. Universally, participants in both studies used this as a point of action, writing of not only this observation of social injustice, but also as a rallying point that sparked their desires to right a societal wrong. In Virginia, participants described what they saw as human nature working to persevere over nature’s devastation. In Alabama, participants
focused on the breadth of poverty and its effects (likely because that group spent more time being exposed to different people through their distribution center work). Alabama participants spoke more to their feelings that they were not doing enough, and of sadness when “seeing people who had no way out (of this lifestyle).”

The second structure was recognition of privilege. Participants in both groups expressed thankfulness and an appreciation of their own privilege, upbringing, and realization that their homes were still intact. Participants often spoke of being moved out of their comfort zone, and a new-found appreciation of their basic needs: a bed, a home to return to, a house with heat or air-conditioning, basic necessities, and an assurance that there would always be nutritious food to eat.

Finally, the enduring theme in both projects is transformation. Not just with the physical transformation of bricks, wood, and mortar, but also with the transformation of lives. A goal in the Social Change Model of Leadership is to offer participants the means to provide positive social change. Both teams demonstrated how moving through a positive societal change creates a more lasting personal transformation for the participants as well as those served. In Virginia, the home’s matriarch now gives back by serving as the county’s “Tornado Advocate.” The Virginia family was transformed by the community outreach and by this team of college students. The homeowner and her family continue to transform the lives of others. In Alabama, the participants’ primary efforts were at the preliminary stages of the rebuilding process – even though eight months had passed. While at first the group was met by suspicion and skepticism by a homeowner they were serving, an appreciation and later thanks was expressed by her and others as their efforts where recognized and understood. As the participants spoke to another man who played with his grandson on the site of their former home, he reminisced on the way things “used to be.” He looked forward to a time when his home could be rebuilt again, for him and his future generations. The largest noted measure in this area was the impact of serving others while in their presence. When each team could serve actual people, their personal satisfaction seemed to increase. When cleaning an empty lot or organizing a warehouse, the Alabama team felt inadequate as volunteers. The connection to personal human loss and the ability to provide some tangible service to a person or family seemed to increase the transformation for the participants and developed a keener sense of their personal servant leadership ability and potential.

**Greater Programmatic Assessment Outcomes**

After examining the data from these two separate projects, the researchers in this study noted that there were several ways to enhance both the data collection and the participants’ experience with keeping a journal. During the analysis, the researchers started to work with an Alternative Breaks (AB) program to lay a possible foundation for the collection of programmatic assessment data for that entity. The institution sends out nearly 100 groups over the course of the academic year, including 30+ groups of 12 participants over multiple breaks. During analysis, it was noted that there may be a stronger and more effective means for collecting data while also helping AB participants make meaning from their experiences before, during, and after their program participation. Working with AB peer site leaders and
previous AB participants, the researchers developed a pre-printed booklet with prompt text boxes, asking more targeted questions for the journal entries. Daily prompts were provided as well as summary-styled questions pre-departure, during the program, and approximately 30 days post-experience. These new journaling booklets were first implemented and used for the AB programs conducted in March 2013. Included in these new journals were the prompts, IRB consent forms, clear instructions, and explanations of how the data will be used both for program assessment and for research. It is anticipated that these booklets will help the student peer leaders better facilitate reflection each night of their experiences as well as help increase recorded text and participation rates for future data collections.

**Conclusion**

Choosing to give up a week of time to serve others is one thing, understanding it more deeply is quite another. This paper, although abbreviated to fit with scope of this submission, delves more deeply into the shared experience of serving others following a natural disaster. It also outlined the data collection methods and refinements with the hopes that other programs around the country can begin to see service as much more than number of hours served. Deeply imbedded in a week-long service project are narratives that offer a personal glimpse into transformative learning and personal leadership development. Examining that data to better understand student leadership development while also providing a strong “student voice” for programmatic assessment is possible at any college or university using a similar tool.

**References**


**Author Biographies:**

Dr. Eric Buschlen is an Assistant Professor of Leadership Studies at Central Michigan University and teaches undergraduate courses in leadership studies. He earned a BA in Human Communication from Saginaw Valley State and from Central Michigan his MA in Interpersonal & Public Communication and an Ed.D. in Educational Leadership. He has been published in the Journal of Leadership Education and the Journal of Humanitarian Logistics and Supply Chain Management. His research interests include thematic leadership programming and creating strategic mechanisms for academic and student affairs programs to assess student leadership growth via structured research endeavors. He earned an Ed.D. in Educational Leadership with a focus in Student Affairs from Central Michigan University.

Dr. Cathy Warner is an administrator and adjunct Leadership Studies faculty member at Central Michigan University. She earned her BA from Alma College, a MA from Michigan State, and an Ed.D. from Central Michigan. She has presented nationally at the National Conference on the First Year Experience, NAFSA, the International Leadership Association, and at several regional conferences. Her
areas of research include adult learning, short-term study abroad programs in China, transformational learning, and growth and transformation in the first year of college.

Appendix

Figure 1: Social Change Model of Leadership

Figure 2: Mezirow’s *Phases of Meaning* in the Transformational Learning Process:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Phases of Meaning in Transformational Learning:</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. A disorienting dilemma</td>
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<tr>
<td>2. Self-examination with feelings of fear, anger, guilt, or shame</td>
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<tr>
<td>3. A critical assessment of assumptions</td>
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<tr>
<td>4. Recognition that one's discontent and the process of transformation are shared</td>
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<tr>
<td>5. Exploration of options for new roles, relationships, and actions</td>
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<tr>
<td>6. Planning a course of action</td>
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<tr>
<td>7. Acquiring knowledge and skills for implementing one's plans</td>
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<tr>
<td>8. Provisional trying of new roles</td>
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<tr>
<td>9. Building competence and self-confidence in new roles and relationships</td>
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<tr>
<td>10. A reintegration into one's life on the basis of conditions dictated by one's new perspective</td>
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Table 1: Journal Prompts: Before Arrival

1) Have you ever participated in a week-long clean-up effort like this in the past or anything that was similar? If Yes, please explain what motivated you to do that project and also explain any “life lessons” that you took away from that clean-up. If No, what sorts of things have you done in the past that may have been similar - painting a house for a senior, working to build a house, etc. what did you “take away” from those events? (Individual Values)

2) What are your top “expectations” for this trip – either positive or negative? (Individual & Group Values)

3) In the 1970’s, Robert Greenleaf explored a new type of leadership known as Servant Leadership. In short, he felt that leaders should exist only to “take care of the followers.” This concept is clearly linked to ethics and morals. With that said, why do you dedicate yourself to travel across the country to assist strangers in this clean-up project? There are countless activities that your peers are doing now - working, taking classes, enjoying the summer weather and you are on a bus heading to a disaster clean-up . . . why? Explain. (Individual, Group, & Community Values)

Journal Prompts: While On-Site

1) What have you observed or experienced so far that has taken you completely by surprise? What were you not been prepared for? How could you have been better prepared? (Individual Values)

2) The clean-up has been hard work and long hours so far – what helps you get up each morning at 6:00am to do it? (Individual Values)

3) It may be hard to see progress in such a short, six day clean-up, so how do you know you are making a difference? Explain. (Community Values)

4) You are working with a group of students and with other people from around the country. Explain the benefits of working as part of this team. (Group Values)

5) How did you settle disputes, if any? Did you feel a sense of team collaboration and team shared purpose while participating in this endeavor? If yes or no, explain. (Group Values)

6) Servant Leadership authors believe that a leader’s role is to always “take care of the have nots.” The term “taking care of” is somewhat broad. What sorts of things have you done on this clean-up to “take care of” the ones we are serving - labor or interacting with local people? (Community Values)

7) What do you think will have the most lasting effect - your labor or building relationships? Why do you feel that way? Expand and include examples. (Community Values)

Journal Prompts: 30 Days After
1) Thirty days ago, you participated in a site clean-up following a natural disaster. What are the lessons that stand out in your mind? Explain how this clean up may impact your future as a leader by giving examples. (Individual, Group, & Community Values)

2) Explain your level of connectedness to the community that you served in last month? (Community Values)

3) Since you were part of a team, explain how being responsible for the welfare of others made you feel. (Group Values)

4) Name three events that stand out in your mind and then explain why they are the top three events from this trip. (Individual, Group, & Community Values)

5) Before you participated in the clean-up, you were asked to list “expectations” for the trip. Do you feel as if those expectations were met? Explain, in detail, why they were met or why they were not met. (Individual)

6) Describe interactions with others when you have shared your story regarding this clean-up trip. (Individual, Group, & Community Values)

7) What will you do to ensure that the next trip grows with more student involvement? Explain your strategy for introducing more peers to projects of this kind. Be specific with your plan. (Group & Community Values)

Table 2: Key quotes of a disorienting dilemma examples

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Virginia</th>
<th>Alabama</th>
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<tr>
<td>“A few houses in the area were split in half with belongings still hanging out of the dressers.”</td>
<td>“It really hit me when we would see dozens of people on the street with cardboard signs offering their labor for money or food.”</td>
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<tr>
<td>“Roofs were torn off, and debris was everywhere”</td>
<td>“There are honestly people who have yet to pick up their lives after those storms. There are still areas that look like a war zone, and it seems as if the nation stopped caring.”</td>
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<tr>
<td>“The living room was covered in rotting carpet, holes in the ceiling.”</td>
<td>“I was surprised by how much the storm had destroyed and how much was still in rubble (eight months later).”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 3: SCM (Understanding Self) example quotes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Virginia</th>
<th>Alabama</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>“I have never done community service on this level before.”</td>
<td>“A few things . . . were hard to witness. One of the few surprises I had was the lack of publicity on a national level regarding the severity of the storm and the damage that resulted from them.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“Yesterday the first day of the trip, was like stepping into another world”</td>
<td>“We got to drive around town for the first time today in the light. It still looks pretty bad in certain areas compared to how I thought it would look since it has been quite a while since the tornados. I don’t think there is anyway to be prepared for such a disaster.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“I was somewhat surprised by the poverty level that the family lived in.”</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4: Key quotes highlighting Mezirow’s transformational steps

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Transformational Steps</th>
<th>Virginia</th>
<th>Alabama</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A disorienting dilemma = 1</td>
<td>1. “The first day was like stepping into another world.”</td>
<td>1. “I don’t think there is anyway to be prepared for such a disaster. It will shock you no matter what. It really hit me when we would see dozens of people on the street with cardboard signs offering their labor for money or food.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-examination with feelings of fear, anger, guilt, or shame = 2</td>
<td>1. “The path the tornado left behind, flattened woods and uprooted trees. It looks like a giant boulder had rolled down the hill.”</td>
<td>2./3. “We mostly picked up broken bricks, glass, bathroom tiles, porcelain, and things like that. On occasions we would find toys, books, and appliances... We have to remember that all of these things were peoples belongs that got taken from them when their lives were up rooted by the tornado.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A critical assessment of assumptions = 3</td>
<td>2./3. “The area we worked in was a poor community, where there is virtually no level of standard even close to what I grew up in.”</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recognition that one's discontent and the process of transformation are shared = 4</td>
<td>3. “I expected to see a house in shambles, but I wasn’t prepared for the filth and infestation.”</td>
<td>2./3. “We mostly picked up broken bricks, glass, bathroom tiles, porcelain, and things like that. On occasions we would find toys, books, and appliances... We have to remember that all of these things were peoples belongs that got taken from them when their lives were up rooted by the tornado.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exploration of options for new roles, relationships, and actions = 5</td>
<td>4.”I could tell they (the family) were all exhausted and wished</td>
<td>4./5. “I feel both accomplished</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Planning a course of action = 6</th>
<th>that a snap of their fingers could return normalcy.</th>
<th>and completely not so. I did a lot of work, picking up debris (wood, plastic, shattered mirrors, crumbled tile) but it’s the kind of work that to be thorough is slow, and there is not much to show for it.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Acquiring knowledge and skills for implementing one's plans = 7</td>
<td>5. “I did this to develop relationships with these folks to let them know that there are others that care and can help.”</td>
<td>6/7/8. “I had very high expectations of ‘changing the world’ ... Doing this trip definitely pushed me out of my comfort zone.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provisional trying of new roles = 8</td>
<td>6./7. “I don’t know the conditions we will be working in, but it shouldn’t matter, it’s time to kick butt and take names!”</td>
<td>8. “I have never done community service on this level before.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Building competence and self-confidence in new roles and relationships = 9</td>
<td>8. “I have never done community service on this level before.”</td>
<td>8./9. “Whenever we were seen working, we were thanked. I believe that the idea of a group of Michigan College students taking time out of their break to help restore normality to the community was enough for them to feel like they were not a forgotten city. That was enough to make us feel important.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A reintegration into one's life on the basis of conditions dictated by one's new perspective = 10</td>
<td>9. “We all were grossed out, but overcame everything and got the job done.”</td>
<td>8/9. “It was my obligation. I knew I had an obligation to the group to keep everyone going.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9. “What stands out the most in my mind from the trip was how awed people were by our presence.”</td>
<td>9. “This was a new experience for all of us so that really brought us together as a team. Every time I see anyone from our group, we went through a lot together, this brings us all together.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9./10. “I think our impact will be greater than we recognize.”</td>
<td>10. “This was a new experience for all of us so that really brought us together as a team. Every time I see anyone from our group, we went through a lot together, this brings us all together.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10. “It might be a small week-long trip for me, but I could mean the world to someone that needs help.”</td>
<td>10. “When people have asked me about my trip, I told them about the lack of needed publicity and the need for more”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
help, especially in the low-income areas. I also retold many of the stories from the survivors I had spoken to in hopes to show people just how intense the storm really was.”
Behavioral Integrity: The effects of student perceptions on student achievement

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Cornell University

Erika Hooker
Cornell University

Abstract
We submit that student learning is enhanced with students trust and admire their teachers. Thus, we examine the relationship between how well teachers live by their word and student learning outcomes, as measured by standardized test scores. Seven hundred and eighty-eight students from grades 4 – 12 in 45 classrooms participated in the study. We found a significant relationship between students’ perceptions of their teachers’ behavioral integrity and the students’ standardized test scores. These findings suggest that teachers’ word-deed and values alignment may impact student achievement and development.

Introduction
One of the authors served as a high school teacher at a struggling inner-city school in a southern state. His last class was scheduled to take the final exam on the last day of school. A sophomore named Dominique showed up for the exam wearing a hooded sweatshirt, which is unusual attire for late May in the Deep South. The author asked Dominique why he was wearing a hoodie when it was scorching outside. The young man anxiously pulled the author outside of the classroom and removed the hooded sweatshirt, revealing an open four-inch knife wound on the student’s left arm. The teacher knew Dominique had been absent for the previous three days of finals. When asked why he had never gone to the hospital and why he came to school now with a severe wound, Dominique replied, “Cause you my main man, and I ain’t tryin to mess you up.” Dominique was attacked by gang members in his community because they mistook him for his older brother, who was in a rival gang. He had not gone to the hospital because he had no one to take him, and he came to school that day because of his relationship with his teacher.

In alignment with the author’s personal experience, Cheng (1994) identified that teacher-student relationships play a vital role in determining student achievement. When teachers are able to build
deep, authentic relationships with students, the students are more likely to push through such barriers as a lack of interest in a specific topic or struggles with self-efficacy, to more fully engage in the requisite assignment(s). A key approach of developing such teacher-student relationships is leadership. York-Barr and Duke (2004) called for an increased focus on teachers as leaders within their classrooms. Their review of the educational leadership and teacher leadership research revealed that in the rare occasions where teachers are described and evaluated as leaders, it is usually at the school-wide or organizational level – instead of the classroom environment.

This prevalent view of teacher leadership only considers teachers to be developed as leaders when they achieve a position considered above that of teacher, and begin to lead other teachers. York-Barr and Duke found that while teachers were often invigorated by the opportunity to play a larger role in establishing direction for the school, gains in student achievement were not realized by this change. Furthermore, conceptualizing teacher leadership at the school-wide level, instead of developing educators as leaders within the classroom, often involves removing the best educators from the classroom for at least part of the day to fulfill additional responsibilities. This creates a system in which only a select number of teachers are viewed, empowered, and developed as leaders (Little, 1995).

Meanwhile, more than three million public school classroom teachers are exerting tremendous influence on the academic and personal development of elementary, middle, and high school students throughout the United States. While there is only one principal per school, there are as many as 170 other educated, capable adults who typically work directly with students every day. Despite this reality, the predominant focus of the literature and practice regarding developing leaders in education focuses on the lone individual serving as principal in each school (Stewart, 2006).

This study responds to York-Barr and Duke’s (2004) call for research on educators leading students in the classroom. Viewing the role of a teacher as sufficient to be considered a leader fosters the opportunity to develop every teacher as a leader as they continue to serve, guide, and develop their students. In this study, we assess the impact of a fundamental aspect of teachers’ classroom leadership on student learning and achievement.

**Theoretical Framework**

According to Bandura’s (1977) social learning theory, a leader’s influence is impacted by the willingness of the participants to be led. Social learning theory built upon behavioristic approaches, dominant at the time, by providing insight and guidance in understanding the diverse social factors involved in learning and development. Social learning theory offers support to the argument that educators act as role models, and concludes that much of an individual’s behavior results from social observation and imitation of others. As Bandura’s work progressed, he developed social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1986). Social cognitive theory posits that psychosocial functioning is impacted by personal, behavioral, and environmental factors (Santrock, 2008). Drawing on Bandura’s (1977) work, we contend that leaders’ actual conduct (e.g., how closely their actions are consistent with their stated principles) is an environmental influence that makes norms regarding appropriate behaviors salient. Participants look for cues to reduce uncertainty and enhance predictability in their environments by relying on inferences.
drawn from observing leaders’ behavior (Rousseau & Greller, 1994). For instance, students use their teachers as referents in shaping their own perceptions of norms about appropriate behavior (Lewicki, Poland, Minton, & Sheppard, 1997).

Modeling is a key facet of social learning theory and social cognitive theory. Bandura’s (1986) model of observational learning encompasses obtaining or developing abilities, as well as lessening or increasing inhibitions, beliefs, and even values by observing others. Modeling can occur in direct ways, such as a student’s interaction with an educator. Perhaps the most well recognized experiments displaying the impact of modeling are Bandura, Ross, and Ross’ (1961, 1963) Bobo doll experiments, which examined the impact of older models on the patterns of behavior in children. The children’s responses to behavioral modeling led Bandura to assert the children exposed to aggressive models were more likely to display physically aggressive behavior than the children who were not.

When students learn from models, they typically experience four processes: attention, retention, reproduction, and motivation (Eggan & Kauchak, 2003). Attentional processes help guide students in choosing what to pay attention to among a myriad of influences and the information they hope to retain. As students reorganize and internalize information obtained during observation they are participating in the process of retention. Students engage in reproduction as they convert conceptual understanding to appropriate behavior in new or different situations. The final step involves students developing the requisite motivation to imitate the leader’s behavior (Wood & Bandura, 1989).

Trust
Teachers, in addition to being the largest group of potential leaders in schools, are in the best position to influence students and hold the most promise for fostering educational progress (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009). Regardless of the type of performance desired, a trust-based relationship between the teacher and student is necessary for success (Quay & Quaglia, 2004). Therefore, teachers must understand and manage those factors that influence trust formation (and loss). “Trust is the readiness of a party (trustor) to be vulnerable to the actions of another party (trustee) based on the expectations that the trustee will perform a certain action important to the trustor, irrespective of the ability to oversee or control the trustee” (Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 1995, p. 712).

Bennis and Nanus (1985, p. 43) suggest a leader’s effectiveness cannot exist without a climate of trust, calling trust “the lubrication that makes it possible for organizations to work.” This holds particularly true for the relationship between teacher and students, where trust is often seen as being central to effective relational development (Watson, Ecken, & Kohn, 2003). Students involved in classrooms led by teachers who display a lack of trustworthiness and a lack of ethical behavior are often forced to succumb—with high levels of frustration and stress—to unequal power positions in which the teacher controls or forces students to fulfill the teacher’s established requirements (Ennis & McCauley, 2002). When teachers model unethical behavior, the costs are great. When distrust permeates an educational environment, guarded communication, poor organizational citizenship, and an explosion of dysfunctional rules and policies are often the result.
Mayer et al. (1995) identified three antecedents of trust: ability, benevolence, and integrity. Ability reflects the skills, competencies, and characteristics that create a party’s impact within a specific area. Benevolence is the “extent to which a trustee is believed to want to do good to the trustor,” and to perform in a way that is perceived to be void of self-centered motivation (Mayer et al., 1995, p. 718). Finally, integrity denotes “the perception that the trustee adheres to a set of principles that the trustor finds acceptable” (Mayer et al., p. 719).

High levels of trust within educational environments have dramatic performance-enhancing effects. Nahapiet and Ghoshal (1998) discussed the relationship between trust and cooperation: “trust lubricates cooperation, and cooperation itself breeds trust” (p. 255). We would qualify this latter statement to say that successful cooperation breeds trust. Conversely, the absence of trust in the classroom manifests itself in equally dysfunctional outcomes. The typical secondary school classroom contains 20 or more students. Most classes change every 45-90 minutes causing time, efficiency, and cooperative student behavior to be at a premium.

Negative experiences with authority figures at a young age influence students’ ability to trust and respect their teachers and administrators. Gardner (2006) avowed, “Theories are difficult to change, and early theories prove especially difficult to alter” (p. 57). Students with established tendencies to mistrust those in positions of authority may view teachers’ words and actions with significant bias. Learning to trust teachers can be a transformative experience for students whose lives outside of school have provided logical reasons not to trust others, particularly those with power and influence (Watson, 2003).

Dirks and Ferrin’s (2002) meta-analysis reviewed four decades of research on trust. Their findings included: Trust in leadership had a significant relationship with job performance (r=.16), organizational citizenship behaviors (r=.19), turnover intentions (r=-.40), job satisfaction (r=.51), organizational commitment (r=.49), and a commitment to the leader’s decisions (r=.24). Given the important role of trust in achieving such important outcomes, the question becomes, “How can teachers increase students’ trust in a manner students can mimic?” Of the three antecedents of trust (i.e., ability, benevolence, integrity), the role of integrity may be particularly important. Integrity has been described the most important and heavily weighted antecedent of trust (Craig & Gustafson, 1998; Posner & Schmidt, 1984). It is also the hardest dimension to rebuild, once violated (Tomlinson & Mayer, 2009).

Behavioral Integrity
One aspect of leadership that may assist teachers in building and sustaining credibility as a leader in the eyes of their students is behavioral integrity (BI, Simons, 2002), a component of the broader notion if integrity. Behavioral integrity “is the perceived pattern of alignment between an actor’s words and deeds. It entails both the perceived fit between espoused and enacted values, and perceived promise-keeping” (Simons, p.19). BI determines the extent to which participants believe a leader "walks her talk," as well as the extent to which they see her as "talking her walk." Consequently, it is viewed as opposite to the notion of hypocrisy (Cha & Edmondson, 2006).
The first aspect of BI is explicit promise keeping (Posner, 2001). For example, if a teacher commits to provide a certain incentive once students accomplish a particular goal or to issue a specific punishment if a behavior continues and then fails to follow through, the teacher’s level of credibility and influence is lessened. The second theoretical component of Simons’ behavioral integrity construct is the perceived alignment between espoused values and actual displayed values. For instance, if the school’s virtue of the month is “Caring” and the teacher berates and humiliates a student for making an honest mistake it would be realistic for students to ascribe a lower level of credibility to the teacher as a virtuous mentor and role model. This aspect of behavioral integrity is a subtler concept than explicit promise keeping. Moreover, behavioral integrity is conceptualized as a pattern of word–deed and values alignment, rather than a specific instance. Thus, a leader’s behavioral integrity is thought to influence the establishment of norms among employees regarding appropriate behavior (Dineen, Lewicki, & Tomlinson, 2006).

Integrity is derived from the Latin term “integer”, which means wholeness or completeness. Some researchers have operationalized integrity as a lack of unethical behavior (Craig and Gustafson, 1998; Mumford et al., 2003; Posner, 2001). This perspective is limited in scope, as it frames integrity as doing what is appropriate, but not necessarily doing more than the bare minimum. By contrast, behavioral integrity is presented as a morality-free (i.e., amoral) construct, reflecting the degree of consistency, or wholeness, between the leaders’ word (e.g., promises and espoused values) and actions relative to that word. Unlike the broader construct of integrity as described by Mayer et al (1995), behavioral integrity does not evaluate the ethical nature of the target’s espousal and enactment – it demands only that the two align. Typically, the “offending” person is not bad (immoral), but rather, is simply “out of integrity” with regard to a specific promise/value at that time. Viewing behavioral integrity language as practical and not moral makes one’s personal failures discussable with less shame. As a result, skills and habits of behavioral integrity can be more readily developed with training, coaching, and social support (Simons, 2008).

The incongruity of a leader’s words and deeds has profound costs on participants and the organization as it causes leaders to be viewed as untrustworthy and undermine their credibility (Simons, 1999). A recent meta-analysis (Leroy, Collewaert, Masschelein & Simons 2012) combined 25 independent samples, totaling over 11,000 observations, and examined the associations between behavioral integrity and follower attitudes and performance. It found follower perceptions of their leaders’ behavioral integrity was strongly predictive of their trust in (r=.49) and satisfaction with (r=.43) their leaders. Further, behavioral integrity strongly affects followers’ commitment (r=.48), engagement (r=.35) and satisfaction with (r=.42) their work.

Creed and Miles (1996) note that those in leadership positions instigate the majority of conversations; thus, the level of trust or mistrust in their behavior and words will, through conscious and subconscious reciprocation, establish the tone for the relationship. However, an educator’s behavioral integrity is not wholly determined by the consistency between their words and actions. Educators would do well to remember that the perception of behavioral integrity is likely to be strongly influenced by hierarchical relationships. There is evidence to suggest that followers are much more likely to pay close attention to
behavioral integrity and its absence in their leaders than leaders are to notice this void in followers (Simons, 2002). Further, Simons notes that behavioral integrity perceptions are strongly influenced by prior expectations and cynicism. Students, especially those struggling in school, often possess cynical perceptions of individuals in authority positions. Students’ negative perceptions may substantially affect how they interpret teacher behavior.

Basik, Warner, Keene, and Coyne (2011) identified primary and secondary outcome pathways associated with trust, which is facilitated and typically preceded by behavioral integrity (Figure 1, Appendix A). The primary pathway leads to student effort, engagement, and performance. In addition, a secondary process exists in which students imitate the behaviors and characteristics of important models, often in positions of authority.

Bandura’s (1986) social cognition theory concludes that much of our behavior results from observation and imitation of others in a social context. Specifically, research in role modeling has demonstrated that participants emulate the attitudes and behavioral work habits of their managers (Rich, 1997). If teachers desire for students to display integrity and consistently abide by the values discussed and agreed upon at the beginning of the year, the teachers should display a consistent and conscious effort to fulfill the same expectancies they hold for those they lead.

For instance, one of the authors taught 235 students in a challenging urban middle school his first year in the classroom. By Thanksgiving, the teacher felt hopelessly unable to connect with and lead his students well. His relationships with his students were contentious and characterized by disrespect both from and towards the teacher. In a moment of literal despair, the teacher realized that the most important thing he could do had nothing to do with lesson planning, appropriate formative assessment measures, or behavioristic classroom management techniques; he needed to lead by meeting his own expectations. The classroom principles were: “Love People, Do what is Right, and Do it Well!” The author committed to reflect on and pray about becoming a man of love, integrity, and excellence every single day. The subsequent series of decisions brought about humility as he often failed to uphold and model the classroom principles. Incredibly, by March he had noticed a significant transformation in the students, both affectively and academically, in all six classes. The author experienced the power of consistently endeavoring to model and demand behavioral integrity for and from his students, even before he was familiar with the term.

Given the impact of modeling, and the dearth of studies focusing specifically on integrity and leadership in general within classroom contexts, and the likely consequences of teacher behavioral integrity on student learning, this area is ripe for evaluation.

**Objectives**
The purpose of this study was to compare the effects of students’ perceptions of their teachers’ behavioral integrity on student achievement, as measured by statewide-standardized test scores. The following hypotheses were tested:
H1: We expect a positive association between aggregate student performance on standardized tests for math and student perceptions of their teacher’s behavioral integrity.

H2: We expect a positive association between aggregate student performance on standardized tests for reading and student perceptions of their teacher’s behavioral integrity.

Methods

Data Collection Procedures
In May of 2010, students completed online surveys to assess their teacher’s leadership behaviors. Students completed the surveys in class with their teacher available for questions regarding the survey, but unable to see the questions or the students’ responses. In these surveys, students provided feedback on their teacher’s behavioral integrity. The participating teachers completed equivalent self-report questionnaires. Behavioral integrity was measured by six questions used by Simons, Friedman, Liu, and McLean Parks (2007). The scale had an alpha = .91.

Variables
The antecedent variable was behavioral integrity. The outcome variable was the students’ state standardized test scores for reading and math. In order to control for preexisting student conditions and impact on gain scores not attributable to behavioral integrity, we collected data on student grade point averages, gender, ethnicity, native language, mother’s level of education, father’s level of education, and SES. The teacher demographic data points were gender, ethnicity, number of years of teaching experience, educational level, and whether the teachers were traditionally or alternatively certified.

Population
The study included 45 classrooms (N=45) at an elementary school, a middle school, and a high school in a southern state. The high school was located in a suburban community and was predominately middle to upper class and white. The middle school was ethically and financially diverse. The elementary school was located in a low-income and predominately black community. Seven hundred and eighty-eight students in the 4th-12th grades participated in the study. There were 98 elementary school students, 278 middle school students, and 446 high school students. Seven of the classrooms in the study were elementary classrooms. Eighteen of the classrooms were middle school classrooms. The remaining 20 classrooms were high school classrooms. There was not a significant difference between the students’ perceptions of leadership behaviors between the grade levels. Only classrooms with a majority of students providing feedback were included in the study. Student names were not collected so as to preserve student confidentiality.

Additionally, due to the sensitive nature of state standardized test score data, the schools provided aggregated student state standardized test scores for math and reading from each class in order to protect the students’ identifying and academic information. This meant we had to conduct our analysis at the classroom level instead of the individual level. We were not hesitant to treat behavioral integrity as a group-level variable because we were interested in the behaviors that teachers exhibited to the
group as a whole. Individual behavioral integrity assessments are strongly influenced by individual perceptual screens – aggregate scores more closely estimate actual teacher behavior. This group-level approach is consistent with previous studies (e.g., Bono & Judge, 2003; Jung & Sosik, 2002; Kark, Shamir, & Chen, 2003). For instance, Shamer et al. (1998) suggested leaders engage in behaviors that are directed toward the entire group more often than toward specific individuals. Therefore, followers within a specific group are likely to be influenced by similar leadership behaviors.

Data Analysis
The researchers tested the relationship between the students’ perceptions of their teachers’ behavioral integrity and the students’ standardized test scores using multi-level linear regression. Since the residuals were normally distributed and reasonably constant, and eight teachers had multiple classrooms participating, the researchers used multi-level regression to measure the relationships between BI and the students’ test scores. We conducted confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) on the behavioral integrity items. Each participating teacher received an individualized feedback report explaining his or her self-perceptions and students’ feedback. School administrative teams received school-wide feedback reports that included means for both teacher and student surveys.

Results
Seven hundred and eighty-eight students participated in the study with a response rate of 62.8%. Fifty-one percent of the students were female and 46% of the students qualified for free or reduced lunch. Fifty-nine percent of the teachers were female. Intercorrelations between the study variables are reported in Table 1 (Appendix A). Testing for correlation does not allow for controlling for the teacher variable. This is significant because eight teachers involved multiple classrooms in the study.

Using multi-level linear regression, significant relationships were found between BI and students’ standardized test scores in reading and math. After controlling for known driving forces of standardized test scores – gender, mother’s level of education, and class size, the researchers found significant relationships between BI and math scores (Table 2, Appendix A). The researchers found a significant relationship between BI and reading scores with the same control variables (Table 3, Appendix A). Each
of the three grade levels (elementary, middle, and high school) were also analyzed independently; BI proved to be effective in all three groups.

Table 2. BI and reading scores

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Estimate</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
<th>P-Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>BI</td>
<td>0.375</td>
<td>0.152</td>
<td>0.022</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student Gender</td>
<td>0.132</td>
<td>0.338</td>
<td>0.037</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Class size</td>
<td>0.006</td>
<td>0.015</td>
<td>0.041</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mother Ed</td>
<td>0.191</td>
<td>0.108</td>
<td>0.051</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3. BI and math scores

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Estimate</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
<th>P-Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>BI</td>
<td>0.541</td>
<td>0.234</td>
<td>0.029</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student Gender</td>
<td>1.20</td>
<td>0.548</td>
<td>0.037</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Class size</td>
<td>0.038</td>
<td>0.022</td>
<td>0.092</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mother Ed</td>
<td>0.522</td>
<td>0.182</td>
<td>0.007</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The researchers collected teacher self-ratings in addition to the student perceptions in order to evaluate the agreement between teacher and student perceptions of the teachers’ behavioral integrity. The teachers’ self-ratings on their own behavioral integrity were substantially higher than the students’ ratings for their corresponding teachers. The mean score for the teachers’ self-ratings for behavioral integrity was 4.86, while the mean for the students’ ratings was 3.88. The correlation between the teacher self-ratings and the student-ratings was 0.36. Self-ratings of one’s own leadership behavior are prone to bias and inflation (Bass & Riggio, 2006). According to Swann and Read (1981), people display preferential recall for behaviors that are in alignment with own their self-image. The distinction between how the teachers viewed themselves and how their students viewed them may have significant implications on how teachers can and do lead students. Teacher educators, school administrators, and district leaders may benefit from keeping this systematic inflation in mind when developing professional development opportunities and personal growth plans for preservice teachers and current educators.

Discussion

The finding that there was a significant relationship between behavioral integrity and students’ test scores is noteworthy considering the dearth of studies measuring teacher leadership within the classroom (York-Barr & Duke, 2004). This study contributes to the literature within both leadership education and behavioral integrity. As leadership education research, this study is one of only a few studies that address leadership in primary and secondary school classrooms. It informs perspectives on both the academic and affective development of study, and helps describe the impacts of educators’ role in both. Further, it adds to the literature on behavioral integrity by applying the construct in a new setting: education. The inclusion of behavioral integrity within leadership education provides leadership educators with an opportunity to evaluate acquired instructional approaches and practices which, if not
analyzed, will remain unchanged. With significant relationships found between behavioral integrity and standardized test scores for both reading and math, further research refining the concept and impact of leadership within the classroom is timely and essential.

Future studies regarding teachers’ leadership and behavioral integrity may be bolstered by the addition of teacher interviews and student focus groups. Researchers would gain additional insight from teachers’ and students’ narrative descriptions of their experiences and perspectives on these topics. Moreover, the educational leadership literature is essentially void of teachers’ and students’ perspectives on leadership within classrooms. Future research on this topic should also evaluate the connection between teachers’ perceptions of their school administrators’ behavioral integrity and school leadership and teachers’ behavioral integrity and classroom leadership. A trickle-down effect from administrators to teachers may exist.

This study had multiple limitations. Almost 800 students participated in the study, but the N of the study was restricted to 45 since the school district could only provide aggregated standardized test scores in order to protect sensitive student data. An earlier start in data collection may have led enabled the researchers to identify and recruit a larger number of schools, thereby increasing the N from 45 classrooms. Also, the study would have benefitted from an open-ended question to allow students’ to describe their perceptions of their teachers’ behavioral integrity.

While the secondary effects of behavioral integrity is not the central focus of this study, leader behavior and characteristics has long been linked to follower development (Bandura, 1986). Bandura’s model of observational learning describes the impact of leader behavior on obtaining or developing abilities, beliefs, and values. The findings of this study echo the importance of leader behavior and characteristics on follower development. Considering the growing number of empirical studies describing impact of integrity, we contend that no longer is integrity simply a desirable “feel good” quality of organizational functioning, but rather it is becoming recognized as an essential component of success (Rafferty & Griffin, 2004).

There will be times in which teachers will fall short of where they would like to be in regards to their behavioral integrity. Simons (2008) offered several practical steps a teacher may take to positively impact the perception of their behavioral integrity, and to build the relevant skills and habits. When teachers fall short on a commitment or require additional time, the teacher should apologize and, when needed, ask for additional time. Being proactive may make a tremendous difference; especially since the likelihood of a student actually expressing their frustration after a teacher violates a promise or a value is much is much lower than the likelihood a teacher will express dissatisfaction with a student (Simons, 2002). This discrepancy is a manifestation of power dynamics in the teacher-student relationship. When an apology is needed, the teacher should humbly acknowledge that they made a promise and that they failed to follow through. If a task (e.g. returning graded assignments or assessments or engaging in certain activity) is taking longer than expected to complete, the teacher should address the situation, apologize, and establish another deadline they can confidently meet – and then be sure the next paper is returned when promised. In short, the teacher should do what is possible
to mend any wounds created by the offense and work hard to keep it from reoccurring. Simons offers additional introspection practices and organizational suggestions for managing behavioral integrity.

Additionally, Kouzes and Posner (2003) argue that leaders’ credibility rests on the simple, yet challenging ambition of simply doing what the leaders say they will do. Simons (1999) noted, “The divergence between words and deeds has profound costs as it renders leaders untrustworthy and undermines their credibility and their ability to use their words to influence the actions of their participants” (p. 89). Leadership educators are often simultaneously engaged in modeling behavioral integrity and encouraging their students, whether in formal or informal contexts, to be agents in fostering this same effort. When attempting to model and cultivate BI or other relevant desirable behaviors within students, leadership educators should harness the four aforementioned processes Wood & Bandura (1989) describe as central to effectual modeling: attention, retention, reproduction, and motivation (Eggan & Kauchak, 2003). Students’ ability to retain and apply the information is more likely to occur when they have converted the information being modeled into coded information they mentally rehearse on multiple occasions (Wood & Bandura, 1989). Thus, leadership educators should provide continual structure for students as students develop conceptual understanding of what is being modeled and move through the primary pathway towards performance and the secondary pathway, as described by Basik et al. (2011), towards their own personal development.

**Conclusion**

In short, behavioral integrity is not a secondary concern or constraint that teachers, regardless of context, must juggle as they strive to disseminate information, facilitate discussion, and manage student behavior. Behavioral integrity is central to developing trust and influence in every aspect of teaching and leading students, both academically and developmentally. As seen by the results above, behavioral integrity may be a key driver of students’ academic achievement. If teachers desire to lead students effectively, they must learn to model behavioral integrity so as to safeguard their credibility and to maximize student engagement and achievement.

**References**


Cheng, Y. C. (1994). Teacher leadership style: A classroom-level study. Personal author, compiler, or editor name(s); click on any author to run a new search on that name. Journal of Educational Administration, 32(3), 54-71.


Appendix A

Figure 1.
*Primary and secondary pathways (Basik et al., 2011)*

Appendix B

**The Leadership and Education Project**

*Survey for Students*

The purpose of this project is to examine the relationship between leadership, teacher behaviors, and student performance. To compensate you for your school’s participation in this project, principals will receive a report of how the teachers in their school perceive them, and teachers will receive a report of how their students perceive them. All individual responses from principals, teachers and students will...
be kept in absolute confidence. Reports will only show responses averaged across multiple students.

The survey for students examines teacher behaviors that we think might affect student learning. You will in no way be evaluated for your answers. Please respond as frankly as possible. There are no right and wrong answers; we are seeking to understand how things seem to you. Please answer every question regarding each of your academic classes this semester. This survey should take less than 30 minutes in total.

If you have any questions about this survey, please contact

Removed

Or

Removed

**Student Survey - BI Scale** (Simons, Friedman, Liu, and McLean Parks, 2007).

1. What period of the day is this course in your schedule?
2. What is the name of your instructor?
3. Does your family qualify for free or reduced lunch?
4. What is your father’s level of education?
5. What is your mother’s level of education?
6. What is your gender?
7. What is you ethnicity?

**About the teacher**
The following questions ask about this teacher’s classroom performance. Please mark how much each statement accurately describes this teacher. [scale: 5=strongly agree, 4=slightly agree, 3=neither agree nor disagree, 2=slightly disagree, 1=strongly disagree]

**This teacher ...**
8. ... shows the same priorities that he/she describes.
9. ... delivers on promises.
10. ... if he/she says he/she is going to do something, he/she does it.
11. ... practices what he/she preaches.
12. ... when he/she promises something, I can be sure that it will happen.
13. ... conducts himself/herself by the same values he/she talks about.
Country Club Management and Self-directedness: Implications for Academics and Practitioners of Leadership

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Abstract

Leadership orientation is an important component of students’ leadership development and helps inform the creation and understanding of more advanced models of leadership. Students’ level of self-direction must be understood in order to better serve their instructional and leadership needs. Because of this, the researchers examined leadership style and self-directedness of undergraduate students enrolled in two separate agricultural leadership courses. Data was collected through a combined instrument measuring students’ location on the Blake and Mouton Leadership Grid and level of self-directedness. The findings indicated a strong correlation between a people orientation leadership style and self-directedness. The majority of respondents had a country club leadership style. Developing a comprehension of students’ previous leadership experiences may provide more insight into their location on the leadership grid and level of self-directedness. Gaining a deeper understanding of self-perceived skills or behaviors of leadership majors or those minoring in leadership would be beneficial for leadership educators.

Introduction and Theoretical Framework

Although original studies on leader behaviors and styles originated in the late 1950s, industry, leadership educators, and leadership students still rely on those measures when engaging in leadership development activities. Understanding one’s natural leadership orientation is also a basis for more advanced leadership models, such as contingency, situational, and authentic leadership (Bass & Bass, 2008). Because leadership behavior models are integral in the development of leaders, it is imperative to understand how they correlate with other models of learning and development.

Blake and Mouton’s (1964) Managerial Grid (later changed in 1991 by Blake and McCanse to the Leadership Grid) is a model of task and relationship orientation for leaders. Building upon the research
line of leadership behaviors proposed by the University of Michigan and Ohio State, Blake and Mouton created a grid system, which associates managers’ people (relationship) orientation to their concern for production (task). Utilizing the scores from the Managerial Grid Questionnaire, participants of this study were diagnosed as one of five leader types; (1) Authority-Compliance (high production, low people), (2) Country Club (low production, high people), (3) Middle of the Road (moderate on both measures), (4) Impoverished (low production, low people), or (5) Team (high production, high people). A further revision by Blake and McKee (1993) expands the original leader descriptors.

Blake and Mouton theorize leaders have a dominate style which is the one used most often and in varying situations. They also conclude other styles can and will be utilized by leaders if and only if their dominate style is not perceived as effective, and the leader is reflexive enough to see a disconnect and change his/her style (Blake & Mouton, 1964). Subsequent studies by Hall (1984), Blake and Mouton (1985), and Blake and McCanse (1991) found leaders who self-identified as 9,9 or Team Leaders were more effective and were more likely to advance to higher leadership positions within their organizations.

Business can improve productivity by developing an understanding of leadership styles. The change of corporations from hierarchical, national, and shareholder-oriented structures to networked, international, and stakeholder-focused environments creates a need to understand what leadership means and how followers react to leadership (Maak & Pless, 2006). A business leaders’ style, whether in terms of a single project or companywide, can affect organizational performance and different styles are needed in various situations (Müller & Turner, 2007). Supervisors must understand how their leadership style influences employee satisfaction. Managers’ leadership styles shape organizational success, as well as employee job satisfaction, commitment, and productivity (Rad & Yarmohammadian, 2006).

Research has shown task and relationship oriented leadership behaviors can have an effect in situations important in the business world. Madlock (2008) indicated a mixture of both task and relationship leadership styles leads to higher employee satisfaction. Tabernero, Chambal, Curral, and Arana (2009) found task-oriented leaderships had a positive effect on the creation of transactional normative contracts and higher group accomplishment, while relationship-oriented leadership had a positive effect on the creation of relational normative contracts and no difference in group accomplishment.

As leadership development encompasses leadership training and education, it is imperative to understand how leaders learn (Brungardt, 1996). Adult education has traditionally revolved around a classical teacher-student relationship with the goals of increasing subject knowledge in the student and also to foster skills that will continue to aid the student after the completion of the course (Dynan, Cate, & Rhee, 2008). Self-directed learning (SDL) is a concept that challenges the classical theory. SDL is a learning strategy where the individual assumes the responsibility and initiative for pursuing the individual’s own learning needs and goals (Knowles, 1975). Candy (1991) extended the concept of SDL to education by positing that SDL environments fostered a more fundamental understanding of the subject material as opposed to rote memorization. Achieving SDL by the student engenders fundamental knowledge that enhances both the skills required for the course and future life
experiences. The emergence of a stronger SDL approach to adult education has called into question the efficacy of the traditional role of the teacher (Montgomery, 2009). The SDL framework has become increasingly used in contemporary educational research to address new modes of educational delivery. The increased use of technology and asynchronous education delivery systems has facilitated the incorporation of SDL techniques into modern curriculae (Teo, et al., 2010).

Classic SDL theory approaches self-directed learning as the responsibility of both the instructor and the student (Stockdale & Brockett, 2011). Specific characteristics have been attributed to college students exhibiting greater degrees of SDL. Students exhibiting greater levels of self-management, a desire for learning, and self-control have been found to express greater levels of self-directedness (Fisher & King, 2010). SDL as an educational framework has the ability to significantly increase student learning when the student demonstrates high levels of motivation, self-management, learning desire, and self-control (Abar & Loken, 2010). Students must be prepared to embrace SDL characteristics for effective self-directed learning to occur. Encouraging students to engage in SDL learning techniques when the students are not ready can lead to inconsistent results and a reduction of classroom efficacy (Yuan, Williams, Fang, & Pang, 2012).

The traditional teaching style adopted by most university classrooms revolves around the traditional teacher/classroom model in which teachers provide instruction and results are evaluated with assignments (Loyens, Magda, & Rikers, 2008). Conventional classroom instructional methods naturally inhibit the ability of students to become more self-directed. Courses designed with improving SDL in mind have been shown to increase student levels of SDL (Dynan, Cate, & Rhee, 2008). Strong, Wynn, Irby, and Lindner (2012) found a correlation with students’ leadership style and level of self-directed learning. Blake and Mouton’s (1964) and Grow’s (1991) theories were used to scaffold this study to better understand factors that influence leadership in order to enhance the practice of student leader development.

**Purpose and Objectives**

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

1. Describe students’ leadership style;
2. Describe students’ self-directed learning levels;
3. Examine the relationship between students’ leadership style and self-directed learning levels; and
4. Examine the relationship between students’ location on Blake and Mouton’s Leadership Grid and level of self-directed learning.

**Methodology**

This study used a quantitative research paradigm with survey research as the design for the study. This study was descriptive in nature as it was a census. The population (N = 93) consisted of undergraduate
students in two separate agricultural leadership courses from a land-grant institution. The study was conducted during the Fall of 2012 with leadership students in two courses. One course focused on leading and training adults and had forty-three \( (n = 43) \) students. The course objectives were to:

1. Define teaching and learning and describe the process of each.
2. Identify the steps and processes related to Instructional Design and the ADDIE Model.
3. Describe and give examples of active training.
4. Identify and distinguish between the different components of an adult training program.
5. Design, develop and evaluate an adult training program.

The other course (course acronym) centered on leadership application and had fifty \( (n = 50) \) students. Team Leadership, is a junior-level leadership application course at [University]. The students in this course are agricultural leadership or university studies-leadership studies majors who have completed at least one course in leadership theory. The course objectives were to:

1. complete a service-learning project with a community value of at least $1,000
2. identify group member roles within their team with 90% accuracy
3. diagnose stages of the team development process with 90% accuracy

Survey questionnaires were hand delivered to the sample. Eighty-six \( (n = 86) \) of the 93 students responded yielding a response rate of 92.47% and two responses were eliminated due to incomplete answers. Therefore, the study produced \( (n = 84) \) usable responses.

Leadership style focuses on what leaders do versus what leaders may be. Blake and Mouton’s (1964) leadership grid questionnaire, used in this study, was composed of 18 items that assessed two orientations to leadership: people and task. Researchers and practitioners of leadership at [University] found the Blake and Mouton’s leadership style instrument to have content validity for the research objectives in this study. Anchors in the instrument were: \( 0 = \text{Never}, 1 = \text{Seldom}, 3 = \text{Often}, 4 = \text{Almost Always}, \) and \( 5 = \text{Always} \). Odd numbered items in the instrument related to the concern for people leadership orientation. Concern for people is the extent a leader considers the interests of team members when choosing to achieve a goal (Blake & Mouton, 1964). Even numbered items were associated with task oriented leadership. Odd and even numbered scores were summed separately. In order to assess the scoring interpretation of Blake and Mouton’s leadership grid, a researcher sums the total of the odd numbered or people oriented responses that result in a single number. The researcher then sums the total responses provided for the task orientation in the even numbered statements with a single number that is produced from the summation. The first number, the people orientation score is identified along the left side of Blake and Mouton’s (1964) leadership grid and the second number, the task orientation score, is identified on the bottom of the leadership grid. The two scores are plotted on the grid representing a singular location. The singular location represents the leadership style of the respective individual; (1) Authority-Compliance (high production, low people), (2) Country Club (low production, high people), (3) Middle of the Road (moderate on both measures), (4) Impoverished (low production, low people), or (5) Team (high production, high people). The internal consistency was \( \alpha = .86 \) for the leadership style instrument.
Richards’ (2005) developed an instrument aligning Grow’s (1991) Staged Self-Directed Learning Model to ascertain students’ perceived level of self-directedness. A team of adult learning researchers at [University] found Richard’s (2005) instrument to have content validity suitable for this study. Richard’s (2005) instrument included 24 items to assess students’ level of self-directed learning and included anchors: 1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Agree, and 4 = Strongly Agree. The internal consistency of the self-directed learning scale was $\alpha = .85$. The internal consistency of each construct was reliable according to (Cronbach, 1951), and therefore, deemed acceptable to administer in order to answer the research questions in this study.

The first and second objectives were measured using descriptive statistics. Fraenkel, Wallen, and Hyun (2012) indicated descriptive statistics enable researchers to illustrate the data’s location around a grand mean and standard deviation. The third and fourth objectives were measure with correlation coefficients. Correlations imply the track and scale of variable relationships between -1.00 and +1.00 (Davis, 1971).

The majority of students were male ($n = 49, 58.33$%), were seniors ($n = 55, 65.50$%), were between 21 and 23 years old ($n = 72, 85.71$%), were an FFA or 4-H member ($n = 61, 72.62$%), and worked at least a part-time job ($n = 65, 77.38$%). The findings from this study can only be generalized to the sample, students enrolled in the two leadership courses at [University], and cannot be generalized beyond the target population. However, the data provided insight on additional factors that can be examined to develop a better comprehension of variables that influence leadership style.

**Results**

The first objective was to describe students’ leadership style. Students’ leadership styles were examined in terms of task (see Table 1) and relationship (see Table 2) orientation. The overall mean for students’ people orientation was ($M = 3.10, SD = .94$). The highest scoring item was “I encourage my team to participate when it comes to decision making time and I try to implement their ideas and suggestions.” ($M = 3.41, SD = .90$). The lowest scoring item was “I enjoy reading articles, books, and journals about training leadership, and psychology and then putting what I have read into reading them.” ($M = 2.58, SD = 1.01$).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I encourage my team to participate when it comes to decision making time and I try to implement their ideas and suggestions.</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>3.41</td>
<td>.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When seeing a complex task through to completion, I ensure every detail is accounted for.</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>3.36</td>
<td>.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I closely monitor the schedule to ensure a task or project will be completed on time.</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>3.34</td>
<td>1.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I manage my time very efficiently.</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>3.17</td>
<td>.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Breaking large projects into small manageable tasks is second nature.</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>3.17</td>
<td>.84</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The more challenging a task is, the more I enjoy it.
I enjoy analyzing problems.
Counseling my followers to improve their performance or behavior is
second nature to me.
I enjoy reading articles, books, and journals about training leadership,
and psychology and then putting what I have read into reading them.

Note. Overall M = 3.10, SD = .94. Scale: 0 = Never, 1 = Seldom, 3 = Often, 4 = Almost Always, and 5 = Always

Table 2 illustrates students’ task oriented leadership styles. The overall mean for students’ relationship orientation was (M = 3.11, SD = .95). The highest scoring item was “I honor other people’s boundaries.” (M = 3.83, SD = .93). The lowest scoring item was “It frustrates me when I have to deal with others’ personal issues.” (M = 2.49, SD = 1.19).

Table 2
Descriptive Statistics for Students’ Task Orientation to Leadership (N = 84)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I honor other people’s boundaries.</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nothing is more important than building a team.</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>3.37</td>
<td>.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I encourage my followers to be creative in regards to their jobs.</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>3.26</td>
<td>.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I enjoy coaching people on new tasks and procedures.</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>3.22</td>
<td>.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nothing is more important than accomplishing a goal or task.</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>3.20</td>
<td>1.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I enjoy explaining the intricacies and details of a complex task or project to my followers.</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>3.01</td>
<td>.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I find it easy to carry out several complicated tasks at the same time.</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>2.97</td>
<td>.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When correcting mistakes, I do not worry about jeopardizing relationships.</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>2.64</td>
<td>1.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It frustrates me when I have to deal with others’ personal issues.</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>2.49</td>
<td>1.19</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Overall M = 3.11, SD = .95. Scale: 0 = Never, 1 = Seldom, 3 = Often, 4 = Almost Always, and 5 = Always

The second objective of the study was to describe students’ self-directed learning levels (see Table 3). The overall mean for students’ level of self-directed learning was (M = 2.00, SD = .61). The highest scoring item was “I prefer individual work or a self-directed study group as the teaching delivery method.” (M = 2.26, SD = .65). The lowest scoring item was “I prefer that the instructor provide direction only when requested.” (M = 1.57, SD = .68).

Table 3
Descriptive Statistics of Students’ Level of Self-directed Learning (n = 84)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Note: Overall score: M = 3.10, SD = .94. Scale: 0 = Never, 1 = Seldom, 3 = Often, 4 = Almost Always, and 5 = Always
I prefer individual work or a self-directed study group as the teaching delivery method.  

I am willing to take responsibility for my own learning.  

I use resources outside of class to meet my goals.  

I am capable of assessing the quality of assignments that I submit.  

I set my own goals for learning without the help of the instructor.  

I learn best when I set my own goals.  

I have prior knowledge and skills in the subject area.  

I prefer that the instructor provide direction only when requested.  

Note. Overall $M = 2.00$, $SD = .61$. Scale: 1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Agree, 4 = Strongly Agree

The third objective of the study was to examine the relationship between students’ people orientation and self-directed learning levels (see Table 4). The items “I encourage my team to participate when it comes to decision making time and I try to implement their ideas and suggestions.” ($r = .74$) and “The more challenging a task is, the more I enjoy it.” ($r = .71$) had Very Strong ($r \geq .70$) correlations to self-directed learning level. The items “Counseling my followers to improve their performance or behavior is second nature to me.” ($r = .57$) and “Breaking large projects into small manageable tasks is second nature to me.” ($r = .54$) had Substantial ($r = .50 \geq r \geq .69$) correlations to self-directed learning level. The items “I enjoy analyzing problems.” ($r = .35$) and “I manage my time very efficiently.” ($r = .32$) had Moderate ($r = .30 \geq r \geq .49$) correlations to self-directed learning level.

### Table 4
**Correlations between the People Orientation and Level of Self-directed Learning (N = 84)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>r</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I encourage my team to participate when it comes to decision making time and I try to implement their ideas and suggestions.</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>.74</td>
<td>.00*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The more challenging a task is, the more I enjoy it.</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>.71</td>
<td>.00*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Counseling my followers to improve their performance or behavior is second nature to me.</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>.57</td>
<td>.00*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Breaking large projects into small manageable tasks is second nature to me.</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>.54</td>
<td>.00*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I enjoy analyzing problems.</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>.35</td>
<td>.00*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I manage my time very efficiently.</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>.32</td>
<td>.00*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I closely monitor the schedule to ensure a task or project will be completed on time.</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>.09</td>
<td>.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I enjoy reading articles, books, and journals about training leadership, and psychology and then putting what I have read into reading them.</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When seeing a complex task through to completion, I ensure every detail is accounted for.</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>.24</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*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).
The fourth objective of the study was to examine the relationship between students’ location on Blake and Mouton’s Managerial Grid and level of self-directed learning. The majority of students had a country club management leadership style \((n = 41)\). Team management was second \((n = 17)\), and impoverished management \((n = 14)\) was third. Middle-of-the-road management was next \((n = 11)\), and authority – compliance management earned the fewest scores \((n = 2)\). Country club management was the only grid area that had enough responses to test for a relationship with students’ level of self-directedness. The data indicated country club management had a Very Strong \((r \geq .70)\) correlation to level of self-directedness \((r = .71)\).

**Conclusions**

The findings are limited to the population in this study. However, the data does offer insight into individual characteristics that influence leadership styles. Country club management was the only leadership style to be tested for a correlation with self-directedness due to no other leadership grid having at least 30 members in the sample. Students scored highly in the areas of country club and team management because their experiences up to this point have put a premium on relationships. The academic environments students have existed in so far are just as oriented to relationships (through socializing and working in group environments) as they are to tasks (completing assignments and tests). The lack of professional exposure for students where task oriented environments may take precedent may explain their relationship orientation. It is also important for leadership educators to understand the leadership skill make-up of their students. This will allow the instructors of leadership education courses to create assignments that will engage and challenge the students to become more self-directed in their learning.

**Implications**

Students who engage in leadership education courses are more likely to leave the university with proficiency in the “soft” skills needed to be successful in today’s work environment (Brungardt, 2011). These “soft” skills include leader behavior and self-directed learning. As Williams, Townsend, and Lindner (2005) found, Blake and Mouton’s Leadership styles were remembered and utilized by students years after they completed a leadership theory course, therefore making it a good model to use when teaching and learning about leadership styles. The findings of this study are consistent with those of Lewis and Jobs (1993) who looked at leadership behaviors, group performance, and situational control. They found task-oriented leaders on the Blake and Mouton scale perform better in a high control situation while relationship-oriented leaders, specifically Country Club leaders, are more successful in moderate control situations because they are more likely to engage in collaboration to accomplish the needed task. Students who are more self-directed are more likely to thrive in a moderate control environment where they can engage in learning on their own terms. Popper (2013) studied the implications of perceived distance between leaders and followers and psychological theories of leadership. Popper found those leaders who are perceived to be more distant, or task oriented, felt a higher need to create specific “schemas and leadership prototypes” (p. 5) for their followers to learn; thus making learning less self-directed.
Brungardt (1996) indicated leadership development includes leadership training and education. The task orientation was significant with self-directedness (Strong et al., 2012). The data in this study suggested individuals with high people orientations toward leadership styles are more likely to be self-directed learners. Blake and Mouton (1964) suggested individual should have equal amounts of a people or task orientation depending on the situation that calls for the respective type of leadership. Those leaders who are team managers (9,9) were found to be more effective by their followers. The combination of this study with that of Strong et al. (2012) suggest those leaders who are high in task and relationship also tend to be more self-directed in their learning. Regardless of the leadership orientation, having a higher level of self-directedness benefits the learner and the trainer (Grow, 1991). Fisher and King (2010) found students exhibiting greater levels of self-discipline and a desire for learning expressed greater levels of self-directedness.

Based on the findings of this study, coupled with that of Strong et al. (2012), Brungardt (1996), and Fisher and King (2010), understanding students’ leadership orientation would aid leadership educators in the classroom as much as knowing learning style preference. First, ascertaining their task and relationship orientation then self-directedness can proactively find potential struggles for students in correlation with assignments, activities, and learning. Just as a kinesthetic learning would have issues in a lecture only course, a student who has both low task and relationship orientations (impoverished) will most likely be a passive learner/follower and have issues in a demanding collegiate leadership course.

**Recommendations**

A larger sample is needed to determine the effect of other areas of the leadership grid having a relationship with self-directedness. The sample may include enough individuals with team management, impoverished management, middle-of-the-road management, and authority – compliance management in order to appropriately examine the potential relationship between the leadership styles and self-directedness. Sampling students, who are not majoring in leadership, or other social sciences, potentially would give more diverse responses for leadership behaviors and skills. A larger sample would also provide data with more power regarding country club management and self-directedness.

This study should be replicated with business leaders. Practicing leaders in a for-profit arena may provide congruent or different results than a student population. The sample in this study included individuals who were a part of the millennial generation. A study involving business leaders may produce parallel or dissimilar results if the sample is composed primarily of participants that are not in the millennial generation.

A study involving previous leadership experience could be beneficial. This study found a majority of the sample were members of FFA or 4-H. This study did not ascertain if the sample participated in any leadership experiences within each of the youth organizations. Developing a comprehension of students’ previous leadership experiences may provide more insight into their location on the leadership grid and level of self-directedness.
Gaining a deeper understanding of self-perceived skills or behaviors of leadership majors or those minoring in leadership would be beneficial for leadership educators. As programs are developing across the country, evaluative measures, and possible accreditation leads us to the need for a more comprehensive picture of our leadership graduates. As Colvin (2003) notes, the purpose of leadership education is to produce “leaders in social, economic, religious, and political realms” (p. 28).

References


Examining the Blogging Habits of Agricultural Leadership Students: Enhancing Student Engagement

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Abstract
Blogging is a form of social media and student engagement is at the center of blogging. The benefits of blogging include easy to create and maintain, making writing easier to share, encouraging students to write outside of the classroom, and supporting group collaboration. The findings suggest students are more passive in their blogging experiences, as the data found students generally read blogs more than they wrote blogs. The unified theory on the acceptance and use of technology and self-efficacy were used as the framework for the study. This study sought to explore agricultural leadership students’ motivations for blogging. Student responses indicated on average they read blogs less than once a month. Students typically reported a preference for informal writing even if they did not blog. Teacher training could be used to increase awareness among educators about the benefits of blogging. Educators must be able to convey the benefits of educational blogging in terms of its ease and benefit for student acceptance.

Introduction
The Internet has emerged as a fast growing means of communication for students and social media is the primary outlet for this interaction. The growth has afforded opportunities for the use of social media for educational purposes. Social media is a term used for a collection of Internet websites, services, and practices that support collaboration, community building, participation, and sharing (Junco & Chickering, 2010). The primary social media networks, a major category of social media, include Twitter®, Facebook® and weblogs, or blogs, such as Wordpress® and Blogspot®. A blog is an online journal that allows people to share information, convey material, and express their views (Brescia & Miller, 2006). The primary element that makes blogging “social” media is the comments. Without comments, blogging merely becomes just another online news outlet. With comments blogging becomes a conversation that
connects the people who read the blog. Kirby and Kaillio (2007) liken blogs to unlocked diaries and found today’s teens are more open about posting their personal thoughts online.

Blogging has dropped among teens in recent years, down from 28% of online teens in 2006 to 14% as of 2010 and increased among older adults (Lenhart, Purcell, Smith, & Zickuhr, 2010). Teens and young adults are also commenting on blogs less, even though both teen and adult use of social networking has risen significantly (Lenhart et al., 2010). Andergassen, Behringer, Finlay, Gorra, and Moore (2009) found students are driven to begin blogging by a general will to write, test the blogging technology and socialize with their peers. Students who cease a blog or are unwilling to begin a blog, do so because of concerns with a lack of privacy, a lack of immediate interaction, and the perception the service does not provide useful study information (Andergassen et al., 2009).

All of these networks can become important tools in education through proper use. Blogging helps students become more comfortable with the digital world in order to better succeed in the twenty-first century workplace and provides an advantageous community where students can engage with topics outside of the classroom setting (Platt, 2011). Blogging also encourages students to reflect on their writing styles, and the public nature of blogging and results in students being more cautious and deliberate with their writing. Blogs allow for self-direction within a public forum (Winer, 2003) but once published, remain open to public scrutiny. Luethmann and Tinelli (2008) found blogging and specifically the comments of like-minded individuals, helped reform-minded science teachers nurture a community of support and almost all participants responded that blogging was a valuable asset to their professional learning. Ferdig and Trammell (2004) found blogging has four distinct advantages for learners, the use of blogs helps students become experts in a particular subject; gives students the chance to legitimately participate; increases student interest and ownership in learning; and provides opportunities for the sharing of diverse perspectives. Brescia and Miller (2006) conducted a study to find instructional advantages of blogging in college settings and found blogging to offer valuable reinforcement of course engagement and repeated exposure to coursework.

Student engagement is at the heart of educational blogging. Astin (1984) defined engagement as “the amount of physical and psychological energy that the student devotes to the academic experience” (p. 297). Kuh (2009) suggested out-of-class engagement in educationally relevant activities is important to student success, and positively related to a number of desired outcomes of a college education. Junco (2011) found commenting on Facebook was one of the positive predictors of college outcomes. Arnold and Paulus (2010) reported the students read each other’s work more than usual in order to get ideas on how to approach an assignment when using a social networking site. Boas (2011) indicated blogging is an effective way to encourage writing, and the process approach to writing reflects the fact that blogging is a relationship between the writer and his or her audience. Ferris and Hedgcock (2005) recommended a reader’s background knowledge and experiences must be taken into account when writing for a blog. The specificity of blog topics enables writers to be aware of this information. Other benefits of blogging with regard to the writing process include, being easy to create and maintain, making writing easier to share, encouraging students to write outside of the classroom, and supporting group work and collaboration (Bloch, 2008).
Settle et al. (2012) found prior association with social media in an educational setting led to more positive perceptions of social media within education. Junco, Heibergert and Loken (2010) found the use of Twitter was important in engaging students for academic and psychosocial development. Settle et al. (2011) suggested students believed it was probably important to know how to use online forums, video-sharing sites and blogs for future careers, with micro-blogs and social networking sites other than Facebook seen as the least important. It is important to integrate these technologies effectively, as improper use can have consequences on students’ perceived benefits of social media, and to keep in mind which tools are perceived primarily for entertainment use versus informational tools in students’ minds (Rhoades, Friedel, & Irani, 2008).

Theoretical Framework

The Unified Theory of Acceptance and Use of Technology (UTAUT) was developed by Venkatesh, Morris, Davis and Davis (2003). The model is a combination of eight different models of technology acceptance. The UTAUT has four core determinants, which consist of performance expectancy, effort expectancy, social influence and facilitating conditions. These are factored in with gender, age, experience and voluntariness of use to identify behavioral intention. A longitudinal study found this model is able to explain approximately 70% of users’ acceptance of the technology, compared with the other models that were able to explain 40% (Venkatesh et al., 2003).

Pardemean and Susanto (2012) used UTAUT to study student use of a blog to engage instructional material and found performance expectancy and social influence were significantly related to behavioral intention but effort expectancy was not significantly related to behavioral intention. A study by Avci and Askar (2012) compared blog and wiki use as constructive classroom tools with respect to perceived usefulness, perceived ease of use, intention, self-efficacy and anxiety using UTAUT. Perceived usefulness and self-efficacy were the most effective variables in the study, explaining 71% of blog and wiki usage.

Bandura’s (1993) self-efficacy theory revolves around four major processes, which include cognitive, affective, motivational and selectional. These processes contribute to students’ self-efficacy, which in turn contributes to the utilization of skills (Bandura, 1993).

Yi and Hwang (2003) used Bandura’s self-efficacy theory to predict the use of web-based information systems, and found self-efficacy plays an important role in determining the actual use of technology. DeTure (2004) found more specific measures of self-efficacy could be used to better predict performance outcome.

Purpose and Objectives

This study sought to explore agricultural leadership students’ motivations for blogging at [university]. More specifically, the objectives were to:

1. Describe students’ level of effort expectancy with blogging;
2. Describe students’ level of performance expectancy with blogging;
3. Describe students’ level of behavioral intention with blogging;
4. Describe students’ interest in writing as it relates to blogging;
5. Describe students’ interest in reading blogs as it relates to blogging; and
6. Describe students’ level of self-efficacy with blogging.

Methodology
The target population for the study of blogging habits of agricultural leadership students is undergraduate students at [university] majoring in agricultural leadership. This was a census study of one hundred fifty-three (N = 153) students in three agricultural leadership courses at [university]; leading change, leading and training adults, and technology instructional design strategies.

Data for the study was collected using a 29-item instrument, which included a revised version of Venkatesh et al.’s (2003) UTAUT scale, Tschannen-Moran and Hoy’s (2001) Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale, and demographic questions. The UTAUT focuses on determining performance expectancy, behavior expectancy, social influence and facilitating conditions. The variables focused on in this study were self-efficacy, perceived usefulness and perceived writing ability. Content validity of the combined instrument was assessed by distance learning researchers at [university].

The UTAUT scale was developed by Venkatesh et al. (2003) and used in this study to assess students’ blogging preferences, with regard to performance expectancy, effort expectancy and behavioral intention. Blogging preference was measured on a seven-point summated scale: 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = moderately disagree, 3 = somewhat disagree, 4 = neutral (neither disagree nor agree), 5 = somewhat agree, 6 = moderately agree, and 7 = strongly agree (Venkatesh et al., 2003). Constructs of the UTAUT were calculated ex post facto. Performance expectancy earned a reliability coefficient of .82, effort expectancy = .86, and behavioral intention = .90 in this study. The internal consistency for the constructs of self-efficacy, self-directed learning, performance expectancy, effort expectancy, and behavioral intention were judged as acceptable for use in answering the study’s research objectives (Cronbach, 1951).

A modified version of Tschannen-Moran and Hoy’s (2001) Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale was used to assess the self-efficacy aspect of students’ usage of blogging. The Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale was created using Bandura’s (1993) self-efficacy theory. The instrument used a nine-point summated scale for each item with anchors: 1 = nothing, 3 = very little, 5 = some influence, 7 = quite a bit, and 9 = a great deal (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001). The self-efficacy construct was assessed ex post facto for internal consistency and a reliability coefficient of .91 for self-efficacy was produced in this study.

Survey methodology was utilized to collect data from the sample. This sample was chosen for its randomness of students within the major at [university] because it was three different courses of varying sizes that were all populated by agricultural leadership students at various stages in their collegiate career. The researchers constructed a web-based questionnaire in Qualtrics™. The Tailored Design Method (Dillman, Smyth, & Christian, 2009) for creating and delivering an electronic questionnaire was employed for this study. The sample received an email notification and two days
later received an email that included a link to the questionnaire in Qualtrics™. Two separate emails, both a week apart, were sent to non-respondents. Seventy ($n = 70$) participants responded yielding a response rate of 45.75%. The researchers examined early and late respondents to assess nonresponse error from achieving less than an 85% response rate. There were no significant differences between early and late respondents and therefore, the results can be generalized (Lindner, Murphy, & Briers, 2001) to the population ($N = 153$). Data was analyzed by employing descriptive statistics. Franekel, Wallen, and Hyun (2012) indicated descriptive statistics provide researchers with numerical data that explains the independent variables in a study.

The study assessed four demographics of the survey participants. Out of 70 respondents, $n = 43$ (61.42%) were male. Thirty-nine ($n = 39$) students (55.71%) were seniors, 31 respondents ($n = 31$, 44.00%) had a GPA between 2.99 and 2.50, and 32 students ($n = 32$, 45.71%) were employed part-time. The findings are limited to the targeted population. However, the results provide leadership practitioners at [university] and researchers facets that contribute to students’ acceptance and usage of blogging in courses.

**Findings**

The first objective of the study was to describe students’ level of effort expectancy with blogging (see Table 1). Kurtosis and skewness of the data were not an outcome as the data was normally distributed. Therefore, the descriptive statistics were presented versus data frequencies. The question, “Learning to operate blogs would be easy for me” earned the highest score ($M = 4.51$, $SD = 1.89$) of the effort expectancy construct in the UTAUT.

**Table 1**

*Descriptive Statistics for the Effort Expectancy Construct ($N = 70$)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>$N$</th>
<th>$M$</th>
<th>$SD$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Learning to operate blogs would be easy for me.</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>4.51</td>
<td>1.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I would find blogs easy to use.</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>4.47</td>
<td>1.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It would be easier for me to become skillful at blogging.</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>4.14</td>
<td>1.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My interaction with blogging would be clear and understandable.</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>3.99</td>
<td>1.95</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note. Overall $M = 4.28$, $SD = 1.89$. Scale: 7 = Strongly Agree , 6 = Moderately Agree, 5 = Somewhat Agree, 4 = Neutral (Neither Agree or Disagree), 3 = Somewhat Disagree , 2 = Moderately Disagree, 1 = Strongly Disagree.*

The second objective of the study was to describe students’ level of performance expectancy with blogging (see Table 2). The question, “I would find blogging useful in school” earned the highest score ($M = 3.79$, $SD = 1.80$) of the performance expectancy construct in the UTAUT.

**Table 2**

*Descriptive Statistics for the Performance Expectancy Construct ($N = 70$)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>$N$</th>
<th>$M$</th>
<th>$SD$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I would find blogging useful in school.</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>3.79</td>
<td>1.80</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
I would find blogging useful in school.  
If I blog, I would increase my chances of getting a good grade.  
Blogging would increase my productivity.

Note. Overall $M = 3.52$, $SD = 1.74$. Scale: $7 = $ Strongly Agree $, 6 = $ Moderately Agree $, 5 = $ Somewhat Agree $, 4 = $ Neutral (Neither Agree or Disagree) $, 3 = $ Somewhat Disagree $, 2 = $ Moderately Disagree $, 1 = $ Strongly Disagree.

The third objective of the study was to describe students’ level of behavioral intention with blogging (see Table 3). The statement, “I like working with blogs” earned the highest score ($M = 3.23$, $SD = 1.86$) of the behavioral intention construct in the UTAUT.

Table 3
Descriptive Statistics for the Behavioral Intention Construct ($N = 70$)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>$N$</th>
<th>$M$</th>
<th>$SD$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I like working with blogs.</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>3.23</td>
<td>1.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I intend to blog in the next 12 months.</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>2.94</td>
<td>1.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I predict I would blog in the next 12 months.</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>2.91</td>
<td>2.09</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Overall $M = 3.03$, $SD = 1.98$. Scale: $7 = $ Strongly Agree $, 6 = $ Moderately Agree $, 5 = $ Somewhat Agree $, 4 = $ Neutral (Neither Agree or Disagree) $, 3 = $ Somewhat Disagree $, 2 = $ Moderately Disagree $, 1 = $ Strongly Disagree.

The fourth objective of the study was to describe students’ interest in writing as it relates to blogging (see Table 4). The statement, “I am good at writing” earned the highest score ($M = 4.91$, $SD = 1.81$) of the writing construct in the instrument.

Table 4
Descriptive Statistics for the Writing Construct ($N = 70$)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>$N$</th>
<th>$M$</th>
<th>$SD$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I am good at writing.</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>4.91</td>
<td>1.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My writing style is informal.</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>4.73</td>
<td>1.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I enjoy writing.</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>4.46</td>
<td>2.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My writing style is formal.</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>4.17</td>
<td>1.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I write about topics related to school and class.</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>3.84</td>
<td>1.92</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Overall $M = 4.42$, $SD = 1.82$. Scale: $7 = $ Strongly Agree $, 6 = $ Moderately Agree $, 5 = $ Somewhat Agree $, 4 = $ Neutral (Neither Agree or Disagree) $, 3 = $ Somewhat Disagree $, 2 = $ Moderately Disagree $, 1 = $ Strongly Disagree.

The fifth objective of the study was to describe students’ interest in reading blogs as it relates to blogging (see Table 5). The statement, “I read others’ blogs more than I write in my own blog” earned the highest score ($M = 4.17$, $SD = 1.99$) of the reading construct in the instrument.

Table 5
Descriptive Statistics for the Reading Construct ($N = 70$)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>$N$</th>
<th>$M$</th>
<th>$SD$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I read others’ blogs more than I write in my own blog.</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>4.17</td>
<td>1.99</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 5

Descriptive Statistics for the Reading Construct (N = 70)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I read others’ blogs more than I write in my own blog.</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>4.17</td>
<td>1.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I mainly read blogs about entertainment, sports, politics or pop culture.</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>3.73</td>
<td>1.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I read blogs more than once a month.</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>3.36</td>
<td>2.01</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Overall M = 4.24, SD = 1.88. Scale: 7 = Strongly Agree, 6 = Moderately Agree, 5 = Somewhat Agree, 4 = Neutral (Neither Agree or Disagree), 3 = Somewhat Disagree, 2 = Moderately Disagree, 1 = Strongly Disagree.

The sixth objective of the study was to describe students’ level of self-efficacy with blogging (see Table 5). The statement, “How much can you do with blogging to learn effectively?” earned the highest score (M = 4.56, SD = 2.00) of the self-efficacy construct in the instrument. The sample of self-efficacy was smaller due to two individuals not responding to the self-efficacy questions.

Table 6

Descriptive Statistics for the Self-Efficacy Construct (N = 68)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>How much can you do with blogging to learn effectively?</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>4.56</td>
<td>2.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How much does blogging help you assist your peers with educational content?</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>4.28</td>
<td>2.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How much does blogging help you to follow course objectives?</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>4.18</td>
<td>2.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How much does blogging motivate you to learn educational content?</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>3.91</td>
<td>2.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How much does blogging help you focus on educational content?</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>3.91</td>
<td>2.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How much does blogging help you value learning?</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>3.87</td>
<td>2.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How much does blogging get you to believe you can do well in school?</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>3.85</td>
<td>2.37</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Overall M = 4.17, SD = 2.32. Scale: 9 = A Great Deal, 7 = Quite a Bit, 5 = Some Influence, 3 = Very Little, 1 = Nothing.

Conclusions

The study findings are limited to the sample and therefore cannot be generalized to a population but the data does provide insight into blogging usage and acceptance among agricultural leadership students at [university]. The data suggests agricultural leadership students at [university] have low effort expectancy in relation to the task of blogging. The data indicates that students were typically low in their performance expectancy as to whether blogging could be used to improve educational outcomes. The findings also suggest students are more passive in their blogging experiences, as the data found students generally read blogs more than they wrote blogs. Student responses indicated on average they read blogs less than once a month. Students typically reported a preference for informal writing even if they did not blog.
Implications

Students’ self-efficacy in regards to blogging was low, indicating agricultural leadership students are not willing to engage in blogging as part of their educational process. Bandura (1993) found low self-efficacy resulted in a tendency to avoid tasks perceived as new or difficult. The study found agricultural leadership students low self-efficacy result in lowered behavioral intention to use blogging in an educational manner. Venkatesh et al. (2003) reported low performance expectancy results in low behavioral intention. The study found students with low belief in the performance benefit of blogging do not intend to blog. Venkatesh et al. (2003) found effort expectancy is not well-formed until after experience with the technology. Since the survey respondents had low behavioral intention, and thus not much familiarity with blogging, effort expectancy was neutral.

The data supports Andergassen et al.’s (2009) reporting of students’ negative perception of the benefits of educational blogging and Lenhart et al.’s (2010) findings of diminished blogging activities among young adults. Rhoades et al. indicated students are utilizing blogging in a minimal nature for classroom purposes. Agricultural leadership students do not believe in the use of blogging as an educational tool and are engaging blogging less for non-educational readings. Agricultural leadership students’ intentions toward the educational use of blogging could stem from a lack of awareness and familiarity with blogging, particularly its benefits towards their instructional outcomes.

Recommendations

Future research should examine agricultural leadership instructors’ attitudes and intentions towards educational blogging through the use of UTAUT. Researchers should also assess the effects of mandatory blogging in the agricultural leadership classroom on students’ learning and peer interactions. The research gathered can be used to compare classrooms using educational blogging to classrooms where the process is not implemented. A qualitative research study could be conducted to investigate in-depth agricultural leadership students’ attitudes and perceptions towards educational blogging and blogging in general. The data gathered from future research can help inform educators of the benefits of educational blogging and how to increase its practice in agricultural leadership classrooms.

Researchers should compare traditional online blogging acceptance among agricultural leadership students to the acceptance of newer forms of microblogging like Twitter. Twitter reduces the journal like nature of traditional blogging to 128 character statements and has a continually growing user base. Services like Twitter leave the traditional blog behind creating a warehouse of smaller blogs in which users can only comment so much at a time. Twitter should be thought of its writers renting a small apartment to state their ideas and comment on others’ ideas, rather than developing the full house approach of a traditional blog. Researchers should examine whether Twitter has affected student participation in traditional blogs and if it can be used effectively for educational purposes.

Future practice should reward teachers and teaching assistants utilizing blogging within the classroom and encouraging student use. Teacher training could be used to increase awareness among educators about the benefits of blogging. Educators must be able to convey the benefits of educational blogging in terms of its ease and benefit for student acceptance.
References


Exploration of Leadership Undergraduate Curricula: A Practical and Critical Review

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Abstract
With differences in names, department affiliations and course offerings, it has become important to know if undergraduate leadership programs across colleges and universities offer a common core curriculum that recognizes leadership core competencies. Analysis of the curricular design of 26 undergraduate Organizational Leadership programs in the United States using an approach suggested by Brungardt et al. (2006) suggests that there are still major differences in courses offered by Organizational Leadership programs. This research demonstrates that while there is a great diversity in program designs, there is a slow trend toward a greater standardization of leadership program curriculum through “topic areas” covered by different programs. This standardization will hopefully facilitate a greater recognition and legitimacy of a Leadership degree within academics and society in general.

Introduction
The last thirty years has witnessed the extraordinary development of both graduate and undergraduate leadership degree programs in universities and colleges across North America. This development is the outcome of a greater demand for leadership skills in many disciplines and in the workforce. According to Bass & Bass (2008), most organizations, including “businesses, governments, and nonprofit agencies, have increasingly made leadership a core concept in meeting the challenges of the twentieth century and the first decade of the new millennium” (p. 17). Watt (2003) adds that “Effective leaders who are skilled at critical thinking, communicating, and are capable of dealing with family problems, poverty, politics, ethics, interpersonal and international relations are needed at all levels of our society” (p.13). This trend can also be explained by a greater acceptance, both theoretically and practically, that leadership can be learned and taught (Bass & Avolio, 1999; Curtin, 2002; Extejt & Smith, 2009).

Since the creation of the first undergraduate program in the USA in the late 1980s (Boyce, 2006), there has been a rapid increase in undergraduate leadership programs in the United States. In February, 2012 there were almost 100 classroom based undergraduate Leadership programs registered in the database of the International Leadership Association (ILA – http:www.ila-net.org). This number increases
substantially if online programs and hybrid (online/classroom combined) programs are included in any analysis. Doh (as cited in Boyce, 2006) also reported finding that more than 60 percent of the top 50 United States business schools offer some coursework in leadership. This rapid development has contributed to a considerable debate over the most suitable model for educational leadership (Stewart, 2006). The debates cover all aspects of leadership education including its role, the type of curriculum that will better respond to the needs of students and the market, the best pedagogy, the profile of educators as well as how to integrate the program into the higher education framework. Today, one of the key challenges that leadership education must still address is the coherence of program designs. More specifically, the issue of an agreed upon core curriculum designed to ensure that programs cover core academic leadership content related to core leadership competencies.

Consistency across programs would help employers know that students graduating with a degree in leadership would have, at the very least, completed courses essential to the skills and knowledge related to the discipline. The assumption is that academic programs in any discipline provide a common core curriculum that ensures that graduates have covered specific topics representing a building block of competencies expected from the discipline. For example, the Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business’ (AACSB) guidelines are used to examine compliance with recognized standards by identifying minimum learning experiences in general management degree programs (Bridgeforth, 2005). These minimum standards are developed by many disciplines, from Social Work to Engineering, and serve as the basis for program accreditations.

The purpose of this paper is to identify, analyze and determine if a sample of existing undergraduate leadership programs offer a comprehensive curriculum that covers a proposed set of core competencies of leadership. Our study will focus on Organizational Leadership programs, by trying to identify if this group of programs with a common name provide a coherent curriculum. Using the model proposed by Brungardt, Greenleaf, Brungardt & Arensdorf (2006), the current study will classify courses in each topic areas to determine the spread of courses for each topic and determine if the names and “home departments” of programs have an influence on curricular design. We will first provide an overview of the debate related to core leadership competencies the development of leadership curriculum.

**Leadership Core Competencies and Leadership Curriculum Development**

Interest in leadership curriculum development is closely linked to the debate regarding which leadership competencies are essential to provide in an academic context. Competency frameworks serve as a prevalent method of identifying the requirements of leadership positions rather than job and/or task analysis techniques. A review of core leadership competency literature however, shows a lack of consensus with each service/sector developing competencies based on the uniqueness of their organizational context (Briscoe and Hall, 1999; Newsome, Catano, & Day, 2003; Lombardo & Eichinger, 2002) and thus, the development of leadership core curriculum poses several challenges because each discipline approaches leadership education from their specific perspective. Nonetheless, competency frameworks contribute to a better identification of the traits and characteristics commonly found in
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leadership, and to defining the general functions leaders must perform to make themselves and others in their organizations more effective.

Competency frameworks have been criticized as encouraging conformity rather than diversity at the individual level (Buckingham, 2001; Conger, 2005). Horey and Fallesen (2003) conclude in their study that leadership competency modeling is an inexact science and that many frameworks that present competencies by mixing functions and characteristics have structural inconsistencies. One argument suggests that attention should be focused on building individual strengths and differences, with a focus on outcomes rather than pre-determined behaviors (Bolden & Gosling, 2006). According to Bolden and Gosling (2006), attempts to identify core competencies of leadership show “substantial differences with regard to the relative importance placed on the moral, emotional and relationship dimensions of leadership” (p.147). Their research found that a limited version of ‘transformational leadership’ (Bass, 1985; Bass & Avolio, 1994), which considers some of the cognitive, affective and interpersonal qualities of leaders, is the model being promoted in most competency frameworks. In the academic context, the most important consideration in developing and establishing leadership competencies should be how they can be used to help develop a curriculum that will address those competencies.

Although the development of academic programs is influenced by many factors (institutional context, target clientele, positioning, etc.), a tendency towards standardization of a minimal core content through specific courses contributes to the establishment and greater recognition of a degree granted by different programs. While we may agree that leadership is contextual and situational, and that all leaders should not and cannot be trained the same way, we should also agree that all leaders are expected to have certain minimum skills. Brigeforth (2005) describes six elements as universal qualities of leadership: change, influence, credibility, systems, power and politics. Also, specific personal skills, communication, teamwork, conflict resolution, understanding organizations, as examples, are recognized as essential to leadership regardless of sector or context.

There is ongoing interest and research focused on the academic curriculum included in leadership programs. The development of clear standards for leadership programs speaks to the need to achieve greater legitimacy in higher education, to affirm its distinctiveness and to establish itself as a discipline (Perruci & McManus, 2013; Ritch, 2013). This has contributed to many studies and approaches aimed at identifying strategic questions for program and curriculum development, and topic areas that should be, or are, covered by leadership programs in the USA. Understanding and evaluating topic areas is an important step in identifying commonalities and differences between leadership programs, and is also an important step toward identifying specific courses taught in each topic area.

Approaches to Leadership Curriculum Development

Although there are no formal criteria nor consensus defining the boundaries of fields of study, “most established academic disciplines, from art and history to business management to sociology, have developed some agreed upon building blocks and standards by which nearly all universities and scholars adhere” (Mangan, as cited in Brungardt et al., 2006, p. 5). As such, most major fields of study have developed core curriculum that are standardized within the discipline to provide students with
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foundational skills and capacities that are expected with a degree by employers, graduate programs and accrediting organization (if applicable).

Questions regarding the curriculum that would be the most relevant to help students understand the concept and practice of leadership and to assist in the development of their leadership capacities are central to leadership education research. In other words, it is necessary to know whether students graduating from different undergraduate leadership programs will be exposed to the same academic information. In the quest to rationalize leadership curriculum, many approaches have been proposed. Watt (2003) uses Hosford’s (1973) curriculum development model to propose questions attending to the structuring of a core leadership curriculum. Bridgeforth (2005) uses an evolutionary perspective to propose a framing of curriculum for leadership training and development from six independent competencies: change, influence, credibility, systems, power and politics. The ILA (2006) has also proposed several guiding questions to assist the development of a coherent leadership program curriculum.

Research by Brungardt et al. (2006) compared and contrasted leadership majors in fifteen different programs from selected universities and colleges in the USA. Their study identified commonalities and differences relative to the curriculum profile, including course types, the sequence of courses, and course pedagogy. Their approach contributes to the identification and development of six specific “topic areas” covered by those different programs. The current research builds on the approach developed by Brungardt et al. (2006) by using the same six topic areas to identify similarities and differences between Organizational Leadership programs using a mix of quantitative and qualitative methods.

Methodology and Results

Bertelson and Goodboy (2009) suggested that departmental websites are oftentimes first points of contact for students gathering information. They went on to state that “an analysis of curricula offered on these websites will provide a baseline for exploring current curricular trends” (p. 265). Following this suggestion, a search of the International Leadership Association (ILA) website (http://www.ila-net.org/), which has a database of undergraduate Leadership programs was undertaken. This is not a complete or exhaustive listing of all undergraduate Leadership programs available worldwide but there are sufficient programs in the database for comparison.

Using filters available on the ILA database, the search was limited to American undergraduate major degree programs, which were identified as primarily classroom (vs. online) based. This search, in February of 2012, yielded a list of 73 programs, with 42 different degree names and derivations (Leadership, Leadership Studies, Organizational Leadership, and combined names: Leadership and …). The proportions of home department/school placements for these programs are displayed in Table 1, where results indicate a large variation in the institutional ‘home’ of Leadership programs.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Home Department</th>
<th>Proportion</th>
<th>Home Department</th>
<th>Proportion</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In order to attend to the issue of multiple degree names and to keep the programs being analyzed as consistent as possible, the search was further narrowed to programs that contained the words "Organizational Leadership" in the degree title. This further filtering resulted in a final list of 28 programs. Two programs were eliminated when a later search revealed that the programs had been removed from their institution websites and did not seem to be available anymore. The final list of institutions is available in the first column of Table 2.

An environmental scan utilizing the main department/program websites of the remaining 26 programs was undertaken to gather information regarding each particular degree program. Specific information regarding program requirements, required and elective course offerings, course descriptions, institutional general education requirements, and names of home departments was gathered for the degree program as well as for individual course offerings. Looking at curricular design by obtaining degree requirements and course descriptions mimics one way that students/advisors/employers may gather such information and should give a representative picture of the course content available from most institutions. Although course titles may be limited in describing all topics covered in a course, or teaching style, or desired learning outcomes, they provide basic information of minimal content that should be covered. Courses titles are also relevant in understanding learning outcomes.

Table 2 describes the academic ‘home’ of the program. All the home department/school names were listed and then grouped with programs having similar names. For example, all home department/school locations with the word “Leadership” were grouped together, as were all programs that contained the word “Business”. Several of the programs appear more than once in this list because these programs contained more than one of the chosen categories (e.g., Bradman is housed in the school of Business and Professional Studies) so the total exceeds the total number of institutions studied. These programs are noted with (***), prior to the institution name. One interesting finding was that, all programs whose home department contained the word “Leadership” offer B.S. degrees. The only exception was Fort Hays, which offers both B.S. and a B.A. degree streams. Only one program offered under a Professional Studies ‘home’ terminates in a B.S. degree (Anderson U Indiana), while all others result in either a Bachelor of Arts or a Bachelor’s degree. The potential differences in curricular design of the different degree programs will be discussed below. Interestingly, the “Miscellaneous” category in Table 2 shows homes with potentially very disparate academic focus from a College of Liberal Arts to a College of Engineering, Technology and Computer Science.
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Of the 26 programs included in the current study, 7 (26.9%) are associated with a Business school, 8 (30.7%) are associated with a Leadership department, 8 (30.7%) with Professional and Adult Studies, and 6 (23.1%) with miscellaneous programs. These results show that Organizational Leadership programs are not housed in a consistent location across different institutions. This confirms the multidisciplinary nature of Leadership programs and the natural tendency for the program to develop in a variety of academic settings.

Table 2 also includes information regarding the degree granted by each program. This information shows that there is a fairly even split between a Bachelor of Arts and Bachelor of Science in the investigated programs with three additional institutions offering a straight Bachelor’s degree in Organizational Leadership.

Table 2

Degree Name and Home Department by home

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Institution</th>
<th>Major</th>
<th>Home Department</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Leadership</strong></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fort Hays State University (BA)</td>
<td>B.A. in OL</td>
<td>Department of Leadership Studies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fort Hays State University (BS)</td>
<td>B.S. In OL</td>
<td>Department of Leadership studies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indiana Wesleyan University</td>
<td>B.S. In OL</td>
<td>Center for Life Calling and Leadership</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mountain State University</td>
<td>B.S. In OL</td>
<td>School of Leadership and Professional Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>National University</strong></td>
<td>B.S. In OL</td>
<td>School of Business, Mgmt Leadership and Business Admin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Our Lady of the Lake University</td>
<td>B.S. In OL</td>
<td>Leadership Studies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Purdue University North Central</strong></td>
<td>B.S. In OL</td>
<td>Department of Business and Organizational Leadership</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regent University</td>
<td>B.S. In OL</td>
<td>Organizational Leadership department</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Business</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Bradman University</strong></td>
<td>B.A. in OL</td>
<td>School of Business and Professional studies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brenau University</td>
<td>B.A. in OL</td>
<td>Department of Business administration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mid-American Nazarene University</td>
<td>B. in OL</td>
<td>Business Administration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>National University</strong></td>
<td>B.S. In OL</td>
<td>School of Business, Mgmt Leadership and Business Admin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Point Park University</td>
<td>B.A. in OL</td>
<td>School of Business</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Purdue University North Central</strong></td>
<td>B.S. In OL</td>
<td>Department of Business and Organizational Leadership</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Woodbury</td>
<td>B.A in OL</td>
<td>School of Business</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Professional and/or Adult Studies</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anderson University (South Carolina)</td>
<td>B. in OL</td>
<td>Adult and Professional Studies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anderson University Indiana</td>
<td>B.S. In OL</td>
<td>School of Adult Learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Baldwin-Wallace College</td>
<td>B.A. in OL</td>
<td>Adult and Continuing Education</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Institution</th>
<th>Degree</th>
<th>College/Program</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bethel University</td>
<td>B.A. in OL</td>
<td>College of Adult and Professional Studies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>***Bradman University</td>
<td>B.A. in OL</td>
<td>School of Business and Professional studies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eastern University</td>
<td>B.A. in OL</td>
<td>College of Graduate and Professional Studies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marquette University</td>
<td>B. in OL</td>
<td>College of Professional Studies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rockhurst University</td>
<td>B.A. in OL</td>
<td>School of Graduate and professional studies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Miscellaneous</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University of Cincinnati</td>
<td>B.A. in OL</td>
<td>Department of Psychology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indiana University/ Purdue University</td>
<td>B.S. in OL</td>
<td>College of Engineering, Technology and Computer Science</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Northern Kentucky University</td>
<td>B.A. in OL</td>
<td>College of Arts and Sciences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LaGrange College at Albany</td>
<td>B.A. in OL</td>
<td>Undergraduate Programs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Penn State University</td>
<td>B.S. in OL</td>
<td>College of Liberal Arts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wright State University</td>
<td>B.S. in OL</td>
<td>College of Education and Human Services</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: (***) indicates an institution included in more than one category

When summarizing the program requirements for each individual institution, elective courses were removed and only required courses were included in the current analysis. Summaries therefore included required courses for each program as well as the required courses included in any relevant institutional General Education requirement, which have been included because they are required in order to complete degree requirements. Required courses should represent, at the program and institutional level, the body of knowledge seen as critical to the specific subject matter of the chosen major. Elective courses would then represent areas of subject matter seen as non-critical but that will allow a student to increase their own knowledge base in a specific subject area. Since there is no guarantee that any individual student will take any particular elective course, these courses should not be included in an investigation of whether or not a particular curriculum is designed to ensure that a student will graduate with a certain skill set or is at least able to demonstrate reasonable knowledge of a certain skill set prior to graduation.

Both current researchers reviewed a list of all required courses and assigned each to one of the six topic areas used by Brungardt et al. (2006). These include: Theory/History, Skills/Behaviour, Context, Issues, Internship/Practicum, and Support (see Appendix 1). The only change made to the categorization scheme in the current project was to remove Public Speaking from the “Support” category and include it in the “Skills/Behaviour” category. In the instance where a course received two different numbers for categorization, the researchers discussed and reviewed the course description, and made a consensus decision. Table 3 details the total number of courses included under each of the six categories.

Courses included under the category Theory/History, which is the first topic area identified by Brungardt et al. (2006), are considered foundations courses and 13/26 programs offer foundations courses. Four programs (Our Lady of the Lake, Marquette, National U, and Woodbury) offer two courses in this area, while nine programs (Anderson U (S.C.), Bethel, Cincinnati, Fort Hays, La Grange, MA Nazarene, Marquette, Point Park and Purdue North) offer one course. No program offers more than two courses.
The mean of Theory/History courses is 0.65, with a standard deviation of 0.69 and a mode of 0. Less coverage is devoted to Theory/History than any other category investigated.

Skills/Behavior, which is the second topic area, contains those courses focused on general or specific leadership skills such as conflict and communication. Including General Education requirements, 26/26 programs require courses in some sort of skill development. The number of required skill development courses ranges from 1 to 9 per program, with a mean of 4.30, a standard deviation of 1.83 and a mode of 4. Rockhurst requires 9 courses, National U requires 8 and Woodbury requires 6. The remaining programs require 5 or fewer skill development courses.

One interesting finding is that only 13 of the 91 (14.3%) courses in the Skill/Behaviour area that are specific to communications skills are offered by the department in which the degree program is housed. Although it is always preferred to have an accredited expert in communication provide instruction for communication skills courses (see Engleberg, Emanuel, Van Horn & Boadary, 2008,), it should also be preferable to have instruction in such a critical area (Flauto, 1999; Kouzes & Posner, 2007; Morreale & Pearson, 2008; Northouse, 2013) be offered within a Leadership program. While it is clear that some of the 40 required communication skills courses included as program requirements are specifically focussed on leadership related communication skills content, course descriptions for the remaining 51 courses, included as part of a General Education requirement, show that the vast majority are not specifically designed with a leadership focus.

The most popular communication skills courses are devoted to writing, with 31/47 writing courses being included in a General Education requirement usually offered by an English department. Courses devoted to oral communication (speech, public speaking etc.) are outnumbered by written courses by more than 3 to 1 and all courses devoted to oral communication skills are offered outside the home department. In fact, only 3 programs (Purdue North, Rockhurst and Wright State) require oral communication skills courses as part of their major as opposed to being part of a General Education requirement. In contrast, 12 programs require at least one writing specific communications course as part of their major requirements. Emanuel (2007) stated: “There is no denying that written communication skills are essential, however, oral communication skills are equally essential in a literate and democratic society” (p.8). The curricular design of the overwhelming majority of the programs investigated clearly do not support the thoughts expressed by Emanuel.

The third topic area is labeled “Context” and includes courses that contextualize leadership from an organizational perspective, such as business, politics, profit, and/or non-profit. Every program except for Marquette requires at least one context course, with a high of seven required by Regent. The number of context courses ranges from 0 to 7, with a mean of 3.23, a standard deviation of 1.50 and a mode of 3. The context topic area includes a large variety of courses (86 courses are offered in this category by the 26 institutions), with a large number focusing on organizational studies and business management. Organizational Studies by itself is a vast field of study with many subfields that explores several aspects of organizations, and provides methods and perspectives from fields as diverse as management, economics, sociology, psychology or international relations. Organizational studies
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courses are more present in programs housed in non-business departments (19 out of 26) and include courses such as organizational behavior, organizational strategy, organizational change, organizational development, or theories. Few programs offer courses such as organizational psychology, organizational tools, or organizational research.

The second largest sub-category of courses in this category is dominated by business/management related courses. The seven programs housed in business departments provide 29 courses in this topic area, with a mean of 4.1. Most of these courses have a strong business focus. Courses vary from introduction to management or business, to strategic management, marketing, operations management, to project management. The link between leadership and organizational studies has been demonstrated by Parry, (2011) who notes strong conceptual and theoretical links between the two areas.

Analysis of the fourth topic area indicate that 23/ 26 programs require Issues courses, which are those courses that focus on specific issues such as ethics, cultural diversity, gender issues, law or public policy. Indiana Wesleyan, Our Lady of the Lake and Penn State are the only programs that do not require courses in this category. The number of issues course ranges from 0 to 7, with a mean of 2.58, a standard deviation of 1.75 and a mode of 3. Programs housed in business school and professional & adult studies show a strong offering of issue courses with respectively 24 and 18 courses. Courses in this category are less represented in programs housed in leadership departments.

Of the investigated programs, 19 of 26 require courses in the fifth topic area, practicum/capstone courses, with six of the programs requiring more than one course. Mountain State requires four, Bradman requires three and Indiana Wesleyan, Kentucky and both programs at Fort Hays require two practicum/capstone courses. This topic area consists of independent courses, which provide experiential hands-on learning through internship, practicum, or senior projects. Some of these courses involve supervised application based work, while others focus on individual projects designed to encourage integration of theories and practical application. The number of courses ranges from 0-4, with a mean of 1.08, a standard deviation of 0.98 and a mode of 1.

The final topic area discussed by Brungardt et al. (2006), covered required supporting courses, which are usually offered by outside departments to support the leadership curriculum (for example: statistics, technology, social research methods). Only 4 programs out of 26 do not require specific supporting courses in their curriculum. A qualitative breakdown/description in this area is not possible because of the inclusion of General Education requirements in some programs where students are required to take one (or more) from a list of courses/areas. Thus, the total required courses is possible to calculate, but exactly which course a student will take inside the Gen. Ed. requirement is not. This information is not included in the resulting analysis which attends to the specific requirements of a program.
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Discussion
Combining the information used to generate Tables 2 and 3, the data indicate that there is no apparent difference in the curriculum for B.S. programs compared to B.A. programs. That is, there is no more variability in the curriculum between the two designations than there is within each designation. In other disciplines, such as Psychology, that offer both degree programs, a B.S. usually requires a base of more science related courses such as Chemistry, Physics and/or Biology. We observe no such difference between B.A. and B.S. programs in the current sample. For example, Fort Hays, which is the only institution included in our analysis that offers both a B.A. and a B.S. designation, has a 10 credit-hour foreign language component required for their B.A. degree. This is replaced in their B.S. degree requirements by including an additional 10 credit hours to a free elective component. All other requirements remain the same across the two possible degrees. The data indicates that the only noticeable difference between the Bachelor’s, Bachelor of Arts and Bachelor of Science designations is a slightly heavier emphasis on Theory and History in the Bachelor’s programs, but given that there are only three such programs in our survey, no firm conclusions may be drawn due to the limited sample size available.

Table 3
Total courses in curriculum matrix

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Institution</th>
<th>Theory/His</th>
<th>Skills/Beh</th>
<th>Context</th>
<th>Issues</th>
<th>Practicum</th>
<th>Support</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Leadership</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fort Hays (BA)</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fort Hays (BS)</td>
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<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mountain State</td>
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<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
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<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
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<td>6</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Business</strong></td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Bradman</td>
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<td>5</td>
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<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
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<tr>
<td>Brenau</td>
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<td>8</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
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<tr>
<td>MA Nazarene</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>National U</td>
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<td>8</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
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<tr>
<td>Point Park</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
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<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Purdue North</td>
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<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
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<tr>
<td>Woodbury</td>
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<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Professional &amp;/or Adult Studies</strong></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Anderson U (S.C.)</td>
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<td>3</td>
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</tbody>
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LEADERSHIP UNDERGRADUATE CURRICULA

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Institution</th>
<th>1</th>
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<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
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<td>3</td>
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Four of the investigated programs (Indiana Wesleyan, Mountain State, Kentucky and La Grange) teach all required courses out of their program through their home department. Four more (Bethel, Eastern, Marquette and Woodbury) teach more than 80% of their required courses, while 15 of 26 programs teach more than 50% of their required courses. Out of a total of 407 required courses offered in the 26 programs and remembering that no elective courses were included, 198 or 48.6% are offered by the home department. The breakdown across categories shows that 86.7% of Theory/History courses are offered by the home department, while only 35.1% of Skills/Behaviour courses are. Context courses (80.2%), Issues courses (68.7%) and Practicum/Capstone courses (100%) all show that a majority are being offered in the home department. The final category indicates that only 14% of Support courses are offered within Leadership programs. While offering required support courses outside the home department may make sense from an academic expertise standpoint, the fact that 64.9% of Skills/Behaviour courses, 19.8% of Context courses and 31.3% of Issues courses may be offered without a specific Leadership focus is an area that future research should attend to.

The current research also shows that most programs are covering the defined topic areas but there is significant variability across the programs in terms of areas of coverage, home department, communication skills coverage, practicum requirements, context and issue coverage. The amount of variability in required curricular elements makes it extremely difficult to ascertain whether or not a student graduating from Institution A is covering the same core concepts as a student graduating from Institution B. In fact, the evidence as displayed suggests that students, in general, do not receive equal coverage in core topic areas across the investigated programs. This indicates that students from differing institutions are graduating with the same degree ‘name’, but they are not being exposed to the same core curricular content and thus may not have had the opportunity to acquire the same knowledge base.

**Limitations of the Current Study**

There are undoubtedly other programs that fit the ‘search parameters’ that are not included in the present study. One limitation of the current research protocol was that it restricted the search to only those programs that have entered their information into the ILA database. There are also a number of programs that were mislabelled (program label on the ILA database did not correspond to the program title on the institution website) or misidentified (e.g. a program identified as ‘online’ on the website,
that was primarily ‘classroom based’) in the database, which would not have allowed the provided filters to correctly identify a relevant program. No program was intentionally eliminated from our investigation except those mentioned previously.

One further limitation attends to the data obtained from departmental websites. This information is limited to the amount of detail contained in course names and course catalog descriptions. Obtaining course outlines is a further step that may be used in a follow-up phase of research but is one that will most likely result in drastically reduced sample size. Since course outlines would have to be obtained for every required course, if a course outline could not be obtained, the entire program may have to be eliminated from the study. Course names and course descriptions however, should provide an adequate description of the course content and is also the only information typically available online from most institutions, which is the information prospective and current students, advisors and employers have ready access to.

**Conclusion and Recommendations**

The current study also confirms the multidisciplinary focus of the field. The program design models that exist today show that leadership can be immersed in many different fields of study, and confirm that leadership programs across institutions are not consistent in their academic focus. The review shows a field that is still too open and unfocused (Stewart, 2006) with disparities regarding core courses, programs home departments, and how different topic areas are covered by programs. Current findings also confirm many aspects of the research conducted by Brungardt et al. in 2006, and show that at the present time, many of the issues they discussed remain the same. It also clearly demonstrates that students graduating with Organizational Leadership Degrees from different programs are not being exposed to the same academic content regardless of teaching styles, class size or dynamics. As it is impossible for any academic program to guarantee that any given student will graduate with the exact same skills and proficiency as any other student, we look instead at the academic information that students are exposed to. This information provides the basis for proposed learning outcomes for graduates and is the information commonly used by accrediting bodies in evaluation of academic programs. However, a continual mapping of leadership programs and a careful study of the curriculum content, through better defining and refining the proposed Brungardt et al. “topic areas” that programs should cover, is an important step toward identifying a core curriculum with identifiable courses.

The challenge of identifying core curriculum for leadership education is understandable because of the many versions and ideas of core competencies for leadership that are available in the literature, and also the field of leadership education is still in development. Perhaps it is time for Leadership educators to collaborate on the establishment of an agreed upon set of core competencies and concrete learning outcomes for leadership undergraduate programs. Educators could also discuss potential curricula differences between an Organizational Leadership designation and a Leadership designation, since presumably the curriculum should differ between the two. While there is little chance that these core competencies would be agreed upon by all Leadership educators and/or researchers, it would provide a solid foundation for discussion and may also stimulate further research in this extremely important area. This type of research would continue to inform curricular design in current and future programs in the continually evolving discipline of Leadership education.
LEADERSHIP UNDERGRADUATE CURRICULA

Once a minimal set of competencies has been established, interested programs could review their curricular requirements and identify deficiencies in the coverage of specific topic areas across their programs at the course level. By recognizing some sort of standard for required core competency courses, we would assist the discipline in establishing a recognizable and distinct academic identity that, as has been observed, is lacking in the current academic environment. This standardization will facilitate a greater recognition and legitimacy of a Leadership degree within academics and potentially more importantly, within society in general.

References

10.1080/03634520701858230
Appendix 1
Course Categories and Breakdown as proposed by Brungardt, Greenleaf, Brungardt & Arensdorf (2006)

1. Theories/History
   a. Examination of leadership theories and historical foundation
2. Skills/Behaviors
   a. Courses that focus on a particular leadership skill or set of skills
      b. i.e. Conflict management, strategic planning, decision making
         i. General leadership skills
         ii. Change making
         iii. Communication (including speech)
         iv. Critical inquiry
         v. Motivation
         vi. Conflict management
         vii. Decision making
   b. i.e. organization, business, community, non-profit
      i. Organizational behavior
      ii. Leadership
      iii. Groups/teams
      iv. Society/community
      v. International perspectives
      vi. Business and social change movements
      vii. Politics,
      viii. Non-profit
      ix. Cultural studies
3. Context
   a. Courses that study leadership in a particular context
4. Issues
   a. Courses that directly relate to a specific issue
   b. i.e. Ethics, gender, law
      i. Ethics
      ii. Gender issues
      iii. Diversity
      iv. Law and policy
      v. Service and volunteerism
      vi. Supervision, public policy
      vii. Activism
      viii. Human resources
      ix. Leadership development and training
5. Practicum
   a. Usually independent courses like internships that include hands-on experience in leadership
      i. Internship, practicum, senior project

6. Support
   a. Usually offered by outside departments that support the leadership curriculum

7. General Comments
   a. Remarks about the degree program as a whole

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From the Gridiron: NCAA National Championship
Head Football Coaches Talk Leadership

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ABSTRACT
The purpose of this qualitative phenomenological case study was to explore the leadership experiences of NCAA national championship head football coaches. This study concentrated on the head football coaches’ perspective about the leadership qualities they believed to be essential for winning a national championship. In addition, the coaches’ perceptions were investigated to examine their leadership vision and leadership philosophy for building successful teams to determine if the leadership philosophies of successful coaches may be applicable in other leadership settings, such as business and educational models. There is limited research that specifically addresses the winning qualities of NCAA national championship head football coaches. The following prevailing themes emerged as a result of the data analysis and a review of the literature: Essential Leader Qualities and Leader as a Visionary.

Introduction
In college football, head coaching represents a high profile and stressful occupation. College head football coaches, just like business and educational leaders, are not only defined by their ability to lead successful organizations, but also on their ability to win championships (Eichelberger & Levinson, 2007; Finley & Fountain, 2010; Kelly, 2010). The leadership qualities required to lead a college football team to a national championship lends much to the enhancement of leadership in all professions. In fact, much can be gained in educational and business leadership from the leadership philosophies of NCAA National Championship football coaches (Maresco, 2007; Parks, 2006).

The need for coaches to better understand the dynamics of leadership and winning is evident when one considers the typical turnover rate of college head football coaches at the end of every season (Curtis 2004; Finley & Fountain, 2010; Simers, 2007). Head football coaches are constantly under pressure to win and often on the hot-seat for not winning the championship (Curtis, 2004; Finley & Fountain, 2010; Simers, 2007). They are required to perform in a complex and dynamic environment of unparalleled
transparency, instantaneously judged by millions of fans and critics. In major college football, winning the championship is the litmus test for success and the criteria for longevity and job stability (Curtis, 2004; Simers, 2007; Trubey, 2009; Voight & Carroll, 2006). Gone are the days of just having a “winning football program.” In today’s sports arena, alumni, boosters, and fans demand championships (Curtis, 2004).

For colleges and universities, winning the “National Championship” in football is a highly profitable and prestigious event. According to the Sports Business Journal (citing from the Equity in Athletics Disclosure Act, 2008), there were over 10 highly successful major college football teams that generated more than $50 million in revenues in 2008 (Trubey, 2009). Moreover, within the last five years, head coaching salaries have increased so significantly, that many are among the highest paid public officials in their states; nearly all are paid more than their university presidents (Weinberg & Upton, 2007) and all are paid more than their state governors. In the 2008 football season, there were 56 Division I head football coaches earning over $1 million per year (USA Today, 2009). With so much money and prestige on the line, it’s easy to understand why college head football coaches are the focus of much attention and more often than not, getting fired for not winning (Curtis, 2004; Simers, 2007).

This study of successful leadership qualities in championship football coaches lends much to the theoretical study of leadership in business and education. Business and educational leaders could benefit greatly from the leadership principles of championship football coaches; in fact there has been much research on this leadership paradigm within the last ten years (Carroll, Garin, & Roth, 2010; Larson, 2009; Parks, 2009).

There has been little research specifically isolating the leadership perspective of national championship head football coaches to date. Because of the paucity of research, this qualitative phenomenological case study approach provided the best method of studying this phenomenon. Although previous paradigm theories have been very beneficial in the enhancement of sports leadership, there remained a gap in the literature isolating leadership qualities and actions of championship head football coaches.

**Literature Review**

Leadership can have dramatic impact on the performance of a sports team and is a vital force for organizational success (Bennis & Nanus, 1985). In fact, Zaccaro, Rittman and Marks (2001) proposed that leadership is the central driver of team effectiveness. Many experts in the “world of sports” spend countless hours seeking to understand the phenomenon of winning team championships. Current scholars agree that effective team leadership may be the primary indicator of team success. “Indeed, we would argue that effective leadership processes may represent perhaps the most critical factor in the success of organizational teams” (Zaccaro et al., 2001, p. 452). Conversely, ineffective leadership is frequently seen as a major obstacle to team effectiveness.

Historically, leadership has had many definitions based on its context and relationship to various organizations (Bass, 1990; Bennis, 2007; Burns, 1978; Vroom & Jago, 2007). Barnard (1968) defined leadership as the capacity of the superior to persuade or influence a subordinate group to follow a particular course of action. Barrow (1977) defined leadership as “the behavioral process of influencing
individuals and groups towards set goals” (p. 232). Definitions of leadership are important because they highlight the necessary interaction between the leader and group members while emphasizing the vision of a leader on goals and objectives.

An extensive literature review was conducted to help describe the leadership role required of championship football coaches. Leadership qualities that are essential to head football coaches are grounded in many of the theoretical underpinnings of historical leadership paradigms such as; the Great Man Theory (Carlyle, 1849; Galton, 1869), the Behavioral Approach (Crust & Lawrence, 2006; Halpin & Winer, 1957; Hemphill & Coons, 1957), Situational Leadership (Hersey & Blanchard, 1977), and Transformational Leadership (Bass, 1985; Judge & Piccolo, 2004). Sports leadership borrows much from these historical paradigms of leadership theory (Byrne, 2005: Crust & Lawrence, 2006, Northouse, 2004) in that coaching encompasses many characteristic of these theories.

A sports specific literature review was also conducted to help the reader understand leadership from the athletic team perspective. Research on coaching leadership primarily focused on one of the following approaches to leadership theories: (a) personality traits of the coach, (b) leadership behaviors of the coach, and (c) situational coaching leadership (Chelladurai, 1990; Horn, 1992; Murray, 1986). The majority of research on coaching effectiveness presumes that athletes' performance and behavior, as well as their general psychological and emotional well-being are greatly influenced by their coach (Chelladurai, 1990; 1993).

Conceptual Framework

Previous studies attempted to better understand and define sports-specific leadership by examining coaching behaviors, personalities, and other related variables of leadership. The most noteworthy is the Multidimensional Model of Leadership (MML) as developed by Chelladurai (1978, 1990, & 1993) was used to provide a conceptual framework for this study. According to Chelladurai’s model, leadership effectiveness is a function of three interacting aspects of leader behavior: actual, preferred, and required behavior. Performance outcomes and athletes’ satisfaction are dependent on the congruence between these factors. Positive performance outcomes occur when there is a match between the leader’s actual behaviors, group members preferred leader behavior, and the required (prescribed) behavior in relation to the situation. Chelladurai’s (1984, 1990, 1993) model stressed the importance of “fit or alignment” with high levels of satisfaction, such as individual performance and team performance, predicted when there is congruence between actual, required and preferred behaviors.

Methods

The sample for this study included eight head football coaches who had won at least one national championship at the NCAA level as the head coach. The coaches represented the highest three levels of NCAA competition. All were male coaches who ranged in age from 35 to 78. Their head coaching experience ranged from 5 to 44 years and the average years of head coaching experience was 17 years. In terms of success, there were 14 NCAA National Championships represented in the study with a 70% plus overall winning record achieved by all participants. Five of the eight participants’ had won more than one championship and one head coach actually won the national championship again following this
study. In terms of success, the coaches in this study represented a rich and successful panel of experts and were quite developed in terms of coaching experience and national prominence. Per Institutional Review Board procedures, permission to conduct this study was obtained from the collegiate head football coaches. Only head football coaches at the targeted institutions participated in the study. There were no college athletes included in this study. Since contact between high school and college head football coaches is not regulated by the NCAA, there were no conflicts of interest or possible NCAA violations which conflicted with the interview process during this study. Participation for this study was strictly voluntary and all of the head coaches signed a participation consent form prior to the study, all agreed to be interviewed, and understood that the interview was recorded and used for research purposes.

Data were collected through the use of in-depth, semi-structured interviews. Interviews lasted approximately one hour and were recorded using a digital recording device. Each interview was professionally transcribed for reliability and accuracy (Creswell, 2009). Standard open-ended questions were employed to allow for free and open responses that were designed to capture the respondents’ perceptions in their own words. Pseudonyms were used for the names of the participants and the names of players, and/or places (i.e. universities and/or colleges) were also altered to further disguise the identity and affiliation of the participants.

Data were analyzed using the grounded theory (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) approach which included the constant comparative method with inductive analysis as the principal technique for analyzing the data (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). Emerging themes and subthemes were recorded on a data spread sheet, which included participant quotes as it related to the theme or sub theme. Once the analysis of each interview was coded and complete, a cross-comparison analysis phase was used to inductively build abstractions across all eight interviews. The final step in the data analysis process involved interpreting and giving meaning to data from the patterns and connections (Hatch, 2002).

Merriam (2009) contended that qualitative research has trustworthiness when there has been rigor in carrying out the study in an ethical manner. Credibility was addressed by using member checks, peer review, and by reaching a “point of saturation” in data. To address reliability, a case study database was used to organize, code, and document the data collected from each interview. Transferability was accomplished through the use of thick rich descriptions of participant quotes.

Findings and Discussion
The results of the constant comparative, inductive and cross case analysis revealed two distinct thematic categories and 11 accompanying sub themes. The two main themes identified through the data analysis were Essential Leader Qualities and Leader as a Visionary. There were four subthemes identified that supported the Essential Leader Qualities and five subthemes identified that supported the Leader as a Visionary theme. Specifically, the leadership qualities espoused by the participants include the following: (a) integrity/honesty/trust, (b) compassion, (c) conviction, (d) and leading by example. The characteristics of the visionary leader communicated by the participants focused on following: (a) hiring
assistant coaches, (b) setting expectations/parameters, (c) shared sense of belief, (d) shared ownership/delegating responsibility, and (e) application to business/educational model. Detailed discussions of these themes are included below.

**Theme 1: Essential Leader Qualities**

The participants spoke freely about the leader qualities they perceived as important for leading their teams. In this study, the four most common leadership qualities revealed by the coaches related to the social tendencies of integrity/honesty/trust, men of compassion, courage of convictions, and leading by example. The coaches in this study believed that integrity, trust, and compassion were the qualities of leadership most beneficial to their success. It was very evident during the interview process, that every participant in this study was compassionate about their organization. They also believed that being a man of conviction enabled them to create a compelling vision. They encouraged the heart of their organization by creating a compassionate family atmosphere that facilitated a warm and nurturing environment conducive to winning. They believed that the head coach must be strongly convicted to his program vision; without this his players will never buy-in to program values. The coaches were masters at selling their vision and for creating a shared sense of belief so their teams believed that they “would” win the championship. They were so confident and held such strong convictions in their beliefs, that their players had no choice but to buy-in to program values and team goals.

The first sub-theme, *integrity/honesty/trust* was developed as coaches commented on the importance of relationship values being established early in the team process. The coaches believed that communication was critical for creating an environment of trust and respect and that integrity was the foundation for establishing an open relationship between coach/athlete and program. The coaches believed that to lead in any organization, you have to first take the time to establish trust-based, meaningful relationships with your team members. The coaches (HC) believed that it was impossible to lead without a solid moral and ethical foundation in your leadership style. In fact, Participant (HC4) referred to integrity as the most important quality for leading and stated:

> Number one without integrity, I don’t think you’re going to make it. I mean people have got to trust you. People have got to believe you and you’ve got to be honest. It gets down to honesty and integrity, doing the right thing, and it will catch up with you if you don’t.

It was also suggested that effective leaders have high standards for all they lead. Participant (HC3) believes this to be an essential quality and referred to honesty and trust as number one in his leader style. He said:

> Well I think that -- I go back to number one, that’s up front and honest in all aspects, from the top down. If you start -- if you don’t follow through on what you say, if you’re not totally honest with people, you’re going to lose them.
Second, the importance of being a “man of compassion” and establishing relationships with players and coaches was considered an important leadership quality. Participant (HC1) believed that compassion was one of his best attributes as a leader and stated:

Most leaders, who’ve been successful, were men who loved the men working under them. You’ve seen some people that love the people above them but they treat the ones under them bad. I think great leaders; they are very compassionate towards the lowest man in their field. And they seem to have that great flair of compassion for others.

Participant (HC1) believed that you build relationships by showing compassion and love for your fellow man and that it was his purpose in life by saying, “So people don’t care about how much you know until they know about how much you care.” Participant (HC6) believed that compassion went both ways and said, “They have to care enough about you that they don’t want to disappoint you.”

Third, being convicted in your philosophy of leadership and having the courage to stand up for your belief, was perceived as essential for leading a team. Participant (HC4) called it “courage of convictions” and believed that having the courage to stay the course in your vision and being able to “communicate” that vision was critical for success.” Participant (HC5) believed that being consistent in your convictions was imperative and said, “I think that’s kind of what leadership is, you can’t be all over the map. You can’t be one day saying this is important and the next day saying that’s important. You’ve got to believe in what you’re doing.”

Fourth, the coaches believed that leading by example by modeling the way was critical to leadership. The coaches in this study believed in modeling the way and demonstrated an unfaltering enthusiasm as the head coach, to lead by example. The head coaches expected their players and coaches to be loyal, committed, and dedicated to the team; but in turn they believed that it was important that the team saw this in them as well. They developed ownership and established a shared sense of pride within their programs by giving their coaches and players a voice in the direction of their program. In doing this, the coaches in this study encouraged and enabled their teams to act, while still setting a positive example by modeling the way. Participant (HC3) said it best in that, “Teams with great pride are hard to beat.”

Theme 2: Leader as a Visionary
The second theme explored the leader as a visionary. Having a leadership vision is an essential component for leading a national championship football program. Leaders must have a vision. Heathfield (2012) defined leader vision as someone who has the ability to share a dream and provide direction that other people want to follow. Leadership vision must go beyond a written mission statement and vision statement. The vision of leadership must permeate the workplace and be manifested by the actions, values, beliefs, and goals of the organization’s leader (Heathfield, 2012). The coaches believed that having a leadership vision was imperative for providing direction and purpose for their program. Participant (HC1) defined vision quite simply as, “How you want it to look.” Participant (HC7) defined vision as a portrait for how you wanted the end result to be. He said, “I think it’s important that you do have a vision as to what you want the end result to be and that you’re able to
communicate that vision.” By investigating the coaches’ perspective on leadership vision, the research provided a clearer understanding of how the head coaches’ vision related to the essential leadership qualities required for being a successful head coach.

The first sub-theme, hiring assistant coaches was the top priority. The coaches indicated that the most important part of their vision plan was hiring the best assistant coaches they could find, and then letting them do their jobs to the best of their ability. Participant (HC7) stated:

I think from a leadership standpoint there are probably two or three basic fundamentals that you have to subscribe to or at least in my opinion to have success. The first being, you’re only going to be as good as the people you surround yourself with.

Participant (HC4) stated: “So my success I would credit it to number one, if I put number one - I’d say hiring assistant coaches who are the best.” Participant HC1 added, “One of my favorite things to talk about is Proverbs 27:17, It’s Iron Sharpens Iron, so as one man sharpens another. And what that means is, you need people that make you better.”

Second, the participants believed that setting the expectations for their coaches and team was critical to their vision plan. Participant (HC4) stated:

Well I think one of the big things I always did, I hired the best people I could hire and then left them alone. Set the parameters, this is me, this is what we want to accomplish and now you all do it your way. But get it done.

Participant (HC7) contributed his success to, “The example we set, the talent we recruited, having the ability to communicate and then being consistent in our demands, and our expectations.” Participant (HC8) confirmed by adding, “Everybody knows what direction we’re going to go and everybody knows what I expect.”

Third, having belief or a shared sense of belief was essential to leading a championship program. The coaches believed that, “without belief, winning was impossible.” Participant (HC5) said that belief started with the head coach and added:

I don’t think there’s any magic to it. It’s really a combination of things, but if I had to say one thing, I would probably start and end quite simply with belief. That if you don’t believe it, if you as a head coach don’t believe in winning that national championship, I will guarantee you; you’re not going to win a national championship.

Fourth, the coaches contended that shared ownership and/or delegating responsibility were significant in defining and articulating team values. The coaches believed that delegating responsibility to their staff, coaches and players enhanced a sense of shared ownership. Participant (HC5) perceived it as giving ownership to his staff, and said, “I think being a good leader; part of it is utilizing your staff and encouraging them to take an active position of leadership themselves.” Participant (HC3) stated, “My
way of or method of leadership is team oriented, from a coaching staff and I really believe in giving my assistant coaches as much responsibility as they can handle.” Participant (HC4) concurred by stating: “Yes, without interfering. I’ve always believed the thing about, give the people a responsibility and then get out of the way.” Participant (HC5) concluded by adding, “Sharing ownership establishes a since of pride within the total program, and in my opinion, teams with great pride are hard to beat.”

The last sub-theme, and an important purpose for this research, relates to the applicability of the participants leadership vision to other leadership settings. The coaches believed their team leadership philosophies would be very beneficial in other leadership settings. In fact, Participant (HC7) who is currently retired as a head football coach and now an owner/manager of a business corporation said:

I’m in the business world now and I have to follow what I told my players for all those years. There is no question that absolutely the same principles apply; honesty, work ethic, processes, leadership and communication, all those things, are exactly the same.

Participant (HC4), who is also retired and now a highly sought after motivational speaker at corporate and leadership seminars added this, “My answer would be the same. I’ve had many men talk to me at conventions and they have told me – Hey, I run my business like you do, I read your book and I do the same thing.” Participant (HC5) added:

I think there are certainly some similarities there; it’s all about establishing that shared sense of ownership. If you’re running a company and your employees share the same sense of ownership that you have, your company is probably going to be pretty successful.

Participant (HC6) summed it up by saying, “Everyone must buy into the vision, no matter what you sell.” He added, “I think it’s people oriented, I don’t have any doubt that the guy over at the biggest business in town, if his staff has not bought into his vision, they’re not going to be very good.” Participant (HC4) summed up this study best by saying, “And so how does it compare to business - the same!”

Discussion

Leadership in college football cannot be aligned to a single theory of leadership. However, the findings of this study are closely aligned to the principles of the MML (Chelladurai, 1979, 1990, 1993) indicating that a high degree of team success in college football was related to the coach’s motivational tendencies of social support and positive feedback. Coaching at any level is dynamic and successful coaches are continuously looking for new and different ideas to improve their leadership skills. The findings from this study indicated that successful football coaches borrow from many of the historical leadership paradigms, because understanding the role of leadership theory yields the likelihood of successful results (Smith & Piele, 1989).

Successful leaders have the ability to make fundamental changes in an organization by building relationships. Emen (2007) supposed that a leader must first encourage the heart if he wanted people to follow. The most successful leaders, regardless of setting are the ones in which the followers do not want to disappoint their leaders. The coaches in this study were consistent in that they believed that
building relationships was their best quality. The coaches added that they had minimal turnover in their coaching staffs. They believed this was directly related to a compassionate leadership model in which they developed loyalty in their followers by encouraging the heart and modeling the way.

The first theme, *Essential Leader Qualities*, identified an emphasis on qualities that build relationships. The findings of this study were similar to previous research, indicating that successful sports teams that have a coach-athlete relationship built on mutual trust, respect, cooperation, and commitment, are more likely to experience higher levels of team success (Chelladurai, 1979, 1990, 1993; Chelladurai & Saleh, 1980; Jowett & Chaundy, 2004; Turman, 2003; Williams & Widmeyer, 1991). Edington (1995) concluded in a study on leadership, that the characteristics most admired in leaders were honesty, forward-looking capability, inspiration, and competence. This study on college football, reflected a high degree of consistency with the empirical research, indicating that the four most important leader qualities revealed by the coaches included those qualities most closely aligned to the coach-athlete relationship and vision. The coaches also indicated that modeling the work ethic was a major fundamental component of their leadership style. Northouse (2004) referred to leading by example as “out front leaders” who make clear the emerging values and norms.

The head coaches also believed that being a man of compassion was important to effective leadership. Judge and Piccolo (2004) and Bass (1985) concluded that leaders, who build a supportive climate by listening to individuals in a caring and nurturing manner, develop closer relationships in their followers. All of the coaches in this study seemed to have that great flair of compassion for members of their organization. The coaches also believed that it was important to be convicted in the direction of their program and all emphasized the importance of sticking to their beliefs during turbulent times. Avolia and Gibbons (1998) concluded that successful leaders were self-determined and possessed a sense of identity by acting as change agents for new program goals. Participant HC4 called it “courage of convictions” and believed that having the courage to stay the course was critical to his success. Lastly, leading by example and modeling the work ethic were important concepts for the head coaches. Northouse (2004) referred to leading by example as “out front leaders” who make clear the emerging values and norms by modeling the way so the people will understand their role and purpose in the organization.

The second theme, *Leader as a Visionary*, aligned with Bass’s (1985) Transformational Leadership and spoke to the importance of vision in which the leader empowers followers to higher levels of performance. These findings revealed how the head coaches helped their teams understand priorities and new directions for increasing commitment and purpose for team success (Yukl, 1998). Judge and Piccolo (2004) referred to empowerment as inspirational motivation, and described the leader as someone who inspires followers to become committed to a shared vision by communicating high expectations. This refers to leaders who articulate a strong vision based on ideals and values thereby generating enthusiasm, instilling confidence, and producing inspiration among followers. This is consistent with the practices of the coaches in this study for setting expectations, delegating
responsibility, empowering ownership, and a shared sense of belief which emerged as important subthemes for leader vision in this study.

Hiring assistant coaches was the most important component of establishing and implementing a new vision. The coaches capitalized on what Schein (2004) terms as an "infusion of outsiders" (p. 306) to establish new program goals and values. The head coaches believed that it was essential to hire coaches who shared their vision. The head coaches also emphasized the importance of empowering others to get the job done by setting program expectations and then developing ownership by delegating responsibility throughout the entire program. Schein (2004) and Schroeder (2010) indicated that by sharing ownership and delegating responsibility, the leader helped team members assume responsibility for new directions. Finally, all of the participants believed that it was impossible to win without first having "belief" in every aspect of their program.

A secondary objective of this study was to determine if the findings of this study regarding leadership strategies of championship head football coaches would be applicable to other leadership settings. The findings of this study are congruent with research indicating that leadership strategies of national championship coaches are highly respected and regarded as effective leadership models for other settings (Edington, 1995; Parks, 2006; Maresco, 2007). In fact, many of the coaches involved in this study are currently highly sought after as motivational speakers at numerous corporate and leadership seminars. In addition, the findings of this study align with the research indicating that leadership strategies of national championship coaches are highly regarded and respected as effective leadership models for other settings (Parks, 2006; Maresco, 2007). For example, Participant HC4 maintained, “I’ve had many men talk to me at conventions and they have told me hey, I run my business just like you do, I read your book and I do the same thing.”

Overall, the head coaches believed that in order to be an effective leader, regardless of setting, that the leader must first develop higher-order needs (Maslow, 1968) within the organization by appealing to the values, morals, and ideals of the individuals within the organizations. The research was clear that these qualities were essential for leadership (Edington, 1995; Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Turman, 2009). The responses to research question one produced parallel finding to Bass’s (1985) Transformational Leadership model including the importance of individual consideration and concern. The coaches believed that it was essential to create an environment of trust and respect by being a man of integrity. They spoke clearly about the importance of building trust and showing compassion for their coaches and players, and all believed that it was impossible to lead without integrity. They believed that in order to lead in any organization; you have to first take the time to establish trust-based, meaningful relationships with your team members. The research also indicated that relationship values were the most important and often the first values established by head coaches when taking over a new program (Turman, 2009). This study is consistent with this research, indicating that the relationship values of honesty, integrity, and trust arose to the forefront as program priorities for the head coaches.
**Recommendations/Implications**

This study attempted to add to the literature by isolating leader behaviors and program models utilized by highly successful head football coaches that facilitated championship performances. The finding of this study revealed that the leadership model of championship head football coaches is consistent with the leadership paradigms of previous literature. The coaches in this study can at least be confident that they are doing it the right way!

The final synopsis for this study indicates that the program philosophies of the championship head coaches are amazingly similar. Therefore, the findings from this study may very well bring to light a proven usable program model for all organizational leaders in the future. Leadership at any level could view this model as an outline to help lead their organizations. Further research would be required to enlighten this model in more detail, but the benefits are endless.

As a result of this phenomenological case study, one recommendation for future research would be a quantitative study to further refine and distinguish the proven leadership qualities and program models revealed in this study. The overall findings may be similar, but the description of the leadership strategies may be different and more detailed. For example, it would be beneficial to further isolate and describe in more detail the specific team building strategies revealed by the championship head football coaches in this study. These strategies could be isolated and utilized as a teaching tool that other organizations can model. Leaders at any level or setting could benefit from a more detailed analysis of these successful leadership programs.

**References**


Leader-member Exchange, Cognitive Style, and Student Achievement

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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to explain how the quality of teacher-student relationships and the gap of cognitive styles between teachers and students impact student achievement. The population for the study was comprised of 11 career and technical education (CTE) teachers and 210 CTE students, representing six disciplines within CTE. The study occurred in a suburban high school in western North Carolina. Leader-member Exchange (LMX) theory and Adaption-innovation theory guided the research. Dyadic intensity between teachers and students predicts the quality of teacher-student relationships from both the teacher’s perspective and the student’s perspective. The quality of teacher-student relationships from the teacher’s perspective predicts the quality of teacher-student relationships student’s perspective. Further research is recommended to understand how leader-member exchange manifests in classroom settings and impacts student achievement.

Introduction

Is a teacher a leader? Answers to this question might vary, depending on one’s personal philosophy and definition of leadership. Dewey (1933) posited that teachers are intellectual leaders of a social group. Further, in considering the commonly accepted notion that leadership is a process that involves influence, teachers are leaders given the manner in which they influence students in their classrooms. As Dewey (1933) noted, “Everything the teacher does, as well as the manner in which he does it, incites the child to respond in some way or another, and each response tends to get the child’s attitude in some way or the other” (p. 59). Whether recognized or not, teachers emerge as leaders in classrooms, which are reflective of a quickly and ever changing society (Rallis, Rossman, Phelgar, & Abeille, 1995).

Numerous practitioners have examined the leadership of teachers (Berry, Johnson, & Montgomery, 2005; Childs-Bowen, Moller, & Scrivner, 2000; Crowther & Olsen, 1997; Frost, 2003; Frost & Durrant, 2003; Harris, 2003; Smylie, 2005; York-Barr & Duke, 2004). These investigations, however, viewed the leadership roles that teachers assume within their schools and among peers. Evident throughout the
scholarly literature is the lack of agreement on teacher leadership and the corresponding ambiguity of the definition of this concept. A general lack of empirical research related to teacher leadership is evident as well (Harris, 2003; York-Barr & Duke, 2004). From the literature, it is clear that concepts of teacher leadership typically focus on activities including shared decision making, idea sharing, mentoring other teachers, and serving in roles such as department head or lead teacher, among others. The present study employs a different description of teacher leadership.

Borrowing from Katyal and Evers (2004), the researcher operationally defines teacher leadership as the influence of teachers on students in terms of instructional guidance. This definition of teacher leadership allows the researcher to expand on the influential relationship between teachers and students in the present study. While there is little research of teacher leadership in this regard, some (Alexander, Elsom, Means, & Means, 1971; Farr, 2010; Katyal & Evers, 2004; Larkin, 1973) have advanced the notion of teachers as classroom leaders. A prominent example of teachers as classroom leaders comes from Teach for America, an alternative teacher licensure nonprofit organization that embodies the idea of teachers as leaders. As explained by Farr (2010), Teach for America, which builds a corps of recent college graduates that commit to teaching in high-need areas across the United States in an effort to combat educational inequity, trains its members in accordance to a leadership framework. This framework, appropriately called Teaching As Leadership, is grounded in principles of leadership “employed by successful leaders in any challenging context” (Farr, 2010, p. 4). By following the Teaching As Leadership framework, teachers trained through Teach for America continuously promote academic success in their classrooms, which is supported by significant, documented academic gains of their students (Farr, 2010). Undoubtedly, teachers influence the motivation of students in their classrooms.

Student motivation is a topic that solicits disagreement from professionals regarding what it is, where motivation originates, and what affects motivation. Early views of motivation held that it was internal, while later views posited that external forces were the cause of motivation (Schunk, Pintrich, & Meece, 2002). Assigning a derivative of motivation is challenging because of the multifaceted arguments and theories of motivation. The task of identifying a primary source is further complicated by the varying paradigms of learning. Bearing in mind that motivation can be a derived from teacher actions or student uniqueness, the relationships between teachers and students seem plausible for explaining student performance in the classroom. Therefore, studies of teacher leadership should focus on the dyadic relationships between teachers and students.

Nearly forty years ago, Brophy and Good (1974) identified a gap in the research of teacher-student relationships. They asserted, “one flaw in much of the research that has looked at naturalistic behavior in classrooms has been the stress upon teacher behavior directed toward the entire class rather than toward individual students” (p. 3). Investigating interactions between teachers and students, while treating students as an entire class or group, would not be troublesome if teachers did not vary their interactions from one student to another; however, this is not the case (Brophy & Good, 1974). While some studies examining the teacher as leader and the corresponding impact on students have taken place at the college level—as demonstrated later in the literature review—relatively few have undertaken the challenge of investigating the concept of teacher as leader in the secondary setting.
Brophy and Good (1974) cautioned against applying findings from studies using college students to the secondary setting because students in secondary education may be less motivated than college students. Therefore, an empirical investigation of the dyadic relationships between teachers and students at the secondary level and the corresponding effects on student achievement is timely. The present study investigates the phenomenon of teacher-student relationships and the corresponding impact of such relationships on student achievement.

In a classroom, relationships inevitably form between teachers and students. The type and quality of relationships between teachers and students can vary depending on a variety of factors. Leader-member exchange (LMX) theory reasons that subordinates who have a high-quality relationship with their leader are willing to do more than is required (Northouse, 2010). If a teacher, as a classroom leader, could foster high-quality relationships with all students, then, would students, as subordinates, be willing to work harder in the classroom? If so, total student achievement and learning outcomes might increase. While many leadership theories have been empirically applied to educational settings, studies of LMX theory involving K-12 education are virtually nonexistent. When considering LMX, antecedents of relationship quality are of interest. One such precursor to the quality of relationships between teachers and students could be the difference in cognitive style.

Cognitive style, as explained in Kirton’s (2003) adaption-innovation (A-I) theory, references one’s preference for solving problems. A-I theory refers to the differences between individual preferences for solving problems as cognitive gap (Kirton, 2003) and describes the detrimental effects of cognitive gap when working with others. A benefit of applying A-I theory to an educational context is the potential that the theory offers for facilitating positive working relationships between teachers and students. A-I theory holds that problems of communication and collaboration increase as the gap between peoples’ cognitive styles increases (Kirton, 2003). If large cognitive gaps exist between teachers and students, causing problems in the dyadic relationship, it is possible that student achievement will be negatively impacted.

Involving cognitive style in the investigation of teacher-student relationships may lead to a deeper understanding of the phenomenon. A lack of understanding exists in regard to how cognitive gap and teacher-student relationship quality interact with one another and impact student achievement. As teachers strive to lead students to academic success, the present research has the potential to alter the ways in which teachers interact with students.

The need for simultaneously exploring teacher-student relationships and cognitive styles is identified in the literature numerous times. Kirton, Bailey, and Glendinning (1991) suggested that investigating the impact of cognitive style on interactions between teachers and students would enhance the understanding of the educational process. Therefore, “continued research into cognitive style in the educational context must include consideration of the cognitive styles of the pupils and their place in the complex interaction of teachers” (Kirton, Bailey, & Glendinning, 1991, p. 454). Further, Jablokow, Vercellone-Smith, and Richmond (2009) call for an investigation of cognitive gaps between teachers and students and how such gaps impact the educational experience. Because the actions of teachers
influence how relationships between students and teachers develop, educators need to understand the messages they unintentionally send to students and the impact those messages may have (Puccio, Talbot, & Jonak, 1993). Specifically, many are concerned about how cognitive style differences could impact student achievement.

According to Jablokow, Vercellone-Smith, and Richmond (2009), educational outcomes may be enhanced when the cognitive styles of students and teachers match. However, after examining cognitive style in a college setting, Friedel and Rudd (2009) suggested that more research was needed regarding cognitive gap between students and teachers in different academic settings where teachers and students collaborate. The high school classroom affords an opportunity for expanding the research. Jablokow, Vercellone-Smith, and Richmond (2009) agree that encouraging future research that explores cognitive gap between teachers and students, the impact of cognitive gaps on student and teacher perceptions of one another, and the potential affects that cognitive gap may have on student achievement. The cognitive style of the teacher could lead to the “instructor inadvertently favoring students with cognitive styles closer to his or her own; or possibly believing a student has a low cognitive level, when in fact the student has high intelligence, but has a greatly dissimilar cognitive style” (Friedel & Rudd, 2009, p. 42).

LMX is a measure of the quality of the relationship between a leader and a subordinate, but relationship quality can be impacted by a variety of factors including duration of the relationship, intensity of the relationship, or possibly cognitive style. A-I theory explains that communication problems between people worsen as the gap of cognitive style increases. Considering the destructive potential of a large cognitive gap between two people, examining the effects of cognitive gap on relationship quality in an educational setting is critical. Friedel and Rudd (2009) warned that while student engagement may not be impacted by cognitive gap, a difference in style between teachers and students could impact relationships with other classroom components such as a student’s preference for completing assignments or a teacher’s use of subjective assessments. A lack of understanding exists in regard to how cognitive gap and teacher-student relationship quality interact with one another and impact student achievement. As teachers strive to lead students to academic success daily in efforts to meet state and federal mandates of student achievement, this research is opportune and necessary and has the potential to alter the ways in which teachers interact with students.

The present study expands upon existing research in the areas of LMX and cognitive style by investigating how the quality of teacher-student relationships and the gap of cognitive styles between teachers and students impact student achievement as demonstrated by student scores on a standardized end of course test. The study is guided by the following research questions:

1. What are the relationships between cognitive gap between teachers and students, dyadic intensity, LMX quality, and student achievement?
2. What dimensions of teacher-student relationships affect LMX quality from the teacher perspective?
3. What dimensions of teacher-student relationships affect LMX quality from the student perspective?
4. What are the effects of cognitive gap, teacher LMX, and student LMX on student achievement?

**Method**

This study took place in the Career and Technical Education (CTE) department of a suburban high school in western North Carolina during the months of November and December 2011. The high school has a population of just over 800 students who learn in forty-four classrooms and five CTE laboratories spread throughout the school.

The population for the study was comprised of CTE teachers (N = 11) and their students (N = 210) in classes that each teacher identified for participation. As the census sampling method was used, the participant sample represented six CTE disciplines: (a) agriculture, (b) business and information technology, (c) family and consumer sciences, (d) health occupations, (e) marketing, and (f) trade and industrial education. The selection of the school used for the case study was motivated by: (a) quantity of CTE teachers in the school, (b) geographic proximity of the school to the researcher’s residence, (c) the suitability of the school for the present study, and (d) the willingness of the school to grant access to teachers and students. Selecting the population for the present study in the way described represents two major sampling schemes of mixed methods research: critical case and maximum variation. Onwuegbuzie and Collins (2007) explained that critical case sampling involves the selection of a sampling and group because their inclusion provides insight into the phenomenon of interest. Maximum variation references the selection of individuals to maximize the range of perspectives.

The present study utilized the census sampling method. Lodico, Spaulding, and Voegtle (2006) explained that in census sampling, the researcher surveys all known members of an identified population. As the present study investigates dyadic relationships between teachers and students, it was necessary to employ the census sampling method to feasibly complete the quantitative strand. Cooper and Schindler (2003) indicated that a census study is fitting when determined to be necessary for successful execution of the investigation.

This study used four instruments to gather information that in turn was used to answer quantitative research questions: (a) the Kirton Adaption-Innovation Inventory (KAI), (b) researcher-developed surveys for students and teachers, (c) the Leader-member Exchange 10 item scale (LMX-SLX), and (d) the North Carolina CTE end-of-course tests. Specifically, the KAI was used to measure the cognitive style of teachers and students, the researcher-developed survey was used to measure dyadic intensity, the LMX-SLX was used to measure the perceived quality of dyadic relationships between teachers and students, and the North Carolina CTE end-of-course tests were used to measure student achievement in CTE classes. Additionally, demographic information was collected from teacher and student participants. Specifically, teacher participants were asked to provide demographic data regarding years of teaching experience, primary CTE discipline, level of education, teaching preparation, age, sex, and ethnicity and race. Student participants were asked to provide demographic data regarding age, sex, ethnicity or race, and grade point average. Also, participants were asked to indicate their interest in participating in an interview to explore the development of teacher-student relationships.
The researcher administered the instruments used to collect data. The LMX-SLX was administered to all teacher (N=11) and student (N=210) participants in the present study by the researcher. The teacher participants were asked to complete one LMX-SLX with teacher as referent for each student, while student participants were asked to complete the LMX-SLX with student as referent. The researcher-developed survey was administered to all teacher and student participants by the researcher. This survey was coded with a unique alphanumeric identifier corresponding with the name of each participant in the study. The KA was administered to all teacher and student participants in the present study by the researcher. The demographic data collector was administered to all teacher and student participants by the researcher. Once participants completed all instruments, the researcher transferred responses and scores into a database in preparation for data analysis. Teacher participants in the study administered the CTE end-of-course tests. Each teacher provided student grades on the CTE end-of-course tests to the researcher.

Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients were computed to answer research question one: what are the relationships between cognitive gap between teachers and students, dyadic intensity, LMX quality, and student achievement? Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients are the most common type of correlation, “which measures the degree of relationship between two continuous variables” (Coolidge, 2006, p.162). Research question 2 asked which dimensions of teacher-student relationships affect LMX quality from the teacher perspective; research question 3 asked which dimensions of teacher-student relationships affect LMX quality from the student perspective. These questions were analyzed using forced entry regression. Research question four explored the effects of cognitive gap, teacher LMX, and student LMX on student achievement, and was analyzed using the method of path analysis. According to Fraenkel and Wallen (2000), “path analysis is used to test the possibility of a causal connection among three or more variables” (p. 366). For the present study, the research developed a five variable path model (Figure 1), showing how the variables are related to one another.

![Figure 1. Five variable path model.](image-url)
Results

There were 11 teachers who participated in the present study, five female and six male. All teacher participants were white, ranging in age from 31 to 51 and over. The teaching experience of teacher participants ranged from a first-year teacher to more than 26 years of teaching, representing six unique disciplines of Career and Technical Education (CTE). Four of the teachers earned certification through a traditional teacher preparation program, while the remaining seven were alternatively certified. Of the 11 teachers who participated, two reported the highest level of education completed as something other than a bachelor’s, master’s, or doctoral degree. Five held a bachelor’s degree and four held a master’s degree.

The student participant group was comprised of 210 students; however, not all participants provided complete demographic data. Of those who did provide demographic data, 113 were female and 92 male. All of these students were enrolled in a CTE class. Five racial groups were represented by the students including Hispanic/Latino of any race (n=3), American Indian or Alaska Native (n=3), Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander (n=1), White (n=196), and two or more races (n=3). Student participants ranged in age from 14 to 19, with the majority reporting an age of 15, 16, or 17 years.

Table 1 shows the mean, standard deviation, and minimum and maximum scores for teacher KAI, student KAI, cognitive gap, dyadic intensity, teacher LMX, student LMX, and student achievement. The teacher KAI (n=11) had a mean score of 94.64, a standard deviation of 12.59, a minimum score of 79 and a maximum score of 123. The student KAI (n=210) had a mean score of 92.12, a standard deviation of 10.71, a minimum score of 68, and a maximum score of 127. Cognitive gap had a mean score of 11.46, a standard deviation of 9.82, a minimum score of 0, and a maximum score of 49. The measure of dyadic intensity had a mean score of 6.67, a standard deviation of 8.33, a minimum score of 2 and a maximum score of 59. Teacher LMX (n=11) had a mean score of 41.39, a standard deviation of 6.26, a minimum score of 25, and a maximum score of 50. Student LMX (n=210) had a mean score of 41.45, a standard deviation of 6.04, a minimum score of 14, and a maximum score of 50. Finally, the measure of student achievement (n=206) had a mean score of 86.72, a standard deviation of 9.13, a minimum score of 51, and a maximum score of 100.

Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>Max</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teacher KAIa</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>94.64</td>
<td>12.59</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>123</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student KAIa</td>
<td>210</td>
<td>92.12</td>
<td>10.71</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>127</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cognitive Gapb</td>
<td>210</td>
<td>11.46</td>
<td>9.82</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dyadic Intensityc</td>
<td>210</td>
<td>6.67</td>
<td>8.33</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>59</td>
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<tr>
<td>Teacher LMXd</td>
<td>210</td>
<td>41.39</td>
<td>6.26</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Means, Standard Deviations, Minimums, and Maximums for Teacher KAI, Student KAI, Cognitive Gap, Dyadic Intensity, Teacher LMX, Student LMX, and Student Achievement.
Research Question 1: What are the relationships between the cognitive gap between teachers and students, dyadic intensity, LMX quality, and student achievement? Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients were computed to assess the relationships between the cognitive gap between teachers and students, dyadic intensity, LMX quality, and student achievement. Three statistically significant relationships were identified among the various dimensions of teacher-student relationships; specifically, the relationships between dyadic intensity and teacher LMX, dyadic intensity and student LMX, and teacher LMX and student LMX were significant. There was a weak, positive relationship between dyadic intensity and teacher LMX (r=.15, p<0.05). A weak, positive relationship was found between dyadic intensity and student LMX (r=.21, p<.01). Also, the correlation coefficient revealed a moderate, positive relationship between teacher LMX and student LMX (r=.43, p<.01). Table 2 presents a summary of correlation coefficients for the dimensions of teacher-student relationships under investigation.

Table 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Correlation Matrix for Hypothesized Path Model Variables.</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cognitive Gap</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dyadic Intensity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher LMX</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student LMX</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student Achievement</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* *p<0.05; **p<0.01.

Research Question 2: What dimensions of teacher-student relationships affect LMX quality from the teacher perspective? A forced entry regression analysis was conducted to determine which dimensions of teacher-student relationships affect LMX quality from the teacher perspective. According to Keith
(2006), forced entry regression is appropriate for explanatory research, and has the advantage of providing the direct effect of each independent variable on the dependent variable. Table 3 shows the results of the regression analysis. Though the variable of dyadic intensity ($b=.112$, $t=2.171$, $p<0.05$) had a significant effect on teacher LMX, the overall regression is not statistically significant ($F=2.561$, $p>0.05$).

Table 3

*Regression Output for Teacher LMX ($X_3$) on Cognitive Gap ($X_1$) and Dyadic Intensity ($X_2$).*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>$R^2$</th>
<th>Adjusted R Square</th>
<th>Std. Error of the Estimate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>.155&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>.024</td>
<td>.015</td>
<td>6.215</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<sup>a</sup> Predictors: (Constant), Cognitive Gap, Dyadic Intensity.
### ANOVA

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
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<tr>
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<td>2</td>
<td>98.912</td>
<td>2.561</td>
<td>.080</td>
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<tr>
<td>Residual</td>
<td>7996.157</td>
<td>207</td>
<td>38.629</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>8193.981</td>
<td>209</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Coefficients

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Collinearity Statistics</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>Std. Error</td>
<td>Beta</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>40.928</td>
<td>.752</td>
<td>54.410</td>
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<tr>
<td>Cognitive</td>
<td>-.025</td>
<td>.044</td>
<td>-.039</td>
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<tr>
<td>Gap</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dyadic</td>
<td>.112</td>
<td>.052</td>
<td>.149</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intensity</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note. *p<0.05; **p<0.01. *Dependent Variable: Teacher LMX.

**Research Question 3:** What dimensions of teacher-student relationships affect LMX quality from the **student perspective**? A forced entry regression analysis was conducted to determine which dimensions of teacher-student relationships affect LMX quality from the student perspective. Table 4 shows the results of the regression analysis. The three variables of cognitive gap, dyadic intensity, and teacher LMX, in combination, account for 21.4% of the variance in student LMX. The overall regression is statistically significant (F=18.656, p<0.01). The variables of dyadic intensity (b=.107, t=2.356, p<0.05) and teacher LMX (b=.395, t=6.550, p<0.01) had a significant effect on student LMX.
Table 4

Regression Output for Student LMX ($X_4$) on Cognitive Gap ($X_1$), Dyadic Intensity ($X_2$), and Teacher LMX ($X_3$).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model Summary</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>$R^2$</th>
<th>Adjusted R Square</th>
<th>Std. Error of the Estimate</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>.462*</td>
<td>.214</td>
<td>.202</td>
<td>5.396</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Predictors: (Constant), Cognitive Gap, Dyadic Intensity, Teacher LMX.

ANOVA

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
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<tr>
<td>Regression</td>
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<td>3</td>
<td>543.229</td>
<td>18.656</td>
<td>.000**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Residual</td>
<td>5998.338</td>
<td>206</td>
<td>29.118</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>7628.024</td>
<td>209</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Coefficients

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Collinearity Statistics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>Std. Error</td>
<td>Beta</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
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<td>2.555</td>
<td>9.258</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cognitive Gap</td>
<td>.064</td>
<td>.038</td>
<td>.103</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dyadic Intensity</td>
<td>.107</td>
<td>.045</td>
<td>.147</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher LMX</td>
<td>.395</td>
<td>.060</td>
<td>.410</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. *p<0.05; **p<0.01. *Dependent Variable: Student LMX.

Computation of additional path coefficients. A third forced entry regression analysis was conducted to calculate the path coefficients that represent the effects of teacher LMX, cognitive gap, and student LMX on student achievement. Table 5 shows the results of the regression analysis. The three variables of teacher LMX, cognitive gap, and student LMX, in combination, account for 2.1% of the variance in student achievement. The overall regression is not statistically significant ($F=1.456$, $p>0.05$). None of the variables in the model had a significant effect on student achievement.
Table 5

Regression Output for Student Achievement ($X_4$) on Cognitive Gap ($X_1$), Teacher LMX ($X_2$), and Student LMX ($X_3$).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model Summary</th>
<th>Model</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>$R^2$</th>
<th>Adjusted R Square</th>
<th>Std. Error of the Estimate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.145$^a$</td>
<td>.021</td>
<td>.007</td>
<td>9.097</td>
</tr>
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</table>

a. Predictors: (Constant), Teacher LMX, Cognitive Gap, Student LMX.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ANOVA</th>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Regression</td>
<td>361.361</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>120.454</td>
<td>1.456</td>
<td>.228</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Residual</td>
<td>16716.309</td>
<td>202</td>
<td>82.754</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>17077.670</td>
<td>205</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Coefficients</th>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Collinearity Statistics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>Std. Error</td>
<td>Beta</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>76.786</td>
<td>5.145</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>.073</td>
<td>.113</td>
<td>.051</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note: VIF = Variance Inflation Factor*
Research Question 4: What are the effects of cognitive gap, teacher LMX, and student LMX on student achievement? Using the three multiple regression models previously examined, a path analysis was conducted to determine the causal effects of cognitive gap, teacher LMX, and student LMX on student achievement. The path coefficients, which are the standardized regression coefficients, are presented in the path model shown in Figure 2. The data partially support the path model, as the path coefficients from dyadic intensity to teacher LMX, dyadic intensity to student LMX, and teacher LMX to Student LMX are statistically significant. None of the paths to student achievement, however, were statistically significant. The statistical significance of the second regression model, student LMX, and the path coefficients from dyadic intensity to teacher LMX and teacher LMX to student LMX, indicate the potential indirect effect of dyadic intensity on student LMX.

![Figure 2. Solved model of the effects of cognitive gap, dyadic intensity, teacher LMX, and student LMX on student achievement (*p<0.05; **p<0.01).](image)

To determine the indirect effect of dyadic intensity on student LMX, the path from dyadic intensity to teacher LMX was multiplied times the path from teacher LMX to student LMX. To calculate the total effect of dyadic intensity on student LMX, the direct effect was added to the indirect effect. Table 6 shows the direct, indirect, and total effects of dyadic intensity and teacher LMX on student LMX.
Table 6
*Standardized Direct, Indirect, and Total Effects of Dyadic Intensity and Teacher LMX on Student LMX.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Direct Effect</th>
<th>Indirect Effect</th>
<th>Total Effect</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teacher LMX</td>
<td>.410</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>.410</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dyadic Intensity</td>
<td>.147</td>
<td>.061</td>
<td>.208</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Discussion**

All three statistically significant relationships highlighted by Pearson product-moment coefficients were explained through analysis of the path model. First, there was a weak, positive relationship between dyadic intensity and teacher LMX. This specific relationship was identified in the revised path model. Results of the path analysis showed a statistically significant causal relationship between dyadic intensity and teacher LMX, indicating that increased teacher-student interactions caused a higher-quality teacher-student relationship from the teacher’s perspective. A weak, positive relationship was found between dyadic intensity and student LMX. This specific relationship was identified in the revised path model. Results of the path analysis showed a statistically significant causal relationship between dyadic intensity and student LMX, indicating that increased teacher-student interactions caused a higher-quality teacher-student relationship from the student’s perspective. Also, the correlation coefficient revealed a moderate, positive relationship between teacher LMX and student LMX. This specific relationship was identified in the revised path model. Results of the path analysis showed a statistically significant causal relationship between teacher LMX and student LMX, indicating that a higher-quality teacher-student relationship from the teacher perspective caused a higher-quality teacher-student relationship from the student perspective.

Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995) suggested that leaders provide all subordinates with access to LMX processes, indicating that leaders set the pace for LMX development; however, the three phases of leadership-making explain that subordinates can initiate further growth. All dyadic relationships begin with the stranger phase, but enhanced working relationships must occur through an offer made by either person in the dyad, allowing dyads to move to advanced stages of development (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). In cases where the offer may be initiated from the subordinate, though, the leader controls the speed of dyadic relationship development. In order for progression to occur, though, both members of the dyad must be amenable to an enhanced relationship. Still, in the case of teachers and students, if the teacher does not agree to advance the relationship, it can never evolve. Therefore, the researcher concludes that the quality of teacher-student relationships from the student perspective is dependent on teacher-student relationships from the teacher perspective. Just as leaders should be encouraged and trained in making partnership offers to all subordinates to make the LMX process more equitable and to increase the leadership of managers (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995), teachers as leaders, at the pre-service and in-service levels, should receive professional development and instruction in developing teacher-student relationships.
The researcher hypothesized that teacher LMX and student LMX would also effect student achievement; however, this hypothesis was not supported by the data. This finding contradicted leader-member exchange theory, which suggests that subordinates who have low-quality relationships with their leaders do minimal work (Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975). Further, those who have high-quality relationships with their leaders may offer more time and energy on tasks, may demonstrate increased commitment to tasks, and may assume greater responsibility (Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975). In the present study, though, the quality of relationships between teachers and students did not effect student achievement. The researcher concedes, though, that the measure of student achievement in the present study did not reflect the extent to which students were committed to tasks or assumed responsibility as a learner in the classroom because achievement was measured by performance on a standardized test.

The researcher hypothesized that cognitive gap would effect the quality of teacher-student relationships from both the teacher and student perspective. This relationship, however, was not statistically significant in the present study. This result substantiates the findings of Friedel and Rudd (2009). In their study, Friedel and Rudd (2009) showed that cognitive gap between students and instructors had little to no effect on student engagement. The researcher suggests that over the duration of a course, students learn to cope with cognitive style differences, which explains why the cognitive gap did not have a significant effect. This claim is made based on the previous position of Jablokow, Vercellone-Smith, and Richmond (2009), who suggested that learning from a teacher whose style is different could facilitate coping behavior.

The researcher concludes that dyadic intensity is a predictor of the perceived quality of teacher-student relationships from both the teacher perspective and the student perspective. Further, the perceived quality of teacher-student relationships from the teacher perspective is a predictor of the perceived quality of teacher-student relationships from the student perspective. Relating results of the present study to previous research is difficult in that no prior studies of LMX or cognitive style have simultaneously investigated teacher-student dyads and student achievement.

As teachers are leaders of student success, LMX theory and the results of the present study offer multiple implications for teachers. Results of the present study highlight areas where LMX could be emphasized in an educational context. As Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995) explained, there when a leader makes LMX available to all subordinates, there is an increased potential for the development of high quality relationships; however, Othman, Ee, and Shi (2010) highlighted limitations of LMX theory and argued that, in some cases, high-quality LMX could be dysfunctional. Further, antecedents and outcomes of such unhealthy interpersonal interaction within a group were identified (Othman, Ee, & Shi, 2010). While increased interaction outside of the class can be a positive step toward developing high quality relationships, teachers should use caution and monitor how teacher-student relationships develop to prevent dysfunction.

Existing literature reveals that favoritism by the leader, reliance on impression management by the followers, and perceptions of unfairness may lead to dysfunctional relationships within group settings.
(Othman, Ee, & Shi, 2010). Othman, Ee, and Shi (2010) proposed that dysfunctional high-quality LMX occurs in accordance with two circumstances: 1) “the flawed assessment of a member by a leader,” (p. 341), and 2) when members “use upward influence tactics to create a favourable impression of themselves” (p. 341). Consideration of these concerns is important when applying LMX theory to an educational context where the teacher is leader and students are followers or subordinates. Because of this, teachers must exercise caution when developing relationships with students and strive to not form initial impressions and expectations that may impact LMX development.

Also of important note are implications for A-I theory in education. According to Jablokow, Vercellone-Smith, and Richmond (2009), it is highly unlikely that a teacher’s cognitive style will match more than a few students in a given class. This was true in the present study. In the present study, the relationships between cognitive gap and teacher-student relationships and student achievement were not statistically significant in the path model; however, an awareness that diverse cognitive styles exist in a classroom could remind teachers to be mindful when designing lessons and provide flexibility with structure to meet the needs of all learners.

Based on data analysis and a synthesis of the findings, the researcher recommends three specific areas for future inquiry related to leader-member exchange and cognitive style in secondary educational settings: (a) investigate the impacts of leader-member exchange and cognitive style on student achievement using alternative indicators of student achievement, and (b) examine the impacts of leader-member exchange and cognitive style on student achievement outside of the context of career and technical education (CTE). Each recommendation for future research is addressed.

The researcher endorses future investigation of the impacts of leader-member exchange and cognitive style on student achievement using alternative indicators of student achievement. In the present study, student scores on a state-administered standardized test represented student achievement. In secondary education, and most certainly in CTE, there are multiple indicators of student achievement including formative and summative assessment measures made by teachers, performance-based measures where students demonstrate achievement through practical application, and culminating scores in the form of semester grades that represent student achievement throughout the course of a semester. Inserting semester grades into the model would subject the measure of student achievement to teacher subjectivity; however, consideration of student performance on classroom assignments is critical to a greater understanding of the potential impact that leader-member exchange has on student achievement.

Also, the researcher encourages an examination of the effects of leader-member exchange and cognitive style on student achievement outside the context of CTE. CTE students experience coursework and learn skills that are applicable in the workforce beyond high school through an experiential approach (Stone & Alfeld, 2004). Because of the nature of teacher-student interaction required in CTE courses, teacher-student relationships may develop in a different manner, given the increased frequency of one-on-one coaching and feedback required in CTE classes. CTE naturally lends itself to a more student-centered, authentic approach to instruction (Newman & Wehlage, 1995), whereas other
secondary education coursework may not. As leader-member exchanges may manifest differently outside the context of CTE, investigating effects of leader-member exchange and cognitive style on student achievement in non-CTE classes is necessary to advance an understanding of the phenomenon.

**References**


Outside the Comfort Zone: Strategies for Developing Emotionally Intelligent Leaders

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University of Minnesota

Kim Boyce, Ph.D.
University of Minnesota

Denise Trudeau Poskas, Ph.D.
University of Minnesota

Abstract

A recent study of the Minnesota Agriculture and Rural Leadership program (MARL) set out to determine the relationship between andragogical program design and increased levels of emotional intelligence. Members of two cohorts in the MARL leadership development program received different levels of focused effort, peer coaching, individual action plans, disorienting dilemmas, self-reflection and training in the area of emotional intelligence. We examined four years of data, including participants' results on the Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i) before and after undergoing leadership development training, as well as their individual reflections on the EI components of their training. The intention is that this research will encourage practices that seek to increase emotional intelligence in leaders.

Introduction

As technological and other factors increase the pace of change in today’s world, there is a greater need than ever to enhance leaders’ ability to handle complex situations, communicate clearly, and to maintain an even temperament in emotionally-charged situations. To meet this need, University of Minnesota Extension strives to instill individuals with effective leadership skills. Extension’s U-Lead cohort leadership programs have a strong track record of building cognitive and analytical skills.

Building on this foundation, one of Extension’s U-Lead programs – the Minnesota Agriculture and Rural Leadership (MARL) program – recently introduced “emotional intelligence” (EI) skills to its training curriculum. In 1990, Peter Salovey and John D. Mayer coined the term “emotional intelligence” and defined it as a “form of social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one’s own and others’ thinking and action” (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). With increasing pressures in the workplace and in the community, the ability of a leader to deal with daily emotional demands is even more critical.
Additionally, a growing body of research demonstrates that emotional intelligence is a predictor of success in leadership roles – with "success" defined as changing followers' behaviors in a positive way. The ability to recognize one's own and others' emotions and maintain a positive affect and agreeable manner in tense situations has predicted transformational leadership behavior (Rubin, Munz, & Bommer, 2005). Further, unlike cognitive intelligence, emotional intelligence can be increased by focused effort, coaching and training in specific areas (Pearman, 2006; Cherniss, 2010). To demonstrate this assertion, this study analyzed results from two cohorts of a University of Minnesota Extension leadership development program that had incorporated emotional intelligence as a core leadership theme. The study measured the success of leadership development programming in strengthening emotional intelligence and it identified the specific teaching strategies that were the most beneficial for producing emotionally intelligent leaders.

**Literature Review**

Existing research has shown that an individual’s emotional intelligence quotient (EQ) can better predict success in both professional and personal pursuits than the cognitive intelligence quotient or IQ (Goleman, 1995). Multiple studies have shown that emotional intelligence competencies often account for the difference between star performers and average performers, particularly in positions of leadership (Durek & Sheldon, 2009). The United States Air Force is just one of many organizations that use emotional intelligence assessments and trainings to improve retention, increase productivity, improve performance and achieve savings in time and money (Bar-On, 2006).

As emotional intelligence continues to grow in both literature and application most research demonstrates that EI is teachable and essential to leadership (Goleman, 1996; Steiner, 1997; Higgs, 2004; Hopfl & Linstead, 1997; Cooper, 1997; Martinez, 1997). Emotionality in leadership impacts decision making and leadership styles making it central to group experiences and results. For instance, when stressful situations cause negative emotions to be prevalent in groups not only are the leaders' emotional reactions important, but their capability to regulate their own emotions in team settings proves to be vital as well. (Chemers, Hays, Rhodewalt, & Wysocki, 1985). What is crucial in lowering job stress and health problems among employees and other groups is the match between leadership style and the situation (Higgs, 2004; Fineman, 1997; Hopfl & Linstead, 1997).

As the amount of literature regarding the emotional intelligence capacity of leaders has increased, so has the need to understand how to design leadership programs to create the optimum environment for enhancing EI attributes. Thus, a growing amount of literature is devoted to processes and programs designed to develop participants’ emotional intelligence (Martinez, 1997; Farnham, 1996; Harrison, 1997; Cooper, 1997).

Research showing developmental growth in EI has become much more prevalent. For example, Victor Dulewicz and Malcolm Higgs demonstrated developmental growth in emotional intelligence in three studies with various participant groups. Their study demonstrated that emotional intelligence can be
influenced by experiences, and data from their research was also used in the Bar-On EQ-i and two other EI questionnaires (Dulewicz & Higgs, 2004).

Likewise, emotionality is prevalent in the field of leadership as leaders have been theorized to affect the behavior of their followers. This is relevant not only in individual factors, but may have implications for team dynamics and emotional intelligence. In 2003, Jing Zhou and Jennifer George wrote an article saying that the “root of creativity-supportive leadership behaviors is emotional intelligence” (Zhou & George, 2003). Research also clarifies that a key contextual factor influencing employee creativity is leadership (Shin & Zhou, in press; Tierney, Farmer, & Graen, 1999).

In their 1997 study, Hopfl and Linstead assert that the core capabilities of leaders are developed in early life. At the same time, work experiences have a strong impact on this shaping process. In developing this argument, they contend that what managers learn in an organization includes "how to feel about what they do and learn" and that the emotional dimension of the work of management is reflected through working experiences and practices. Their study brings to light the importance of using forms of transformative learning practices to produce an increase in several subscales of emotional intelligence.

Another important study is one by Mark Slaski and Susan Cartwright in 2002 that examined the relationship between emotional intelligence, stress, well-being and performance. This study of 224 managers in a large retail organization evaluated the ability of a leadership education program to develop emotional intelligence. The program worked to develop the areas of self-awareness, detachment, regulation of one’s own emotions and recognition of emotions in others. Results showed a statistically significant improvement both on the EQ total score and on five of the seven elements at the 0.001 level (unless indicated otherwise).

At the end of the training program, improvements were noted in self-awareness, interpersonal sensitivity, influence (0.01 level), motivation (0.01 level) and emotional resilience. Slaski and Cartwright reported that the program constructs used to create this positive impact on emotional intelligence scores were forms of cognitive stimulation, such as lectures and discussions, as well as application and synthesis activities like role-plays, journals and dialogue. Managers were retested again on their EQ six months after the final day of training (Slaski & Cartwright, 2002).

The literature linking emotional intelligence and leadership development suggests that programs need specific structures in order to achieve significant progress in improving emotional intelligence. Programs that show a positive impact on emotional intelligence scores have five elements in common:

1. A baseline assessment in which participants use a self-report or 360-degree feedback mechanism to assess their emotional intelligence;
2. Participants use a structured action plan to guide their self-development, as well as hold themselves accountable;
3. Some form of group or individual coaching;
4. New knowledge or cognitive stimulation on the topic of emotional intelligence and leadership; and
5. Small group support to build individual efficacy in emotionally intelligent leadership (Boyatzis & Van Oosten, 2002; Caruso & Salovey, 2004).

As we will discuss below in the "Methodology" section, we began our study of MARL participants with many of these strategies for promoting emotional intelligence in mind. We found that small group dynamics, cognitive stimulation, and transformative learning were the major constructs that built the foundation for change in participants. In addition to these strategies, however, was the observation that a “disorienting dilemma” is often the initiating factor in a transformational learning process (Mezirow, 1991). The sense of being moved outside of one’s comfort zone often leads to the type of self-reflection that increases overall emotional intelligence and leadership capacity. Thus, we too decided to include the concept of moving people out of their comfort zones in our study.

Methodology
This study employed a mixed methods approach (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998) to triangulate quantitative and qualitative methods (Denzin, 1989; Patton, 2002). Quantitative findings from the EQ-i pre- and post-surveys were combined with qualitative interview data from the five participants in each cohort who made the greatest gains in their EQ-i scores.

Study Participants
Participants in our study were the 32 members of MARL Class 5, held November 2008-March 2010, and 32 members of MARL Class 6, held November 2010-March 2012. Participants were chosen based on the quality of their application, reference checks, and interviews. The MARL Board of Directors made the final choices. The average age of participants in Class 5 was 45, with 59 percent holding college degrees. There were 24 males and 8 females in Class 5. The average age of participants in Class 6 was 46, with 69 percent holding college degrees. In this group, 21 were male and 11 female.

Cohort and Research Design
While strategies intended to enhance emotional intelligence were integrated into the curriculum of both MARL classes, Class 6 included more strategies and a higher frequency of emotional intelligence training than Class 5.

Class 5 participants were introduced to the topic of emotional intelligence in a 3.5 hour seminar at the first session. The 32 cohort participants then completed the Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i) online. Each participant received an individualized report and was personally debriefed on their results by a certified EQ-i administrator (one of the four authors of this article).
During the second session of the program, Class 5 participants created individual development plans and identified specific behaviors to change. Each participant was encouraged to meet with 2-3 others in the class to share plans and get together as needed outside class to support one another in carrying out their plans. At the conclusion of the 18-month program, participants again completed the online instrument and were debriefed by the same author.

Group summaries of both the pre and post EQ-i results were generated by Multi-Health Systems, Inc.© and compared. Individual results were also compared using a paired samples test on each of the subscales. Qualitative findings were gathered on participants’ perceived degree of change through exit interviews and post-program surveys. Results revealed that although the majority of participants found value in improving their emotional intelligence skills, very few of them met within small groups for support outside class.

Class 6 participants also completed the Bar-On EQ-i online prior to and following the 18-month program and were debriefed by the authors in the same manner as Class 5. However, Class 6 design included focused efforts on improving emotional intelligence skills that Class 5 did not. Focused efforts featured intervention strategies, peer coaching and EI skills practice. These focused efforts included:

• Small Group Dynamics. The Class 6 cohort was divided into groups of three, or triads. The authors intentionally assembled these triads based on each participant’s areas of strength and areas for development. For example; a participant high in flexibility might be assigned to a triad with a participant needing development in that same area. Thus, in each triad a participant would have something to share and something to learn. Each member of a triad shared his or her personal development plan with the group and provided each other with support and coaching for individual change. They were instructed on how to do this. Triads met regularly throughout the 18-month program for personal reflection and peer monitoring. As participants became more experienced with the triads, they began to give assignments to each other. For example, a participant intent on improving impulse control was told to try waiting for at least two other people to speak before refuting another speaker’s point of view.

• Cognitive Stimulation. The topics of ethnography, impression management, social awareness, self-management and self-awareness were added to the curriculum for Class 6 participants. Additional training in the area of emotional intelligence itself asked participants to research ways to improve areas of weakness and relative strength. Many of the strategies were included in their personal development plans. Suggested readings provided additional background. Experiential activities were assigned to participants so they could practice new skills and reinforce developmental progress. Participants recorded their progress through journaling.

• Transformative Learning. Even before we conducted this study, the MARL program included a variety of experiential activities that encourage them to move out of their comfort zones. An example might be to meet with a member of the U.S. Congress or walk the narrow alleys of the medina section of a Moroccan city for the first time. These "disorienting dilemmas" cause stress and even panic, but they
also give participants the opportunity to find meaning in the situation. Personal reflection and discussion with others in the group provide a whole new level of learning (Mezirow, 1991). Each experience was designed to simultaneously challenge and affirm participants.

**Quantitative Inquiry**

The quantitative data compared the differences in the mean of emotional intelligence scores of two cohorts: MARL Class 5 and Class 6. The analysis was done by administering pre- and post-assessments of participants using the Bar-On EQ-i. Developed by Reuven Bar-On, Ph.D., the EQ-i is a self-reporting, skill-based model of emotional intelligence. The instrument has been shown to be a strong predictor of success in increasing individual EI and is the most commonly used tool for measuring changes in EI (Bar-On, 2006).

The EQ-i consists of 133 relatively short statements in which responses are provided on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from “Very often true of me” or “True of me” to “Very seldom true of me” or “Not true of me.” The EQ-i raw scores are converted into standard scores based on a mean of 100 and a standard deviation of 15 (Bar-On, 2006). The total EQ-i score breaks down into 15 subscales that are categorized into five composite scales: Intrapersonal, Interpersonal, Stress Management, Adaptability and General Mood. (See Appendix for details.)

A total EQ-i score above 100 or a higher-than-average score on any individual composite or subscale implies stronger emotional intelligence skills and is a positive predictor for effective functioning in meeting demands and challenges in that particular content area. A lower EQ-i score implies poorer emotional intelligence skills and a reduced ability to be effective in meeting demands and challenges (Bar-On, 1997).

**Qualitative Inquiry**

Qualitative data were gathered at the end of the 18-month formal cohort program. All participants from Class 5 and 6 answered open-ended questions in written surveys and individual video-taped interviews. Feedback was collected on the value of the EQ-i instrument, the skills participants worked on, and the degree to which they observed successful change. They were also asked to identify specific experiences or strategies that contributed to the change in their emotional intelligence.

Additionally, post-cohort reflective interviews using the Robert Brinkerhoff’s Success Case Method were conducted (Brinkerhoff, 2006). Using the data on increases in EQ-i total scores, the top five participants from the two MARL classes were identified. As it happened, four of the five individuals were participants in Class 6. Each of the five were interviewed by phone and were asked about the aspects of the program that they believed had contributed the most to their increased EQ-i results. Probing questions were used to identify strategies that they implemented within the cohort, with their triad, or in their everyday lives that they felt affected the change in their emotional intelligence score.
Findings

Both classes of the MARL program had statistically significant improvement (based on a paired samples t-test using SPSS) in their total EI scores at the p < 0.05 level. As shown in Figure 1, the average Total EQ score for participants in Class 5 was 99.4 at the beginning of the program, and increased by 3.8 points to 103.2 at the end of the program. Participants in Class 6 began the program with an EQ-i of 101.9 and ended the program with an average of 106.5, for a 4.6-point increase.

![Figure 1. Total EQ change MARL Class 5 vs. Class 6.](image)

Table 1 presents the mean scores for all the EQ-i survey scales and subscales for both MARL Classes 5 and 6. The EQ-i measures five core scales: Intrapersonal, Interpersonal, Stress Management, Adaptability, and General Mood. Each MARL class saw significant increases in four of these five scales. Both groups experienced significant change in three of the scales - Intrapersonal, Stress Management and Adaptability. Class 5 saw a significant (p < 0.01) increase in the General Mood scale, while Class 6 did not. However, Class 6 experienced a significant (p < 0.01) increase in the Interpersonal scale, while Class 5 did not.

Table 1

Pre- & Post-Emotional Intelligence Scores, MARL Classes 5 and 6
Within each of the five core scales, the EQ-i measures change in 15 subscales. Class 5 reported significant increases in five of these subscales – Emotional Self Awareness, Assertiveness, Stress Tolerance, Problem Solving, and Optimism – while Class 6 reported significant changes in seven subscales – Emotional Self Awareness, Empathy, Stress Tolerance, Impulse Control, Flexibility, Problem Solving, and Happiness.

Notably, Impulse Control and Happiness, two of the subscales found to change significantly in Class 6 but not Class 5 have been found to be influential factors in leadership success (Durek, 2006).

### Qualitative Case Analysis

What role did the specific interventions offered by MARL play in the increased emotional intelligence of program participants? The Success Case method focuses on describing strategies that the most successful individuals found to be important (Brinkerhoff, 2006). Stories of emotional intelligence learning from the five most improved MARL participants from Classes 5 and 6 provide a richer understanding of the curriculum aspects that produced success. The names and identifying characteristics of each individual have been changed to insure their anonymity. The five “biggest changers” were each asked the following questions: What factors contributed to your success? Specifically what did you do? What support did you rely on, if any? What aspects of the MARL program contributed to your personal gains, if any? How has MARL changed you on a personal level if at all.

Don was in Class 6, and his total EQ-i score went from 91 to 111. He focused on the importance of the triad support team in shaping his emotional intelligence. When asked the question, “How has MARL changed you on a personal level?” Don responded: “Tremendously! The EQ-i Assessment - huge, huge,
hugely, this test knows you! It’s almost shocking how well that tells you about your personality – the way you work and the way you think. When I was younger I got really stressed out about many, many things and I think by taking this test, and being in this program, working with my triad and having a support team to say, let’s work through some of these weaknesses to make you a better person, I think that really helped improve that and also just to become more aware. On a personal level – in stressful situations you can just say ok, let’s just take a timeout here and think about this before reacting and have adverse consequences. Let’s just think about what’s going to happen.”

Bob was in Class 5, and his total EQ-i score went from 93 to 115. He emphasized the importance of the new self-knowledge he gained from the EQ-i assessment. The EQ-i identified the unhappiness in Bob’s life. It was specific and dramatic, and Bob did not want to believe it. He knew he was unhappy but did not realize the extent of his discontent before taking the assessment. After learning that happiness is a very important quality of a leader, he accepted that he needed to change. It seemed logical to him that no one wants to be around a negative person, much less follow him or her.

He sought support for development from his spouse and took advantage of the 45 contact days with members of his MARL cohort to observe and learn from them. He watched how they interacted, noticing that the happiest people seemed to meet others and make small talk easily. So he practiced making small talk and soon improved. Bob found that the more focused he was on listening, the less anxiety he had and the easier it became. Bob expected big improvements in General Mood & Stress Management and the final survey reflected his efforts. But what he did not expect was the modest improvements in all other categories. Bob now realizes that he has an addictive personality that can lead to gambling, overeating and depression. He has pledged to work on his Stress Management and Impulse Control for the rest of his life.

Haley was in Class 6, and her total EQ-i score went from 81 to 104. Working 25 years as a social worker for an adult chemical dependency treatment center calloused Haley to people and their problems. She found it difficult to commit to long term relationships. At the beginning of the leadership program, she felt overwhelmed and was certain she didn’t belong there. However, she said taking the EQ-i assessment was one of the best things she has ever done. After the first time she took the assessment, Haley was concerned about her scores. Her Social Responsibility rating was markedly low, so she created her personal development plan around it. She credits her triad with providing the most significant support in helping her improve her emotional intelligence. She said: “We complemented each other’s strengths and areas for improvement. We were an incredible match. I feel our international study tour to Morocco definitely helped my empathy. I will continue working at this to make me a better person, wife, grandmother and citizen.”

Matt was in Class 6, and his total EQ-i score grew from 92 to 122. He came to the MARL program with years of successful experience in educational administration. Despite his successes, he was at a low point in his career. Differences in styles and vision within the leadership team at his workplace had taken its toll. Matt was beaten down and discouraged. The program and the emotional intelligence curriculum was just what he needed; the training gave him time to think about his direction in life and
work to improve himself. MARL provided an opportunity to reflect, build positive relationships, and receive lots of encouragement and support from members of his triad. Understanding his emotional strengths and weaknesses helped him analyze his issues and develop a plan of action to instigate positive personal change; part of his plan called for reducing time spent in arenas where he has less control and influence.

Carl was in Class 6, and his total EQ-i score went from 101 to 121. He came to the MARL program expressing a strong desire to learn. An 18-month cohort program was the perfect laboratory where he could try new things and find out if they work. “You could watch people with differing perspectives, opinions and ways of interacting,” he said. The emotional intelligence assessment was useful in pinpointing his personal traits and developing a plan for self-improvement. “It’s nice to put a value on emotions, place it on a scale and be able to compare. It [the assessment] showed areas I needed to work on,” he said. The program also gave Carl a framework to observe other leaders in action and see how their strategies and personal characteristics affected their success as a leader. The international study tour pushed Carl out of his comfort zone. Morocco opened his eyes to the differences in agricultural production and the gender expectations of Moroccan society.

### Discussion

This study was designed to determine to what degree the use of differing program content and design would affect the development and use of emotional intelligence in a cohort leadership group – as measured by the Bar-On EQ-i. The scope and scale of the educational content and interventions were varied for two consecutive cohort groups participating in the Minnesota Agriculture and Rural Leadership program.

Data indicate that the cohort group receiving a greater amount of EQ-i-related content and interventions saw significant change on seven of the EQ-i subscales, while the cohort group receiving a lesser amount of EQ-i-related content and interventions showed significant change on only five EQ-i subscales. Both groups experienced significant change in three EQ-i subscales: Emotional Self Awareness, Stress Tolerance and Problem Solving. The group receiving less EQ-i-related educational content and interventions saw significant change in two additional EQ-i subscales – Assertiveness and Optimism – while the group receiving a greater amount of EQ-i-related content and interventions showed significant change in four additional EQ-i-related sub-scales – Empathy, Flexibility, Impulse Control and Happiness.

It is worth noting that the Impulse Control and Happiness scales are two of the scales most closely linked with leadership success (Durek, 2006). Both groups received similar content and interventions, including an individual briefing on their personal EQ-i results, instruction on the EQ-i and emotional intelligence concepts, creation of a personalized emotional intelligence development plan, and the opportunity to participate in discussions and reflect on questions and observations related to emotional intelligence. In both groups, the introduction of EQ-i scores and emotional intelligence concepts provided measurable benchmarks and a new set of terms that were used to analyze and discuss emotional intelligence observations and behaviors.
Nevertheless, the group receiving a greater amount of EQ-i-related content and interventions demonstrated both quantitative and qualitative positive differences. Intentionally assigning participants to triads, introducing additional elements of additional small group dynamics to the triads, adding more activities to provide cognitive stimulation related to emotional intelligence, practicing specific experiential learning activities and reflecting on the results of those activities, and deliberately linking emotional intelligence concepts to intercultural experiences all yielded greater levels of change in this MARL cohort compared with the other.

**Conclusions and Implications**

The results of this study support and affirm earlier literature that asserts that emotional intelligence can be increased. At the same time, this study also demonstrates that with any skill or cognitive development, there is a need for a deliberative program design that creates the right environment for challenging participants to change old habits to new ones.

The results of this study reinforce the importance of using intentional, recurrent program design elements to consistently support the desired change in emotional intelligence of emerging leaders. When designing leadership programs, educators and practitioners need to provide as the foundation the major constructs of 1) small group dynamics, 2) cognitive stimulation, and 3) transformative learning. In addition, forcing participants outside their comfort zone proved to be a supportive element in increasing emotional intelligence. Constructing experiences designed to provide simultaneous challenge and support is most effective.

When participants have established a safe zone in which to learn, they are more willing to voluntarily move outside their comfort zone and support others who are willing to do the same. Similarly, developing specific experiential activities that allowed participants to practice new skills, receive immediate constructive feedback on their behaviors, and then reflect and record their experiences in their journals, provided a regular way for participants to monitor and chart their progress. A higher level of self-awareness creates an environment of deeper awareness of others. Again – this creates a solid environment for simultaneously providing challenge and support to other participants.

All eleven MARL seminars over the course of the 18-month program included the topic of emotional intelligence; however, intervention strategies varied in intensity and time between the two MARL Classes. The increased frequency and intensity of participation in the learning triads in Class 6 resulted in larger improvements in EQ-i scores than in Class 5. Another implication for leadership practitioners is the importance of the method that is used to determine triads. Assigning participants to their triads based on their areas of strength and areas for development resulted in greater success than allowing participants to self-select their own groups. In addition, triad members should be coached to share personal development plans and both challenge and support the learning objectives of others in the triad. Setting clear expectations and allowing participants to repeatedly interact with each other established a level of mutual trust and made the triad a safe place to work on improving their emotional intelligence.
The results of this study reinforce and expand the key components of leadership program design as identified by Richard Boyatzis and Ellen Van Oosten in 2002 and David Caruso and Peter Salovey in 2004.

Leadership educators can achieve significant change in the emotional intelligence of cohort participants by strategically incorporating key components throughout the entire leadership development program. Using a mixed method design that incorporates the Bar-On EQ-i and participant reflections offers a model for effective program design practices. Change in emotional intelligence requires focused effort, peer coaching, individual action plans, disorienting dilemmas, self-reflection and training in the area of emotional intelligence.
References


Perceived Volunteer Core Competencies of Nonprofit Organization Youth Development Professionals

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Abstract
The purpose of the descriptive study was to investigate Non-profit Youth Development Professionals’ perceptions of their current level of competence as a volunteer resource manager. Based on a five-point scale, Youth Development Professionals rated their overall volunteer development competence as a 3.3 with a range of 1.4 to 4.7. Staff felt most competent in the areas of communicating organizational policies, orientation, training, recruitment and recognition. Staff felt least competent in areas related to staffing structures and standards. No one identified themselves as an expert in the arenas of societal trends impacting volunteerism and supporting staffing standards. An exploratory factor analysis was conducted to examine the scale characteristics to gain a broader understanding of volunteer development competencies. The two-factor solution identified as organizational leadership and management skills resulted in a model that explained 66% of total variance of perceived volunteer development core competencies.

Introduction
The non-profit field of youth development is evolving from that of social movement to a promising profession with all the opportunities and challenges that accompany the advancement of a new professional discipline (Borden, Craig, & Villarruel, 2004; Borden, & Perkins, 2006; Hahn and Raley, 1998). In Greenwood’s (1957) classic article entitled “Attributes of a Profession,” an in-depth examination of occupational research was utilized to determine what distinguished professions from non-professions. Two of the distinctive factors were a body of theoretical and systematic knowledge that supports the profession’s performance and professionals who have authority based on their understanding and expertise within a field. To become a professional, advocates need criteria by which to determine their advancement along the pathway toward professional creditability.

For progression within a career field, professionals must be knowledgeable in the competencies associated with their position. According to McNamara (2007), competencies are general descriptions
of the abilities needed to perform a role within the organization. In comparison, job descriptions typically list the tasks or functions and responsibilities for a role; whereas, competencies list the abilities needed to conduct those tasks or functions. Consequently, competencies are used as a basis for training by converting competencies into learning objectives.

Competency models provide a valuable avenue to clarify what abilities are needed to be an effective professional (Stone, 1997). An example of one of these competency models for youth development was developed by the National 4-H Professional Development Taskforce (2004) through a painstaking process including a review of existing models, an examination of internal and external research, and interviews with a wide variety of stakeholders. Through this research the 4-H Professional Research and Knowledge Competency Base (4-H PRKC) was developed and identified six domain areas including: 1. Youth development; 2. Youth program development; 3. Organizational systems; 4. Equity, access and opportunity; 5. Partnerships, and 6. Volunteerism. For the purpose of this study, volunteer development was examined from the standpoint of building and maintaining volunteer management systems for the delivery of youth development programs. The topics and sub-topics include: Personal Readiness - philosophy of volunteerism; trends in volunteerism; advocating for volunteerism; Organizational Readiness - climate for volunteerism; identifying needs for volunteers and developing volunteer positions; Engagement of Volunteers – recruiting and selecting volunteers; Education of Volunteers - orientation and education of volunteers and adult development and learning theory; Sustainability of Volunteer Efforts - supervising, and coaching volunteers, performance management of volunteers, recognition of volunteers and evaluation of volunteer efforts.

Contemporary volunteer management competency models provide a comprehensive overview of the types of abilities and skills needed to be a successful volunteer resource manager. Several competency models for volunteer resource managers have been developed (AVA, 2001; Boyce, 1971; Boyd, 2003; Brudney, 1990; Council for Certification of Volunteer Administration, 2008; Culp, Deepe, Castillo, & Wells, 1998; Gregg & Irani, 2004; Lawson & Lawson, 1987; Lenihan & Jackson, 1984; Penrod, 1991; Safrit, Schmiesing, Gliem & Gliem, 2005; Schmiesing & Safrit, 2007; Stedman & Rudd, 2006; Stone & Rennekamp, 2004; Vineyard, 1983). Some of these volunteer competency models include ISOTURE(S) (Boyce, 1971), The Bridge from Dreams to Reality Model (Vineyard, 1983), Volunteer Professional Model for Human Services Agencies (Lenihan & Jackson, 1984), Volunteer Management Cycle (Lawson & Lawson, 1987), the 4-H Volunteer Development Model (Kwarteng, Smith & Miller, 1988), LOOP (Penrod, 1991), GEMS (Culp, et al., 1998), P.E.P. Model (Safrit & Schmiesing, 2004; 2005; Safrit, et al., 2005), and SERVE Model (Whitson, 2008).

**Purpose and Objectives**

The overall purpose of this study was to assess the perceived level of competencies among Non-profit youth development professionals in the area of volunteer development. Specific objectives to the study were as follows:

1. Determine the perceived level of professional competencies of nonprofit youth development professionals in the area of Volunteer Development.
2. Identify factors/latent constructs that underlie the perceived level of professional competencies.
3. Determine whether demographic factors such as field of study, degree or college coursework impact the professionals’ levels of perceived proficiency in volunteer development.

Research Methodology
A census was conducted on the entire targeted population of 4-H youth development professionals employed with the Louisiana State University AgCenter. Participants were identified using an online personal directory, which includes local, regional and state youth development faculty. Following a review of the State 4-H youth development e-mail list serve by the Associate State Program Leader, faculty who were no longer with the program and administrators were removed from the e-mail list resulting in a population of 127 youth development professionals. The study was exempted from the Institutional Review Board. The instrument was based on the Volunteer Development Core Competencies within the 4-H PRKC model (National 4-H Professional Development Task Force, 2004). The research team added a new construct focusing on staffing structure and standards. Content validity for the instrument was determined by a panel of experts made up of local youth development professionals, regional administrators, a state level specialist, a program administrator and an evaluation specialist who were not part of the study population. A Cronbach’s alpha coefficient (reliability) score of .957 was calculated based on sixteen items. Reliability coefficients of .80 are considered acceptable (Gall, Gall & Borg, 2007).

The data was collected through Zoomerang, an online survey software program. Reminders were e-mailed to non-respondents obtaining a final response rate of 71% (n = 91). Non-response error was evaluated by comparing early to late respondents (Linder, Murphy & Briers, 2001). Early respondents were defined as individuals who responded to the first survey stimulus (n=25). Late respondents participated after receiving the reminder stimulus (n=66). There was no statistical difference between early and late respondents on the evaluated items.

The data was analyzed using descriptive statistics. Exploratory Factor Analysis was used to identify the factors/constructs that underlie the competencies of volunteer development administration. As suggested by Tabachnick and Fidell (1996), factor analysis requires a minimum ratio of five cases for every variable. The criteria were met within this study with 91 respondents and sixteen variables.

Findings

Demographics
Sixty-one percent of the respondents were female and 86% were white. Seven percent of the respondents were African American, 5% indicated other, 1% selected Hispanic and 1% designated Native American. The respondents had been employed for a range of 1 year to 30 years with highest percentage of individuals being employed 30 years (11%) and average length of service being 14.8 years. When it came to the highest academic degree attained, the majority (59%) had a Master’s Degree plus some graduate hours. Two percent had a bachelor’s degree; 15% had a bachelor’s degree plus some graduate hours; 28% had a master’s degree, and; 3% had a Ph.D.
Objective One: Perception of Volunteer Development Competencies

When rating their perception of Volunteer Development Administrative competencies on a five-point likert-like scale, an overall mean of 3.3 (0.60) was reported with a range of 1.4 to 4.7. The scale ranged from 1 which indicated “knows little” to 5 which specified “expert knowledge.” Staff felt most competent in the areas of communicating organizational policies, orientation and training, recruitment and recognition. Staff indicated that they were at the advanced beginner level, or above in the following areas: communication of organizational policies, recruiting and selecting volunteers based on skills and abilities, supervising and supporting volunteers, and identifying volunteer roles and responsibilities through role descriptions. Staff felt less competent in areas related to staffing structures and standards. No one identified themselves as an expert in the arenas of societal trends impacting volunteerism and supporting staffing standards. Additional information on perception of volunteer development competencies is provided in Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perception of Volunteer Development Competencies</th>
<th>Valid N</th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>Max</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Interpretive Scale</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Communication organizational policies</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.68</td>
<td>.648</td>
<td>Competent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Orienting volunteers to organization and program</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.60</td>
<td>.731</td>
<td>Competent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training and educating volunteers to organization and program</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.54</td>
<td>.779</td>
<td>Competent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recruiting and selecting volunteers based on skills and abilities</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.53</td>
<td>.720</td>
<td>Competent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Developing and implementing strategies to recognize volunteers</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.52</td>
<td>.782</td>
<td>Competent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervising and supporting volunteers</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.48</td>
<td>.705</td>
<td>Competent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Identifying volunteer roles and responsibilities through role descriptions</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.46</td>
<td>.755</td>
<td>Competent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Providing feedback to volunteers</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.44</td>
<td>.825</td>
<td>Competent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Identifying and managing risks associated with volunteering</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.35</td>
<td>.794</td>
<td>Competent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Implementing the volunteer screening process</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.35</td>
<td>.794</td>
<td>Competent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understanding adult education strategies and practices</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.18</td>
<td>.842</td>
<td>Competent</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Understanding of societal trends in volunteerism 91 1 4 3.05 .78  Competent
Developing staffing structures 91 1 5 2.97 .76  Advanced Beginner
Supporting staffing structures 91 1 5 2.92 .75  Advanced Beginner
Supporting staffing standards 91 1 4 2.87 .81  Advanced Beginner
Developing staffing standards 90 1 5 2.86 .75  Advanced Beginner

Scale:  1 – Knows Nothing; 2 – Knows a Little; 3 – Knows Some; 4 – Knows Quite a Bit and 5 – Expert.
Interpretive Scale: 1.00 to 1.99 = Novice; 2.00 to 2.99 = Advanced Beginner; 3.00 to 3.99 = Competent; 4.00 to 5.00 = Proficient

Objective Two: Underlying Factor Analysis of Perceived Volunteer Development Competencies
An exploratory factor analysis was conducted to examine the scale characteristics of the data and gain a broader understanding of volunteer development competencies. The two-factor solution resulted in a model that explained 66% of total variance of perceived volunteer development competencies. For this model, the total of four variables loaded on the first factor, with numerical loading values ranging from 1.009 to .55. A total of nine items loaded on the second factor with numerical loading values ranging from .875 to .604. The following three items cross loaded on both factors: understanding societal trends in volunteerism (.580 and .688); understanding adult education strategies and principles (.357 and .360) and providing feedback to volunteers (.469 and .319). Table 2 outlines the factors and items loading for perceived volunteer development competencies.

| Table 2 | Factors and Item Loadings for Perceived Volunteer Development Competencies (N=91) |
|-----------------|-------------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| Item | Factor Loading |
| Factor 1: Organizational Leadership | |
| Supporting staffing standards | .898 |
| Developing staffing structures | .885 |
| Supporting staffing standards | .884 |
| Supporting staffing structures | .552 |
| Understanding societal trends in volunteerism | |
| Factor 2: Management Skills | |
| Developing and implementing strategies to recognize volunteers | .875 |
| Orienting volunteer to the organization and program | .872 |
Communicating policies to volunteers .848
Recruiting and selecting volunteers based on skills and interests .802
Identifying and managing risks associated with volunteering .790
Training and educating volunteers to the organization and program .785
Supervising and supporting volunteers .745
Identifying volunteer roles and responsibilities through role descriptions .647
Implementing the volunteer screening process .603

Objective Three: Relationships between Demographic Factors and Perceived Volunteer Development Competencies

The researchers examined whether demographic factors such as field of study, degree, or college coursework impacted the professionals’ levels of perceived proficiency in volunteer development. None of these demographic variables were found to be related to perceived Volunteer Development Competency. While there was no significant difference between those individuals who took a graduate volunteer course and those who did not, the professionals who took a volunteer course had a mean score of 3.4 (sd .39) out of 5 point scale compared to a mean score 3.3 (sd .65) for those who did not take a volunteer course. The range of those individuals taking the volunteer course was 2.7 to 4.1, while the range for individuals not taking a graduate volunteer course was 1.4 to 4.7, which indicates less variation in score among the individuals who took a graduate volunteer course.

Limitations
Restricted by the small population, the study should be replicated on a broader scale to increase the inference base for which generalizations may be made.

Implications

Most Competent Areas
Nonprofit youth development professionals perceived themselves to be proficient in a number of competencies. Professionals were most competent in communicating organizational policies, orientation and training, recruitment and recognition. The areas identified as areas of most competence were not surprising as they are frequently utilized components of volunteer management programs. In a national study, Hange, Seevers and VanLeeuwen (2002) found that 4-H youth development agents’ attitudes toward the volunteer management competencies of orientation and training were very important. Respondents received the highest competency score for volunteer orientation (3.2). Researchers found that most nonprofit professionals who manage volunteers feel skilled in the areas of training (Culp & Kohlhagen, 2004; Deepe & Culp, 2001). Schmiesing and Safrit (2007) noted that there has been increased emphasis on the importance of orientation and training in recent years. In their study, volunteer resource managers reported orientation and training as the highest competence within the volunteer engagement construct, and was identified as the highest level of importance among all competency studies.

In this study, recruitment was one of the core competencies rated highest among Extension professionals. Interestingly, Schmiesing and Safrit (2007) found that recruitment was rated second lowest in terms of competence. Culp (2001) identified a proficiency deficit in volunteer recruitment in
his study. Current study findings might result from the fact that the majority of Extension personnel participating in this study utilize ambient recruitment techniques, which is within a closed system. In this case, the 'closed system' is the school system where the teachers and administrators have a high existing sense of self-identification and connectedness. Most of the volunteers are identified by the school system with a few volunteers being required by the school administration to serve. As the organization moves away from ambient recruitment, findings may mirror the results found by Schmiesing and Safrit (2007). As nonprofit organizations expand and society becomes more diverse, volunteer recruitment is a critical competency to remain viable.

Several researchers found that one of the areas that nonprofit youth development professionals’ perceived level of competency to be greatest in the areas of volunteer recognition (Culp & Kohlhagen, 2004; Deepe & Culp, 2001; King & Safrit, 1998). In a national study conducted by Schmiesing and Safrit (2007), professionals had the highest mean of 3.04 on a four-point scale describing their perceptions of their current level of competence of recognition. Hange, Seevers and VanLeeuwen (2002) found that 4-H youth development agents’ rated recognition as an important competency.

**Area of Least Competence**

The area that nonprofit youth development professionals felt least proficient was in staffing structures. Within most volunteer resource manager models, staffing structures are implied; therefore, it was hard to compare the competency scores in this study with those in other studies. In “Building a Paradigm of Non-formal Education Administration: Focus on Competencies,” Etling (1998) identifies staffing, including both staff and volunteers, as the fourth step in building competencies as a non-formal educational organization volunteer resource manager. Within the criteria for certification within the Council for Certification in Volunteer Administration, Campbell (2007) identified human resource management and planning as two of the five competencies necessary for professional competency that imply staffing and structure. In this model, human resource management involved volunteer program management, supervision, staff and volunteer relationships, information collection and reporting while the major category of planning included strategic and operational, risk management. Staffing structures can be used for nonprofit organization when an organization is split up into a number of self-managed units tending to operate along functional lines or around career ladders. Areas of least competence in volunteer studies from Kentucky and Ohio were needs assessment, job descriptions, and disengagement (Deepe & Culp, 2001; Culp & Kohlhagen, 2004). These areas of management skills are often aligned with staff structures and standards, which support the findings in this study.

In addition, mind mapping has been an effective tool in assisting professionals in becoming more proficient in staffing structure. The use of mind mapping for planning help professionals identify a logical plan and increase recall of the details (Boyson, 2009; Buzan, 2000). A mind map can help one think with greater clarity to explore relationships within staffing structures and to generate solutions to problems.

Another area of least competency was the area of understanding societal trends in volunteerism. In examining existing studies, most researchers did not measure the competency of understanding of
societal trends in volunteerism. However, Safrit and Merrill (1999) pointed out the importance of today’s volunteer resource managers to look beyond traditional roles. These volunteer resource managers are called upon to be visionaries who understand trends and their implications to volunteers. Seita and Waechter (1999) emphasized that societal trends and its impact on the changing nature of the fields of volunteer resource management. These researchers pointed out that “quick fixes” are no longer effective, as volunteer organizations must seek real transformations enabling them to survive in the change-related chaos surrounding them.

Demographics and Competency
No significant relationships were found between demographic factors and perceived volunteer development competencies in this study. The mean for the professionals who enrolled in a graduate course on volunteer development was only .10 higher when compared to professionals who did not take a volunteer development graduate course resulting in no significant difference. However, the standard deviation was larger for the individuals who did not take a volunteer development graduate course with the scores ranging from 1.4 to 4.7. With the low score for those having completed a graduate course being 2.7, one can hypothesize that professionals who took a volunteer development graduate course have a better understanding of the vast body of knowledge within the field of volunteer resource management; thus, they realize that they have a lack of competency in a wide variety of areas within the field. There may also be a confounding variable lurking in this study that played a part in a lack of difference between those that had completed a graduate course in volunteer development and those who had not completed a course (such as the instructor of the course). Culp and Kohlhagen (2004) found a moderate positive association between the number of years served as a volunteer resource manager and the recruiting phase and the Educate category for the levels of competence. Surprisingly, experience and education did not make a significant difference within the population in this study.

Exploratory Factor Analysis
The Exploratory Factor Analysis confirms the basic core competencies of management and organizational leadership (Boyd, 2003; Fisher & Cole, 1993). Management, one of two factors identified by the Exploratory Factor Analysis aligns with Safrit and Schmiesing’s (2005) Individual Contemporary Volunteer Management Competency’s Category II: Volunteer Engagement which encompassed volunteer recruitment and selection, volunteer orientation and training, volunteer recognition and program maintenance. Boyd’s (2004) Management Skills which included functions necessary to create and maintain a volunteer program such as recruitment, screening, training, recognition, and volunteer evaluation also provides support for the management factor found in this study. Culp et al., GEMS’s Model (1998) supports the management factor which aligned with a cross section of his model including Generate (recruit, select, identify roles, and screening), Educate (orienting, training, and protecting - identifying and managing risks associated with volunteering and communicating policies), Mobilize (supervising and supporting) and Sustain (recognizing). Brudney (1990) identified four activities in which volunteer resource managers need to be competent. The management factor encompassed three out of four of his activities: a. volunteer recruitment; b. interviewing and screening volunteer applicants; and, c. orientation, teaching, evaluating and recognizing volunteers.
Conclusion

The role of volunteer resource manager cannot be undervalued. According to the Deloitte /Points of Light Volunteer IMPACT Study, which surveyed nonprofit executives and volunteers from corporate America, nearly 90% of nonprofit leaders agreed that volunteers’ workplace skills are valuable to their organization. Seventy-three percent of the volunteers believe their workplace skills are valuable to a nonprofit organization. More than 75% of the nonprofit leaders believed that volunteers could significantly improve their organization’s business. However, the study showed that the vast majority of nonprofit organizations are not capitalizing on the valuable professional skills of their volunteers as just 12% of nonprofits actually put volunteers to work on such assignments that align with related workplace skills (Greg, Whiting & Breton, 2006).

Not only are nonprofit organizations not capitalizing on valuable professional skills offered by volunteers, nonprofit agencies are also failing to retain volunteers which is caused by a lack of volunteer resource manager competencies. According to Eisner, Grimm, Maynard and Washburn (2009), nonprofit volunteer resource managers are doing a poor job of managing volunteers. As a result of this, more than one-third of volunteers do not continue their volunteer service with any nonprofit organization. This is particularly important when you examine the impact in terms of cost as this retention issue can result in an estimated $38 billion in lost labor support.

The Corporation for National and Community Service, the Urban Institute and the UPS Foundation conducted the Volunteer Management Capacity Study that identified five main reasons why volunteers are not retained. These reasons included mismatching volunteers’ skills with assignments; failing to recognize volunteers’ contributions, not measuring the value of volunteers, failing to train and invest in volunteers and staff, and providing inadequate leadership (Hager & Brudney, 2004).

Nonprofit organizations could not exist if people did not generously offer their time, energy, and skills to the cause. Volunteer resource managers lacking critical core competencies have serious implications influencing the volunteer experience, the financial impact of volunteer efforts, and the well-being of the organization. This study provides important data, which can be used to target core competency areas that need to be developed. In addition, professional development opportunities such as training and focusing can be developed to support the continued development of the core competencies of volunteer resource managers.
References


Etling, A. W. (Fall 1998). Building a paradigm of non-formal education administration:


Self-vs.-Teammate Assessment of Leadership Competence: The Effects of Gender and Motivation to Lead

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Abstract
A sample (N=81) of students enrolled in a freshman course designed to teach team project management skills were placed in semester-long teams. At the beginning and conclusion of the semester, students completed self-reported assessments of leadership skills, leadership self-efficacy, and motivation to lead. They also completed a leadership skill assessments at the end of the semester of peers who had served on their teams. Teammate-assessed scores were moderately lower than self-reported scores, while women were evaluated lower by men than they evaluated themselves on transactional leadership behaviors. Students’ affective-identity motivation to lead was a significant predictor of teammate-assessed leadership skill, while self-reported transformational leadership skill served as a partial predictor. These results may indicate the degree to which students’ sense of self as a leader of peers effects the assessments others make of their leadership skill. The findings also suggest that shared team goals and interdependent relationships might mediate peer evaluation of leadership skill and suggest avenues for the productive use of multi-rater leadership assessments in certain contexts.

Introduction
Higher education holds a primary responsibility to develop ethically responsible, relationship-oriented leaders (Council for the Advancement of Standards in Higher Education [CAS], 2011). To facilitate this responsibility, there have been significant efforts to expand formal leadership education programs (Sessa, Matos, & Hopkins, 2009). Further influencing this effort, the employment sector demands leadership as one of their ten primary attributes on candidates’ resumes, while several additional desired soft skills and qualities require related skills like communication and interpersonal ability (National Association of Colleges and Employers [NACE], 2012) that often together encompass what is currently grouped and labeled “transformational” leadership capacity (Bass, 1998).

The transformational leadership model describes two contrasting styles of influence; transformational and transactional. Transformational leaders develop a vision for the group, encourage follower buy-in (Groves & LaRoca, 2011), and create environments that foster high performance teams (Antonakis, Avolio, & Sivasubramaniam, 2003; Wang, Oh, Courtright, & Colbert, 2011). Transactional leaders
develop a reward and incentive system in which followers agree to the system’s terms in exchange for completing tasks (Jung & Avolio, 2000). Transactional leadership is not inherently negative to team performance and attitude, but due to its focus rewards and external motivation, is at best a complement to a transactional style (Bass, 1998). However, while employers continue to describe the possession of these skills as highly sought-after, the accurate measurement of their development is problematic (Dugan, 2011; Rosch & Schwartz, 2009).

**Evaluation of Leadership Effectiveness**

Leadership evaluations have traditionally focused on strictly measuring leadership capacity, but recent calls have been made for expansion of measures beyond this single concept (Avolio, 2007; Dugan, 2011). Responding to these calls, evaluators have begun to incorporate measurements for motivation to lead (MTL) (Arvey, Zhang, Avolio, & Krueger, 2007) and leadership self-efficacy (LSE) (Avolio, 2007; Dugan, 2011). MTL measures the “direction, intensity, and persistence” (Chan & Drasgow, 2001, p. 482) of engagement in the leadership process. MTL is divided into three subscales: Affective Identity (AI) MTL, Social Normative (SN) MTL, and Non-Calculative (NC) MTL. AI measures the extent to which people envision themselves as leaders, SN measures the extent to which a person seeks leadership due to the responsibility one feels toward a group, and NC measures the extent to which leaders avoid cost-benefit analysis of personal benefits (Chan & Drasgow, 2001). MTL has shown to be a significant predictor of leadership role occupancy in professional organizations (Arvey et al., 2007) and in development of leadership expertise (Lord & Hall, 2005). LSE describes students’ internal perception of their ability to engage in leadership processes (Murphy, 2002). Measuring LSE has grown in popularity (Dugan, Garland, Jacoby, & Gasiorski, 2008) with outcomes of higher LSE scores predicting increased interest in leadership positions and higher ratings of leader performance by group members (Hannah, Avolio, Luthans, & Harms, 2008). As LSE and MTL become more prevalent in program evaluation, more research connecting findings to outcomes must be explored to better identify accurate outcomes of participation in leadership programs.

One tool which could assist educators in more comprehensively assessing outcomes is a multi-rater approach to measuring student leadership competence. This method is widely popular in evaluator circles (Nowack & Mashihi, 2012; Toegel & Conger, 2003) and is increasingly used for leadership evaluation (Asumeng, 2013; Drew, 2009). Multi-rater systems assume that the inclusion of many sources of input will paint a clearer picture of competence due to an ability to compare self-perception to exterior perceptions (Carlson, 1998). However, research on the effectiveness of multi-rater feedback has been inconsistent (Asumeng, 2013; Azzam & Riggio, 2003; Nijhof & Jager, 1999; Shipper, 2004; Toney, 1996), in part due to inflated ratings & leniency on the part of the evaluators (Fahr, Cannella, & Bedeian, 1991; Hensel, Meijers, Leeden, & Kessels, 2010; Roch & McNall, 2007).

Because studies have shown inconsistency in relation to multi-rater assessments for performance appraisal (Asumeng, 2013), the validity of the methodology is debated (Nowack & Mashihi, 2012). Toegel and Conger (2003) report that when multi-rater methodology is framed around performance management systems, raters may have disparate goals in conducting their assessments. For example, one study indicated that more than 70% of managers inaccurately evaluated in order to protect or
motivate colleagues (Longenecker & Ludwig, 1990). Although leniency and bias are prominent in poorly designed or misused evaluations, these factors can be reduced by providing specific guidelines on context for which evaluation should occur and creating survey items that leave little open to interpretation (Theron & Roodt, 1999).

Even with mixed reviews for professional performance appraisal, a multi-rater approach has been found useful in educational and developmental environments (Drew, 2009; Ghorpade, 2000) and often result in durable personal development in targeted skill areas (Toegel & Conger, 2003). However, without a common system of evaluation (e.g. where items are not “open to interpretation”) and long-standing interdependent relationships between evaluator and those being evaluated, multi-rater systems of assessment may result in generalized perceptions rather than feedback on specific skills (Rosch, Anderson, & Jordan, 2012; Toegel & Conger, 2003). These findings suggest that multi-rater feedback may serve as an additional tool for understanding student leadership development in academic classes, where students interact on non-hierarchical, interdependent work teams that last throughout the course of a semester.

Moreover, multi-rater methodology in assessing competence may be a significant tool in understanding gender differences, given the role that gender has played in how a student practices and engages in leadership processes. Previous research indicates gender differences within multi-rater systems (Eagly & Carli, 2003; Ibarra & Obodaru, 2009; Manning & Robertson, 2010; Ely, Ibarra, & Kolb, 2011). Such research has shown that peers take into consideration gender stereotypes when evaluating (Eagly & Carli, 2003; Manning & Robertson, 2010) as women score higher than men in many of the relational aspects of leadership, including: (1) Emotional intelligence, (2) Rewarding and Feedback, and (3) Team-building behaviors (Ibarra & Obodaru, 2009). Although studies indicate women are often evaluated higher than males in relational leadership competencies, their leadership potential is often overlooked (Ely et al., 2011) as peers’ evaluations suggest that men’s ability to engage in leadership and create the visions for buy-in is more developed (Manning & Robertson, 2010). Additionally found in assessment are that male peer evaluators rate female leaders lower than equal standing male leader (Eagly, Makhijani, & Klonsky, 1992; Eagly & Carli, 2003; Ibarra & Kolb, 2011). The conclusions of these studies mirror research in leadership education, where males perceive themselves to be more confidence and better suited for leadership positions than females (Dugan & Komives, 2007), while females reported engaging in more transformational leadership behaviors than males (Eagly & Carli, 2007).

**Research Questions**

This study represents an effort to determine the differences between students and the peers that have served on semester-long teams with them in evaluating their leadership competence, including their leadership capacity, leadership self-efficacy, and motivation to lead. Moreover, as multi-rater methods are not appropriate for all contexts, we sought to determine the degree to which students self-ratings might predict their teammates’ assessments. Therefore, we posed the following research questions:

1. To what extent do teammate assessments of leader competence differ from students’ own assessments?
2. To what extent does gender affect teammate assessments?
3. To what extent can students’ self-assessment of leadership competence, confidence, and motivation be used to predict teammate assessments, controlling for prior leadership training?

Methods

Sample
This study was conducted at a large, public, research-intensive university in the Midwestern United States. Our sample consisted of students enrolled in an introductory elective course within the College of Engineering designed for first-semester freshman entering the College. The course, titled, “Team-based Project Management,” was focused on teaching teamwork skills within an outcome-based, goal-oriented professional environment. Instruction was relatively laissez-faire, where students were given minimal strategic direction, provided little formal instruction in teambuilding or relationship management, and allowed to choose their own projects. Stated outcomes for the course focused on developing strategic planning, goal setting, and team communication skills. Students were encouraged to experiment, take risks together, and collaborate with each other. All grades were assigned at the group level and related to the success of the group’s project, not their team dynamics. Across three course sections, 81 students fully participated in both the pre- and post-course surveys, encompassing most of the enrolled students. Approximately 74% (n=60) identified as male, while 66% (n=53) identified as Caucasian; 14% (n=11) as Asian American; 15% (n=12) as an international student; 2% (n=2) as Latino(a); and 3% (n=3) did not identify their race. Students also completed 215 assessments of their teammates, with an average of 2.7 teammate assessments completed per student.

Measures
The survey instrument combined scales associated with measurement of transformational and transactional leadership behaviors, leadership self-efficacy, and motivation to lead. To measure transformational and transactional leadership we utilized the Leader Behavior Scale (LBS) (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990), a popular 27-item instrument designed to measure behaviors that align to either transformational or transactional values. An example item measuring transformational behavior was, “I help other group members develop a team attitude and spirit among ourselves.” An example of an item measuring transactional leadership was, “I always give positive feedback when other group members perform well.” Item responses include a 5-point Likert scale ranging from “Strongly Agree” to “Strongly Disagree.” The LBS is a widely popular method of measuring transformational and transactional leadership (Yukl, 2010), chosen in this study because of the scales' connection with the measure of organizational citizenship (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990), an important factor for team success in modern organizations (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000). Internal reliability for this study was high – Cronbach’s alpha measured at .83 for the transformational scale, and .89 for the transactional scale.

To measure leadership self-efficacy, we used the Self-Efficacy for Leadership Scale (SEL) (Murphy, 1992), an 8-item scale measuring a person’s confidence in engaging in leadership behaviors. An example item within this scale is, “I know how to encourage good group performance.” Item responses include a 5-point Likert-scale ranging from “Strongly Disagree” to “Strongly Agree.” Internal reliability from previous research is good (Murphy & Enscher, 1999), and the scale has been shown to possess
convergent and discriminant validity with measure of self-esteem and leadership experiences (Hoyt, 2005). Internal reliability within this study was high, measured at .82

Students’ motivation to lead was measured using Chan & Drasgow’s (2001) Motivation to Lead (MTL) scale. The MTL scale includes 27 items divided equally across three subscales: Affective Identity (AI) Motivation, Social Normative (SN) Motivation, and Non-calculative (NC) Motivation. The AI scale measures the degree to which a person is personally drawn to leadership roles and includes items like, “Most of the time, I prefer being a leader rather than a follower when working in a group.” The SN scale determines the degree to which a person leads due to a sense of duty or responsibility to others and includes items like, “People should volunteer to lead rather than wait for others to ask or vote for them.” The NC scale measures the degree that a person avoids rationally calculating the individual costs and benefits of holding a leadership position and includes items like, “I never expect to get more privileges if I agree to lead a group.” Responses fell within a 5-point Likert scale ranging from “Strongly Disagree” to “Strongly Agree.” Internal reliability from previous research has found to be acceptable, ranging from .65 to .91 (Chan & Drasgow, 2001), and ranged in this study across the 3 scales from .62 to .84. Lastly, to control for the effects of prior leadership experience, the survey included an item asking students to rate their persistence in participating in prior training on 5-item Likert scale ranging from “consistently” to “never.”

Data Collection
The instructor of the course allocated classroom time for the researchers to distribute and collect the survey on the last day of class meetings. Students who participated also completed “teammate assessments” of each of their team members’ transformational and transactional leadership skills, using an adapted version of the LBS that substituted “This teammate” for “I” in survey items.

Data Analysis
To determine the differences between self and teammate assessments of leadership behaviors, we first created means for each student’s teammate scale scores. We then analyzed the means and dispersion of their and their teammates’ transformational and transactional scale scores by conducting paired samples t-tests and calculating effect sizes (Cohen, 1987) of means differences. The effect of gender on teammate evaluations were calculated by assigning students’ teammate scores to one of three groups: 1) a male-evaluating-female score; 2) a female-evaluating-male score; and 3) a same-gender evaluation. We examined the means and dispersion of each group and conducted a one-way ANOVA for both transformational and transactional leadership scores to determine the significance of the differences. To measure the strength of self-report predictors on teammate assessments of transformational and transactional leadership competence while controlling for prior leadership training, we conducted a two-step hierarchical multiple regression for both observer leadership skill scores, entering gender and prior leadership participation in the first step, and students’ transformational and transactional skill, leadership self-efficacy, and motivation to lead to lead in the second step.
Results

Self vs. Teammate Score Differences

The means and dispersion of each variable can be found in Table 1. Students rated their transactional leadership scores highest and their affective-identity-related motivation to lead lowest. Teammate assessments of students’ transformational and transactional leadership competence were lower than how students rated themselves.

Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>Pre-test</th>
<th>Post-test</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Transformational Leadership – Self (FormS)</td>
<td>N 81</td>
<td>µ 3.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SD .31</td>
<td>N 81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transactional Leadership (Self) (ActS)</td>
<td></td>
<td>µ 3.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>SD .51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-Efficacy for Leadership (SEL)</td>
<td></td>
<td>µ 3.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>SD .44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivation to Lead; Affective-Identity (MTL_AI)</td>
<td>N 81</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>µ 3.49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivation to Lead; Social-Normative (MTL_SN)</td>
<td>N 81</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>µ 3.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivation to Lead; Non-Calculative (MTL_NC)</td>
<td>N 81</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>µ 3.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transformational Leadership – Teammate (FormT)</td>
<td>N 215</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>µ 3.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transactional Leadership – Teammate (ActT)</td>
<td>N 215</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>µ 3.74</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Paired sample t-tests conducted on pre-test and corresponding post-test scores yielded significant results (p<.05) for FormS (p=.002) and MTL-SN (p<.001), indicating measurable score increases in transformational behaviors and social-normative motivation to lead over the course of the semester. The effect sizes for FormS was moderate (d=.34), and for MTL-SN was large (d=1.14), indicating that over the course of 15 weeks, students scored themselves moderately higher as a transformational leader, and substantially higher in their motivation to lead based on their sense of responsibility to their team members.

Teammate assessments for each student were averaged to create a mean teammate score; then a paired-samples t-test was conducted using student post-test scores and teammate mean scores for both transformational and transactional leadership scales. The results for both were significant; t(81) = 3.09, p=.003 and t(81) = 3.95, p=<.001, respectively. The effect size of each was moderate: .39 for the transformational leadership score difference and .54 for the score difference in transactional leadership. These results indicate that teammates score their team members moderately lower than team members score themselves.

Gender Effects

To determine the effect of gender on how students assess the leadership competence of their peers, teammate assessment scores were placed into three groups: 1) male-evaluating-female; 2) female-evaluating male; and 3) same-gender. Table 2 contains mean scores for transactional and transformational leadership analyzed by gender. While women consisted of only 26% of the sample,
their self-reported gains over the course of the semester outstripped male gains across both scales. We then compared self-reported post-test scores with assessments of teammates of the opposite gender. A significant result emerged in the way women were evaluated for transactional leadership behaviors (p<.05); men evaluated their female counterparts lower than women evaluated themselves. No other significant differences emerged.

Table 2

Leadership Competence Scores by Gender Differences

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>μ</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Transformational</td>
<td>Female-Self-Pre-test</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>3.75</td>
<td>.34</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female-Self-Post-test</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>4.04</td>
<td>.38</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male-Evaluating-Female</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>3.95</td>
<td>.42</td>
<td>0.49</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>.49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male-Self-Pre-test</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>3.76</td>
<td>.28</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male-Self-Post-test</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>.41</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female-Evaluating-Male</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>3.69</td>
<td>.85</td>
<td>1.17</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transactional</td>
<td>Female-Self-Pre-test</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>4.18</td>
<td>.46</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female-Self-Post-test</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>4.35</td>
<td>.53</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male-Evaluating-Female</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>3.99</td>
<td>.54</td>
<td>2.10</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male-Self-Pre-test</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>3.89</td>
<td>.52</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male-Self-Post-test</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>3.95</td>
<td>.53</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female-Evaluating-Male</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>3.74</td>
<td>.99</td>
<td>1.45</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>.14</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Individual Predictors of Teammate Assessments

The strength of each aspect of students’ self-reported leadership competency was calculated by conducting two-step multiple regressions using FormT and ActT as the dependent variables. The results for both regressions can be found in Tables 3 and 4 respectively. Gender emerged as a marginal predictor (p<.10) as teammate-reported transformational leadership score when student self-reported leadership competencies are not controlled for, while prior leadership training did not predict either scale score. Controlling for all variables, the only significant predictor (p<.05) of teammate transformational leadership score was Affective-Identity Motivation to Lead, while self-reported Transformational Leadership emerged as a marginal predictor (p<.10). Affective-Identity Motivation to Lead was also a significant predictor of teammates’ scoring of students’ Transactional Leadership, as well as self-reported Transformational Leadership, while self-reported Self-Efficacy for Leadership emerged as a marginal negative predictor (p<.10).

Table 3

Self-reported Leadership Predictors of Teammate Transformational Leadership Score*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Step One</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>SE</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>.26</td>
<td>.15</td>
<td>.21</td>
<td>.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prior Training</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.91</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Step Two
Table 4

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Step One</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>SE</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>.27</td>
<td>.16</td>
<td>.20</td>
<td>.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prior Training</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.91</td>
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<tr>
<td>Step Two</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>.27</td>
<td>.17</td>
<td>.20</td>
<td>.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prior Training</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>.13</td>
<td>.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FormS</td>
<td>.57</td>
<td>.26</td>
<td>.41</td>
<td>.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ActS</td>
<td>-.09</td>
<td>.15</td>
<td>-.09</td>
<td>.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MTL_AI</td>
<td>.28</td>
<td>.14</td>
<td>.33</td>
<td>.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MTL_SN</td>
<td>.10</td>
<td>.18</td>
<td>.09</td>
<td>.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MTL_NC</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>.13</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SEL</td>
<td>-.38</td>
<td>.21</td>
<td>-.35</td>
<td>.08</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* DV = FormT

Discussion and Implications

Our research was designed to determine the degree to which students differed from their peers regarding perceptions of their leadership skill, how students’ gender might affect these perceptions, and which individual leadership factors might predict teammates’ perceptions of skill. Our results showed that students’ own perceptions of their skill outstripped that of their teammates’ perceptions to a moderate extent (a .39 effect size regarding transformational leadership and .54 regarding transactional leadership). These findings seem to contradict earlier research in multi-rating assessments, which suggest that observers often are more lenient and accepting in assessing team members than those individuals are in assessing themselves (Fahr et al., 1991; Roch & McNall, 2007), even when those observers are fellow students who know those individuals well (Rosch, et al., 2012).

Men scored women higher than women scored men on both scales of leadership, which also corresponded to higher post-test scores from women overall. However, scores from male teammates were particularly depressed in evaluating their female teammates’ transactional leadership behaviors.
These findings corroborate past research that shows a female disadvantage in how others perceive them as leaders (citations from higher ed and management), even as their absolute and relative scores are higher than their male peers. These findings should be considered preliminary, though, as men outnumbered women in the course by two to one and the cell size for women was low.

The strongest individual predictor of teammate assessment of leadership skill across both scales was a student’s affective-identity motivation to lead, and was even stronger than individual assessment of skill with regard to transformational leadership. This finding suggests that the degree to which individuals consider themselves leaders of their peers leaves a powerful impression on those peers, and in some ways is even more powerful than behavior. Curiously, self-reported transactional leadership skill did not predict teammate assessments of either transformational or transactional leadership.

**Implications**

The results of this research study may indicate the significance of context and interdependence in peer assessments of an individual’s leadership skill. The students in this study possessed the ability to choose the projects in which they worked, and while they could not choose partners, the process ensured that not only were students placed in non-hierarchical interdependent work environments, they were assured placement on a team of peers who shared a common interest. The environment in which the students worked and conducted their assessments may explain some of the contradictory results found within the study. Peer assessment scores were lower than is often seen in multi-rater feedback systems (Alimo-Metcalfe, 1998), suggesting leniency was less of a factor in this study and that the peer assessments might have been more honest. Therefore, multi-rater feedback might be an effective tool for semester-long teams that work interdependently, a common occurrence in leadership development classrooms.

The findings in this study imply that women may be making up ground related to men in terms of how they are perceived as visionary leaders. While some men were scored higher by peers than most women, the scores assigned to women were statistically no different than scores assigned to men. While promising, these results could have been a factor of the specialized population of female students in the study – first-year engineering students in a male-dominated classroom.

Lastly, students’ affective-identity motivation to lead represented the strongest predictor of peer assessment of leadership skill. Despite calls to examine a more comprehensive picture of the leadership development process beyond skill acquisition (Dugan, 2011; Hannah & Avolio, 2010), motivation to lead has remained curiously understudied in the research literature. Our results indicate the significance that peers may place on students’ self-identity as emerging leaders, which may be even more relevant to peer assessment than behaviors and self-confidence.

**Limitations and Future Research**

This study was conducted on one campus and included only a specialized population – first-year Engineering students. While promising, the results would be enhanced if they would be replicated using broader, more diverse, populations. Would findings be similar within similarly interdependent
professional environments if anonymity could be assured? Or within higher education environments on intact and interdependent teams of students? Similarly, a larger sample would permit a more sophisticated statistical analysis, including multi-level modeling, which would allow future researchers to assess the significance of a “team-effect” on multi-rater assessment scores. It stands to reason that not all teams are created or interact equally, and research is necessary to examine the effects that individual teams have on patterns of multi-rater assessments of leadership skills.

A potential line of research in multi-rater feedback might examine differences between responses that are given for research purposes, such as within this study, and responses that are given for the explicit purpose of providing feedback to the person who is being assessed. Students may shift their responses if they knew that the target of their assessment would receive their feedback, even if anonymously. Educators who engage in multi-rater feedback for developmental purposes might benefit from knowing how students systemically bias their responses in this way.

Future research could also examine the degree that goals and structure effect peer assessment of skill. This study was focused on self-forming teams that shared common goals and were evaluated as a team, not individually. To what extent does individual agency in joining teams matter? Or level of evaluation matter? Findings within studies like this may vary, and if so, might further suggest the importance of team context to the pattern of peer assessment of leadership skill.

Lastly, prospective research could incorporate qualitative components to a multi-rater system. Emerging themes could be compared with quantitative data to determine differences between how individuals complete forced-choice survey items and longer, more contextual responses.
References


Students’ Self-identified Long-term Leadership Development Goals:
An Analysis by Gender and Race

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Abstract
The self-identified long-term leadership development goal statements of 92 undergraduate students enrolled in a self-directed leadership development program were analyzed to investigate differences across gender and race. This mixed-methods analysis utilized a theoretical framework that approached leadership typed as a trait, as a skill, or as a behavior (Northouse, 2009). Significant first-order differences in type emerged by gender. To a small-to-moderate extent, women were more interested in developing leadership-oriented traits while men displayed more interest in developing specific skills. No differences emerged across racial groups. An analysis of the interaction between race and gender showed that Caucasian men and women possessed goals that differed by type, while no other racial group differed by gender. Further qualitative analysis conducted within this sub-group revealed that Caucasian women seemed more focused on developing goals that would benefit the groups to which they belong, while Caucasian men seemed more interested in augmenting skills that would lead to a higher degree of personal success. These findings suggest important implications for leadership educators in how they educate their students, as well as how they communicate the goals of their programs and services.

Introduction
The development of leadership skills within the undergraduate college student population has long been a central mission of many institutions of higher education (Cress, Astin, Zimmerman-Oster, & Burkhardt, 2001; Dugan & Komives, 2007). Accordingly, leadership development initiatives designed for college students have been steadily increasing (Astin & Astin, 2000; Spralls, Garver, Divine, & Trotz, 2010). Over 1,000 colleges and universities in the United States currently offer leadership programs to students (Riggio, Ciulla, & Sorensen, 2003), a 20% increase in ten years (Schwartz, Axtman, & Freeman, 1998). Even as leadership programs continue to increase in numbers, however, a lack of consensus exists regarding what these programs should be designed to teach (Eich, 2008) and what students should gain from participating within them (Allen & Hartman, 2009).
While the lack of agreement is related, in part, to failure to produce a general theory of leadership (Goethals & Sorenson, 2006), it may also be related to a diversity of conceptions regarding what exactly leadership is. Northouse (2009), for example, describes leadership as, in part, a collection of traits that an individual possesses; a combination of certain skills and abilities; and a series of behaviors an individual exercises; all with the goal to create influence within a group of people concerned with achieving common goals. Given the variation in how leadership is conceptualized, students who choose to enroll in leadership education programs may differ in what they are interested in learning within the context of their own leadership development. The research we describe was designed to investigate students’ self-identified leadership learning goals as these students entered into a multi-semester leadership certificate program in college, with a particular focus on examining differences in goals across students’ race and gender.

**Goal-setting for Leadership Development**

Developing an understanding of students’ self-identified leadership development goals is significant, as instruction is more effective when based on students’ background and interests, and takes into account their goals (Ambrose, Bridges, DiPietro, Lovett, & Norman, 2010). While research highlighting the difficulty of effective education without understanding students’ goals was established a generation ago (Entwistle, 1987), gaps continue to exist today (Vermunt & Minnaert, 2003). These gaps may be even more significant in the field of leadership education. A recent study of leadership programs (Owen, 2012) revealed the prevalence in teaching of prescriptive models of leadership such as the Relational Leadership Model (Komives, Lucas, & McMahon, 2007) and the Leadership Challenge (Kouzes & Posner, 2008), where students experience curriculum which seeks to inform them not only in how to be effective, but defines such effectiveness for them. For example, students in programs that espouse popular models like these are taught that leadership is not simply the exercise of power or control, but rather is a process of influencing a group towards common positive goals. In programs that utilize these models, effective educators should presumably approach students who are interested in learning leadership as “command-and-control” differently than a student interested in learning group process skills, for example.

A vast body of over 1,000 research articles in goal-setting (Kaufman, Israel, & Rudd, 2008) has shown the significant degree to which individuals’ goals affect their motivation for learning and later performance (Locke & Latham, 2002). Specifically, they help direct and energize, as well as aid in task persistence and skill acquisition (Locke & Latham, 2002). However, goal-setting theory has been underutilized in the field of leadership development (Kaufman, et al., 2008) and specifically in leadership programs in higher education. Currently, little research has been conducted that examines a broad population of students in how they are interested in their own leadership development regarding their self-identified goals in participating. Without a more systemic understanding of what students hope to gain by participating in leadership programs, educators are left guessing as to how to best support students in their development and most efficiently educate them in gaining capacity. The process of understanding students’ goals may be made more difficult given how differently groups of students from diverse social identities practice leadership.
Demographic Differences in Leadership Practices

Consideration for culture and social identity as factors in how students conceptualize, develop, and practice leadership is noteworthy (Osticke & Wall, 2011). Outside of higher education, much has been written about the differences between the leadership-oriented goals and actions between men and women (Eagly & Carli, 2003) and across different races and ethnicities (Bordas, 2007). Within the context of colleges and universities, recent research shows that differences exist by gender in student perceptions of capacity gains through leadership development programs (Yarrish, Zula, & Davis, 2010). Another study showed male students rated themselves higher than females, and Caucasian students higher than Students of Color, on a general measure of leadership ability (Kezar & Moriarty, 2000). However, using the framework of the Social Change Model of Leadership Development, which is explicitly relationship-oriented and focused on positive community change (Higher Education Research Institute, 1996), women tend to score higher than men on quantitative measures (Dugan & Komives, 2007), potentially reflecting the predominance with which women are motivated to lead based on their connection to the groups to which they belong and the purposes for which those groups exist (Boatwright & Egidio, 2003).

Arminio, et al. (2000) was one of the first scholars to focus on the perceived differences in leadership practices between Caucasian students and Students of color, finding that Students of color in the United States often disdain the role of “leader” while recognizing the potential social cost in their community in holding a position of leadership. More recent evidence suggests that Students of color display vast differences in self-reported leadership capacity based on their specific race and the construct of leadership being measured (Dugan & Komives, 2010). Clearly, race and gender play a significant role in how students conceptualize and perceive their practice of leadership, which presumably would influence their aims in participating in leadership development programs.

Theoretical Framework

Northouse (2009, 2010) summarizes several approaches to a comprehensive conceptualization of leadership, including approaching leadership as a trait, a skill, a behavior, and a relationship. While a multi-level examination of leadership (Day, 2001; Murphy & Johnson, 2011) would include a “leadership as relationship” conceptualization, our research examines individual students about to participate in a long-term leadership program divorced from the groups to which they belong, and therefore we focused specifically on the individual attributes associated with effective leadership actions – attributes that are often commonly emphasized in leadership development programs in higher education (Owen, 2012). These attributes are often divided into three categories: traits (e.g. confidence, extraversion), skills (e.g. multicultural competence, public speaking), and behaviors (e.g. encouraging others, listening to others’ ideas).

Research focusing on leadership as a trait has re-emerged recently with a focus on charisma and the relational skills requisite for success within transformational (Bass, 1998) and authentic (Avolio & Gardner, 2005) leadership frameworks. Northouse (2009) identifies intelligence, self-confidence, determination, integrity, and sociability as most popularly associated with individual leadership effectiveness. Presumably, students who feel they currently lack these attributes may seek them out.
through participating in leadership programs. Leadership skills can be contrasted with traits in that while traits are commonly thought to be “innate and largely fixed” (Northouse, 2009, p. 39), skills can be learned and developed. Katz (1955) is most commonly associated with a skills approach, and categorizes leadership skills as primarily either administrative, human, or conceptual, we defined leadership skills more broadly as any proficiency that could be developed through a combination of instruction and practice, and which could be applied for greater leadership effectiveness. Lastly, leadership behavior models focus on what leaders do and how they act (Northouse, 2009), popularized first by Blake and Mouton’s (Blake & Mouton, 1964) “managerial grid” describing the task-oriented and relationship-oriented actions of effective leaders. A summary of these three categories can be found in Table 1. These three approaches to the practice of leadership – trait, skill, and behavior – represent the framework for our investigation in students’ goals in participating in leadership programs.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Trait</th>
<th>A focus on personal qualities generally considered present in the individual practice of leadership, such as confidence and intelligence.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Skill</td>
<td>A focus on developing competence in a general set of actions associated with effective leadership, such as interpersonal communication or self-management.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Behavior</td>
<td>A focus on specific, discrete conduct that, if practiced, would lead to an effective leadership outcome, such as providing feedback or engaging in mentoring behaviors toward others.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Our research investigated a long-term leadership certificate program that required students to identify two leadership-oriented “learning goals” at the outset of their participation. Specifically, using a framework of the three categories described above, we examined emerging themes in these leadership goals. Our research focused on the following questions:

1. Do students differ by gender or race in their identification of trait emergence, skill development, or behavioral commitment as central goals within their leadership development?
2. Where differences do exist, what themes emerge in a study of individual goals that might inform how these groups approach their leadership development differently?

Increasing our awareness of how demography may predict preferred outcomes would lead to more nuanced curriculum development and communication efforts across campus.

Methods

Population and Sample
The research was conducted at a large, research-extensive university located in the Midwestern United States. All enrolled undergraduate students have the option of participating in a non-credit Leadership Certificate Program, a self-directed non-transcriptable experience that involves participating in a series of elective leadership development initiatives while working with a mentor. During the period in which
the research took place, 249 students enrolled in the Program. Within the overall program, 67% identified as female, 57% as Caucasian, 31% as Asian/Asian-American, 4% as Latino/a, and 8% as African-American. Given that the study was focused on examining race and gender characterizations, a sample of 92 students was drawn using stratified random sampling to approximate more equal sample sizes in regard to racial grouping. The sample included 52 women (57%) and 40 men (43%), 19 African-American students (21%); 30 Asian-American students (33%); 34 Caucasian students (37%); and 9 Latino students (10%). Compared to the overall campus undergraduate population, Caucasian students were underrepresented, while African-American and Asian-American students were overrepresented within the sample.

**Data Collection**

In the first semester of their enrollment in the long-term leadership certificate program, all students create a *Personal Development Plan* (PDP). The PDP documents for the 2009-2010, 2010-2011, and 2011-2012 academic years were scrubbed of individually identifiable information and provided anonymously to the researchers by campus administrators. As a part of each PDP, the students develop two significant and independent learning goals – what they commit to learning about, developing in, and/or practicing while enrolled in the certificate program – using 100-200 word statements. The two learning goals were extracted from each PDP and entered into a spreadsheet. Each goal was assigned an identifying number and coded as to the student’s gender and race. An example of a PDP, written by an African-American female, was

> I want to increase my multicultural competence. I want to become more socially aware of different cultures, communities and people. I once read somewhere that America should not be thought of as a melting pot, but rather a stew. It should be thought of as a stew because everyone has distinctive characteristics that make them unique, but all of these different combinations of people bring different and important flavors to the stew. It is important to remember that not everyone is the same and everyone brings something different to the table. People should not be “melted” into one identity, but rather the tomato, pepper, and potato should be appreciated for their own identity and recognized for how their individual characteristics contribute to the stew (Goal 43).

**Data Analysis**

The authors conducted a content analysis of each student’s learning goals within the program. Klenke describes content analysis as “a tool used to determine the presence of certain content within texts” (2008, p. 89). Content analysis can take either quantitative or qualitative form. Quantitative analysis of qualitative data, such as text, may even be conducted (Morgan, 1993). Content analysis involves coding data by breaking it down into manageable categories. Categories may be either pre-determined or allowed to emerge.

Northouse (2009) describes “leadership” as, alternatively, a trait, an ability, a skill, a behavior, and a relationship. When describing the characteristics of a leader, Yukl (2010) also lists traits, skills/expertise, and behaviors. Combining the two popular approaches to the personal development of leader effectiveness results in the following three leadership-oriented attribute areas: traits, skills, and
behaviors. These categories were used as the framework to categorize students’ goals. The authors developed detailed descriptors for each category to guide the coding process. Three researchers first coded a small sample of student goals and compared results to develop a common understanding of the descriptors used for each of Northouse’s (2009) leadership concepts. For example, a goal statement that is summarized as, “I would like to take more initiative to make change in my student organization” would be coded as a “trait,” as “initiative” is commonly considered a trait-like personal attribute. A statement summarized as, “For me to achieve my career goals, I will need to be able to deliver presentations, and therefore I want to become a better public speaker” was coded as a “skill,” as public-speaking can be described as a broad set of actions that can be developed through training and practice. A goal such as, “I need to begin using personal introspection every night before I go to sleep” was categorized as a “behavior” since it described a discrete action applicable in only certain circumstances and did not imply a need to develop competence before its practice. The researchers then coded each student goal statement independently. Inter-coder reliability (Klenke, 2008) was established by comparing coding between the researchers. This comparison resulted in an initial 90% reliability. Disparities in coding between researchers were then compared to the leadership concept descriptions and discussed between the researchers until consensus was reached.

Results

Frequency Analysis of Goals by Race and Gender

From the sample of 92 students, a total of 183 learning goals were collected. One student listed one goal instead of two. From these 183 goals, the researchers characterized 53% (n=97) as a “skill,” 32% (n=59) as a “trait,” and 12% (n=22) as a “behavior.” The remaining learning goals were ambiguously written and could not be classified as one of the above. The sample was then sorted by gender, creating a set of learning goals identified by women, and another set by men. Within the female sample, the researchers characterized 43% (n=45) as a “skill,” 39% (n=41) as a “trait,” and 14% (n=15) as a “behavior.” Within the male sample, 65% (n=52) of learning goals were labeled a “skill,” 23% (n=18) as a “trait,” and 10% (n=8) as a “behavior.” The sample was then sorted by race and the learning goals within each racial category were counted. A summary of these data can be found in Table 2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Learning Goal</th>
<th>Overall</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>African-American</th>
<th>Asian-American</th>
<th>Caucasian</th>
<th>Latino/a</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Skill</td>
<td>97 (53%)</td>
<td>52 (65%)</td>
<td>45 (43%)</td>
<td>18 (47%)</td>
<td>35 (58%)</td>
<td>34 (50%)</td>
<td>10 (56%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trait</td>
<td>59 (32%)</td>
<td>18 (23%)</td>
<td>41 (39%)</td>
<td>15 (39%)</td>
<td>15 (25%)</td>
<td>24 (35%)</td>
<td>5 (28%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Behavior</td>
<td>22 (12%)</td>
<td>8 (10%)</td>
<td>15 (14%)</td>
<td>2 (5%)</td>
<td>9 (15%)</td>
<td>9 (13%)</td>
<td>3 (17%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chi-square analyses examining students’ self-identified learning goals were then conducted, first with respect to gender, then with respect to race, and last with respect to both gender and race, to compare the differing frequencies with which these sub-populations identified traits, skills, or behaviors as
personal leadership development goals. A significant difference was found with respect to gender: $\chi^2 (2,179)=8.79, p=.01$. We calculated Cramer’s phi to assess the size of the significant effect (Ellis, 2010), and found it to be .22, considered a small-to-moderate effect. No significant difference was found with respect to race: $\chi^2 (6,179)=4.73; p=.58$. We then conducted a series of chi-square tests that included both gender and race. Because a significant difference was found by gender, but not race, we first divided the sample by race, and then conducted separate chi-square tests by gender within each racial category. We found a significant difference in leadership development goals by gender only within the Caucasian sample: $\chi^2 (2,67)=7.21; p=.03$, where Cramer’s phi demonstrated a moderate effect, at .33. Specifically, Caucasian women identified traits in their leadership goals more often than men: 15 out of 34 total goals (44%) for women, compared to 8 out of 34 total goals (24%) for men. Caucasian women also listed behaviors more often than men as well: 7 goals (21%) to 2 goals (6%). Caucasian men identified skills more often than women: 22 goals (65%) to 12 goals (35%).

Due to the moderately differing frequency with which Caucasian men and women identified traits, skills, or behaviors within their personal leadership development goals, these goals were then analyzed more closely to determine if themes emerged that might inform leadership educators of differences in how these groups conceptualized their idealized practice of leadership. Because no statistically significant differences emerged within the other populations, the leadership development goals of the other groups were not analyzed more comprehensively.

**Theme Analysis of Goals by Gender**

The analysis of the leadership development goals of Caucasian men and women yielded several noteworthy results. We describe each, first from an overarching perspective transcending the three approaches within our framework, and then within each approach. In general, the goals described by Caucasian women seemed more introspective (i.e. examining the status of their own effectiveness in a detailed way), often with the goal to improve the groups to which the women belonged. In contrast, Caucasian men were not as detailed in describing the current state of their leadership development, and listed goals that focused more on their own self-development, often not mentioning the benefits that might accrue on an organizational level. A comment typical in the group of goals created by Caucasian women, coded as a “behavior” for its focus on discrete action in specific circumstances, was:

I would like to acknowledge the accomplishments of others as well as my own achievements. All too often I notice all of the things that I do wrong, and completely let the annoyance of a minor failure usurp the joy of triumphs for which I have been successful. The same case goes for what I observe for other people. With my friends, when I find myself being angry at other people, it takes all of my will power for me to draw up all of the memories of the great things that they do for me to forget about the one issue I am having. I think a great way to solve this is to consciously look for the accomplishments that other people have (Goal 76).

This personal leadership development goal shows a degree of self-examination founded upon remembered past behaviors that, if practiced, will likely improve the organization to which the student belongs. A typical goal from a Caucasian man, categorized as a “skill,” was:
My second improvement [goal] is focused on sharpening my writing skills for law school. I have recently taken on a staff writing position for The Gavel, the Pre-Law Club monthly publication. In addition, I am taking many courses centered on reading and writing such as philosophy and political science. I want to familiarize myself with legal writing and expose myself to intense writing and critique so I am prepared for when I enter law school (Goal 28). Goals like the one above from the Caucasian male, while specific and detailed, do not include a critical examination of his current status, nor are they explicit in how such behaviors would benefit the groups to which he belongs.

**Caucasian “Traits” by Gender**
The students’ leadership development goals were also analyzed within each “type” to ascertain differences between Caucasian men and women. Moderately more women identified trait-like leadership development goals, and while similarities existed between the goals of men and women in this category, important differences emerged. For example, students from both genders identified “confidence” and “initiative” as traits they would like to develop. However, while many women defined confidence as the assuredness necessary to speak up in a group to share ideas or help the group make decisions, several men defined confidence more as what is necessary to risk making personal decisions that may fail. For example, a Caucasian woman’s goal was to:

... demonstrate a higher amount of self-confidence. For some time, I have realized that this is an area of leadership I need to improve in and it is something that I have discussed with family and friends. As a leader it is important that I continue to grow in self-confidence, because it will lead to more opportunities to influence change. As I mentioned earlier, my level of self-confidence may impact the level of extraversion I display, and cultivating my self-confidence will help others join me in promoting a mission or message. I know that I would not want to follow someone who was not confident in their capabilities, which is why it is critical that my self-confidence grows so that I can move to the next level of being a leader and enacting positive change (Goal 72).

In contrast, one of the Caucasian men defined his goal to increase his sense of confidence as:

... to be more self-confident and to not risk failing, but instead embrace it. I avoid risks because I fear failing and the consequences of it. I want to be more confident in myself and learn to take failure as a learning experience. I, like many pre-medical students, think of myself of a perfectionist. I feel the need to do everything perfectly no matter how long that may take or how difficult that may be. However when I fail, I beat myself up for days at a time and try to ignore and bury my failure. This undoubtedly leads to me repeating the same mistakes again, and failing once more. I need to learn to take risks and deal with failures in a positive manner in order for anything good to come out of them. Failures need to be taken as a learning experience, something that needs to be analyzed and taken apart so that the mistake(s) you made do not happen again (Goal 36).
Similarly, while both women and men identified goals to increase their sense of initiative, men seemed more interested in developing initiative to overcome the opposition or complacency of others, while women were more interested in developing their own personal sense of their life’s direction. For example, a Caucasian male explained a goal to develop his sense of initiative in the following way:

...during this academic year at the [fraternity] house, I became exposed to the first time [a] severely weak leadership [within the house]. Over the past year or so, I have been spoiled and been working with really good leaders. This exposure to a void of leadership was impressive seeing that I didn’t know how to react. Now knowing this, I must work on finding a way to be an effective emergent leader even when there is no leadership and no interest in finding good leadership (Goal 24).

Initiative, for women in the sample, was described more as the ability to take initiative over one’s own life and find a personal sense of direction within it. For example, a Caucasian woman stated:

I occasionally have trouble seeing the bigger picture when dealing with my life... I need to work on looking into the future and creating a sense of direction for myself. I like to focus on other people because that distracts me from looking at where my life is heading. My future is so important, and most of the time I don’t like to look ahead because I am scared of change. As I get older and become more mature, I want to be more accepting of change. I am finally adjusting to living on my own at college, but I have realized that this change requires a lot of responsibility. Now I have to take care of myself and I am responsible for perusing my dreams and planning my future. This will help me to become a better leader because I will have already established a vision and future for myself, so I will be able to continue to help others do the same (Goal 79).

Fewer men than women identified leadership development goals categorized as traits. A category that emerged in the group of Caucasian women that was absent in the group of men we labeled as “emotional self-awareness.” Female students generally described this trait as the ability to see within oneself one’s emotional state, and possessing this knowledge, connect one’s behavior to it. For example, a Caucasian woman described one of her leadership development goals as:

... analyzing my emotions so I know why I am feeling those specific emotions along with connecting my feelings with my actions and words. Additionally, with analyzing my emotions I will be able to see how they affect my performance. The process and achievement of improving my emotional self-awareness is important in my growth as a leader. Leaders need to be aware of their emotions. The awareness of one’s emotions will not only benefit the leader but also the followers (Goal 85).

Caucasian women who identified leadership development goals that could be categorized as traits seemed to focus more on group success that would follow from increased effectiveness, while men tended to emphasize the individual achievement expected to result from meeting their goals.

Caucasian “Skills” by Gender
Three themes emerged in the category of “skills” within the leadership development goals of Caucasian men and women: communication skills, leading small groups, and time/self-management. Unlike within the “trait” category, no themes emerged in one gender that was not also represented in the other.
However, more men were represented within each theme as men identified skills to a greater extent than women.

Several men – twice as many as women – listed leadership development goals related to increasing their communication skills, and consistently described these skills as the desire to convey one’s thoughts and actions better to others. For many, their goal was to become a better public speaker. The following comment typified the leadership development goals related to communication for Caucasian men:

If I ever plan to be in an upper management position I will need to deliver presentations to employees and investors. I will need to be a confident and effective orator. For this reason, I want to become a better public speaker. Growing up I was never really forced to take a public speaking class. Being an engineer at [institution], that is not something that is even thought about. [Institution] produces some of the best and brightest engineers in the world. I feel there would be many more, though, if engineers were also taught to communicate better. I don’t want to be just another technically competent engineer. I want to be the one standing up leading the group of engineers. I want to be the guy that talks to CEOs and owners of companies and convinces them that we have the knowledge to do their project. To become a better public speaker, I believe I need to immerse myself in situations where I am forced to speak publicly (Goal 29).

In contrast, women seemed more interested in developing their communication skills to better connect with groups to which they belong, and by increasing connections with their members, become a more effective leader. This would then lead to increased success within the group. For example, a Caucasian woman shared:

To continue my successful development as a leader, I will build upon my ... communication skills. I believe that communicating well as a leader is not only required but expected. Through the demonstration of strong communication skills, leaders are able to connect with their followers on all effective levels. It is important to connect to one’s followers on all levels such as relationship and task because most people are not just focused on one (Goal 80).

Both Caucasian men and women were interested in developing their management of their time, recognizing that how their time is structured and filled is a key variable in becoming a more effective leader. Again, important differences emerged between the two groups. Men seemed to define time management as the ability to prioritize their formal responsibilities as a student and emerging leader, while women seemed more interested in developing an increased skill in balancing their responsibilities with their personal relationships. For example, a Caucasian male wrote:

This past semester, I have found it to be extremely challenging to strike a balance between schoolwork, work, Fraternity, extracurricular activities, and the extra responsibilities I participate with. Not only did my underestimation of time commitments for the [fraternity] add stress, uncertainties about the general experience, and continuously changing requirements, caught me off guard. Also, my booked calendar didn’t help matters. Looking back at this past semester, I found that I overstressed myself about something that wasn’t worth stressing about. Moving forward, I plan on and hope to
develop my ability to worry less about “small things” and focus more on the important tasks (Goal 24). Caucasian women seemed less concerned with the prioritization of tasks than with balancing tasks with relationships. For example, a Caucasian woman shared:

My first goal is to take on the responsibility of maintaining positive relationships with friends, peers and networking contacts. As many other college students, I sometimes feel as though I am overwhelmed and that if each day had only 5 more hours, everything would be perfect. As I near my final year here... I have found myself taking on more and more responsibilities. I want to accomplish and take part in so many different programs that I sometimes feel overwhelmed by the number of commitments that I have. I would like to learn how to balance all my commitments and school work with my personal relationships. I noticed that I consistently keep to myself and do not take time to maintain my personal relationships when I become busy... By focusing on scheduling and time-management skills, I will give myself more time where I can maintain those relationships. Once I have reached my goal, I will be considered someone that people can turn to and depend on (Goal 75).

Lastly, both men and women in the Caucasian group identified leadership development skills that would assist in their supervision and management of small groups. However, while several men seemed more interested in learning how to delegate (e.g. “My goal is to learn how to delegate effectively and be confident in my team’s abilities to get a job done.”), women seemed more interested in the skills to engender a common purpose within a group setting, such as the woman who stated, “I have found that a lot of time, small groups are dominated by one person’s opinions or that no one really feels comfortable contributing. With this goal, I hope to collaborate (sic) everyone’s ideas when working in small groups.”

Caucasian “Behaviors” by Gender

Only two Caucasian men identified a leadership development goal that was coded as a behavior, and therefore, no themes could be drawn from their responses. However, several Caucasian women identified the necessity to better attend to the needs of the groups to which they belong. For example one woman stated, “I will need to focus on the attention I give each committee member. I will give group members individualized attention and ask them if they have any concerns about [speaking up]” (Goal 76). Another woman shared, “I do not create an environment where trust and collaboration grows. By becoming a mentor to others in my group, I can become a more flexible leader who supports and guides others...” (Goal 69). Statements such as these seemed to reinforce a theme that Caucasian women who participated in the study focused more on group success and the processes necessary to create it.

Discussion

Our research consisted of an analysis of students’ self-identified long-term leadership goals examined by race and gender. From the perspective of race, no significant first-order differences emerged across student racial groups. Our findings indicated that moderate differences exist between the way male and female students conceptualize their practice of leadership and the goals they set for themselves when
entering into a self-directed leadership development experience. Men identified “skills” more often than women, while women identified “traits” and to a smaller extent, “behaviors” more often than men. When considering race and gender together, significant differences were found only between Caucasian men and women. Within the Caucasian sample, women were more attracted to developing the traits of leaders, while men seemed more attracted to developing discrete skills. A qualitative content analysis of the Caucasian students’ goal statements revealed several distinctions between the way males and females in this group perceived their practice of leadership and how they would like to further develop as leaders. Findings suggested that Caucasian women demonstrated a higher degree of introspection and were focused more on how their leadership behaviors would be integrated within the processes of groups to which they belonged. In contrast, Caucasian men did not attend to the same extent to group process; they focused more often on how achieving their goals would lead to a higher degree of individual success.

**Traits vs. Skills**
Caucasian women identified trait-like leadership development goals more frequently than Caucasian men, who identified skill-like goals more frequently. Developing skills may be more straightforward than improving on one traits, which are often based on one’s values (Yukl, 2010). This may explain, at least in part, why women are now more frequent participants of non-credit university leadership development programs than men (Owen, 2012), especially since so many of these programs utilize values-based curricula. Further, our findings imply that traits students are frequently interested in developing are self-confidence and initiative, yet how these traits may be sought to be applied in a leadership context may differ by gender. Our findings suggested Caucasian men seemed more interested in developing confidence and initiative so they could overcome opposition and/or risk failure, while Caucasian women seemed more interested in these two traits so they could fully participate in influencing change. Similar differences could be seen in skills-like goals students identified; men seemed interested in developing communication skills for public speaking to help convince others of their own views, while women seemed more interested in developing these skills to better connect with other group members. While both groups’ goals overlap, their differences may imply that Caucasian men view leadership as more accepting of overt opposition than Caucasian women, a finding that has been shown in business settings (Eagly & Carli, 2007).

**Internal vs. External Orientation**
Caucasian men seemed to identify leadership development goals that were more internally focused than goals identified by Caucasian women. For example, while students from both groups identified “time management” as a skill to augment, several men seemed more interested in how the skill would allow them to achieve their individual goals, while women often viewed time management as the ability to balance time spent in all aspects of their lives – personal, school, and social. Similarly, while Caucasian men identified their goals within the context of the groups to which they were often a part, their trait-like and skill-like goals explicitly focused on their internal success. Caucasian women, however, identified success more as something that would be shared with others.
Implications
These findings hold significant implications for leadership educators at the university level. The goals with which students approach an educational experience may strongly influence the degree to which students learn (Kaufman, et al., 2008), while past research has shown how students augment their learning when their preferences for developmental focus are attended to (Allen & Hartman, 2009). Our findings demonstrate the potential for moderate differences by gender in how students approach their own leadership development. The extent to which educators should explicitly attend to these differences remains to be seen. While men seem more attracted than women to developing skill rather than traits, and focusing on how their growth applies to their own goals rather than those of their groups, does that mean that leadership development programs should develop gender-based curricula? Such an approach has been suggested in elementary education (Gurian & Ballew, 2003). A more balanced approach may be to implicitly attend to these differences by focusing on both skills and traits, and by providing a wealth of examples of how their development may be applied both individually and within groups. Still, recent research shows that women are beginning to participate more frequently than men in many university-level leadership development programs (Dugan & Komives, 2010), a change from a decade ago (Cress, et al., 2001). This shift may be a result of a more explicit focus on the long-standing effort to focus more on traits and values of effective leadership in university programs (Astin & Astin, 2000). Given our findings, women would be more interested in learning about these traits and values, and therefore more attracted to participating in programs that focus on them. Further examination of this trend may be warranted.

Limitations and Future Research
Several limitations existed within this study that could be addressed in future research efforts. Our research took place on a single campus. Including students from a broader diversity of campuses may more comprehensively inform educators on goal differences in students’ leadership development. Moreover, we qualitatively examined gender differences in goal statements from the Caucasian subsample, the only racial grouping that showed significant differences by goal attribute. Further study should examine differences across other racial categorizations as well. Even though these groups did not show differences in trait, skill, and behavior frequencies in their goal statements, more complex differences might emerge through more comprehensive analysis. Lastly, our findings were based on pre-existing content analysis of statements created for enrollment within a leadership development program. Individual or focus-group interviews conducted on this topic might yield a different perspective or more comprehensively inform goal-oriented differences by race or gender.


The Chefs of Gumbo University: The Experiences of Women Who Are Senior-level Higher Education Administrators in Louisiana

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Abstract
There appears to be a disparity of equitable representation between women and men in senior leadership positions in higher education. The focus of this qualitative phenomenological study was to explore the lived experiences of 17 female senior level higher education administrators in Louisiana. Themes that emerged from the interviews suggested that women seeking leadership roles in higher education (a) are collaborators and consensus builders, (b) hard workers, knowledgeable in the profession, confident, and rely on role models, (c) educated, tenured, worked at a four-year public institution, and 50 years old or more, and (d) limited to career advancement due to unequal treatment, culture of the institution, not working hard, and not having the needed education.

Introduction
Throughout history, leaders have been males or women who had male-like characteristics (Eagly & Karau, 2002). Historically, society has continued to identify leaders as men, specifically great men (Bass, 1990). A great man earned leadership positions primarily because of personal wealth, whether earned or inherited. One can find examples of great men leaders in the Bible, religious institutions, politics, corporations, military, education at all levels, and in other organizations. Thus, society has excluded women as leaders because of many not having the sought after great man traits. Many viewed women leaders as ones who gained leadership positions by any means possible, including dishonest practices, causing women in contemporary times to have great difficulty in assuming leadership positions (Bolman & Deal, 2003).

The great man theory, though changing, continues to prevail today in both corporate organizations and in higher education (Bass, 1990). In higher education, the number of women college presidents has increased from 9.1% to 21.1% since 1986, but college presidents are still mostly men. The highest representation is (27%) women leaders in two-year colleges. Women represent 13% of presidents in doctorate-granting institutions. Women still represent the minority of individuals who hold senior-level positions. For example, the typical college president is a 57-year old white male, married, with a doctorate, in office for 6.6 years, and previously worked as chief academic officer or provost (American Council on Education, 2002).

The purpose of this qualitative phenomenological study was to explore the lived experiences of female participants. Experiences included skills and behaviors perceived as factors helpful for a female to
ascend to a senior leadership position in higher education in Louisiana. The study participants were women who had experience and served as senior-level administrators within one of 14 four-year public universities. The purposive sample included a chancellor, an executive vice president, a provost, vice presidents, vice chancellors, and a vice provost. The research questions guiding this study explored and collected participant insights in the structures, processes, and career ascension experiences of female senior-level higher education administrators.

**Method**

The research method selected for this study was qualitative. Qualitative research “examines human behavior in the social, cultural, and political contexts in which they occur” (Salkind, 2003, p. 13). A qualitative research method explores a research problem to understand a central phenomenon (Creswell, 2002; Neuman, 2003; Salkind, 2003). An investigation of a research problem was necessary because little research exists or researchers know only a limited amount about the phenomenon studied. In this study, a minimal amount of literature existed about the experiences of women in senior-level higher education administrative positions in Louisiana. Obtaining and maintaining a leadership position as senior-level higher education administrator is a complex study and required a qualitative method, including a thorough investigation (Creswell, 2002; Neuman, 2003; Salkind, 2003). A qualitative study was appropriate for this exploration and phenomenology and is the best method to use when seeking meaning and understanding of a phenomenon under study (Creswell, 2002). Certain factors determined the research method most appropriate for the problem. According to Creswell (1994), for quantitative research,

- the problem evolves from the literature, so a substantial body of literature exists on which the researcher can build. Variables are known, and theories may exist that need to be tested and verified. For qualitative studies the research problem needs to be explored because little information exists on the topic. The variables are largely unknown, and the researcher wants to focus on the context that may shape the understanding of the phenomenon being studied. (p. 10)

The phenomenological method facilitated in achieving the goals of the study because the method of reflection required by the participants “occurs throughout the phenomenological approach [and] provides a logical, systematic, and coherent resource for carrying out the analysis and synthesis needed to arrive at essential descriptions of experience” (Moustakas, 1994, p. 47). Hycner (1999) explained that selecting a group of participants and studying the phenomenon dictates the design to use in research. The focus of this study was an attempt to provide new data that can help enhance and develop strategies implementing specialized training, support systems, or programs that might enable females to gain senior leadership positions in higher education.

The research questions were broad and open-ended to explore the experiences of women in senior-level higher education administrative positions in Louisiana. Data collection and analysis methods used in this study were qualitative. An oral interview took place with the participants accompanied with audio recordings and typed transcripts. The interviews of the participants ultimately provided data essential to identify themes.
A phenomenological research design was essential because the literature lacks information about the experiences of women in senior-level higher education administrative positions in the state of Louisiana (Creswell, 2002). Performing a phenomenological research design allowed the women to tell their stories and to share their lives with others (Creswell, 2002). In addition, participants in this study provided their personal accounts about the barriers and status of female senior-level higher education administrators in Louisiana. In this study, a phenomenological research design provided the reader mental pictures of successful women through the descriptive narrative of the purposive sample of participants (Lawrence-Lightfoot & Davis, 1997) who have acquired positions as senior-level higher education administrative leaders in Louisiana. This design allowed the participants an opportunity to reflect on their professional and personal experiences (Cortazzi, 1993).

Within this study, the purposive sample included a chancellor, an executive vice president, a provost, vice presidents, vice chancellors, and a vice provost. The following research questions guided the study and contributed information for analysis:

1. What patterns, themes, or trends do female senior-level higher education administrators perceive that characterize the professional skills needed by female senior-level higher education administrators?
2. What strategies do female senior-level higher education administrators use in establishing their professional identity?
3. What strategies do females use to gain entry into the role of a senior-level higher education administrator?
4. What norms, biases, or barriers do female senior-level higher education administrators perceive that limit the career advancement of women to senior-level higher education administration?
5. What insights can be gained from the demographic information pertaining to the female senior-level higher education administrative personal and professional background?

The target population or sampling frame (Creswell, 2002) included senior-level women in one of the 14 four-year public universities in Louisiana. Because senior-level women were not present at all 14 institutions, the study included the following: Grambling State University, Louisiana State University, Louisiana State University in Shreveport, Louisiana Tech University, McNeese State University, Northwestern State University, Southern University and A & M College, Southern University at New Orleans, University of Louisiana at Lafayette, and University of New Orleans.

The right instrument is critical to the success of the interviews and the research study (Meltzoff, 1998). A questionnaire and set of open-ended questions gathered the interview data, followed by an analysis to identify emerging themes. A management tool to avoid a lengthy and redundant interview consisted of a questionnaire, which the participants filled out in advance. The questionnaire, collected before the interviews, served to obtain professional and personal information and assist with developing themes. Taped interviews served as a means by which to check interviewee information for accuracy with the field notes.

The data collection process occurred eight days during a three-week period. Week one consisted of 13 interviews: three on the first day, three on the second day, one on the third day, three on the fourth day
and three on the fifth day. Week two consisted of three interviews: two on the sixth day, one on the seventh day. The final interview occurred during week three, which was a telephone interview. Interviews lasted a minimum of 25 minutes and a maximum of one hour and fifteen minutes. The distance traveled by the researcher to the various participant interviews totaled 1,082 miles round trip. Collecting data involved several e-mails, telephone calls, and faxes.

To ensure full understanding of the findings from the interviews, the researcher repeatedly listened to the audio-records and reread the transcripts of each interview “to become familiar with the words of the interviewee/informant in order to develop a holistic sense, the ‘gestalt’” (Groenewald, 2004, p. 18). Neuman (2003) wrote, the “interview’s meaning is shaped by its Gestalt or whole interaction of a researcher and a member in a specific context” (p. 395).

As part of the last step in the data analysis process the researcher summarized all information, including the fundamental nature of the meanings, perspectives and perceptions, to capture the essences of the group of participants. The summary provides the reader an understanding as to the results of the data.

Results

Nineteen female participants were invited; 17 (89%) participated in the interview portion and 16 (84%) completed and returned the questionnaire. One respondent noted she could not participate in the study due to family obligations. When asked if she could provide a telephone interview instead, she did not respond. Two subsequent follow up requests resulted in no response. Another respondent did not return the many telephone calls and e-mail correspondence. The one respondent who did not return the questionnaire did not respond after many contact attempts. Results from the 16 participants who completed the 21-item questionnaire are as follows:

Ten of the 16 (62%) participants who completed the questionnaire are natives of Louisiana. Birthplaces for the women included northern, central, southern, and southeastern parts of Louisiana. The remaining six (38%) participants who were not natives of Louisiana were born in various geographical locations. Three women were born in the Midwest, two in the south, and one in another country.

Fifteen (94%) women grew up in a two-parent household. One of the participants grew up in a single parent household. All the study participants had one or more siblings. Seven of the 16 participants (44%), were the oldest child in the family, while five (31%) were middle siblings, and four (25%) of the participants were the youngest.

The most common occupation for fathers of the participants was laborer/mechanic indicated by six of 16 (38%) responses. The most common occupation of mothers was housewife/homemaker indicated by 10 or 63% of the respondents.

The female participants in this study chose three activities or hobbies they participated in as a child. Eleven responses were given in the area of outdoor sports and activities, followed by six responses for arts and crafts, six for indoor sports and activities, and six for reading.
Eight of the 16 (50%) participants are married, while four (25%) are divorced, three (19%) are single, and one (6%) is a widow. Seven of 16 (44%) respondents are 58-63 years old followed by four (25%) who are over 63 years old. The youngest female senior-level administrator was less than 35 years old. Nine of the 16 (56%) participants are Caucasian while seven or 43% of the participants are African American.

Based on the 17 participants who completed the 19 semi-structured interview questions, four major themes emerged from their perceptions of their lived experience as a senior administrator in higher education. The following are the four themes:

Major Theme 1
The professional skills of female senior-level higher education administrators are categorized as collaborators and consensus builders.

Sub-theme
To collaborate and build consensus, female senior-level higher education administrators are task-oriented, thoughtful, and communicative.

All 17 (100%) participants commented they communicate by bringing all parties together when conflict arises. Fifteen (88%) of the 17 participants identified stated they communicate when conflict arises and become collaborative and consensus building leaders.

Ten of the 16 women completing the questionnaire indicated they are task-oriented or task-specific. When asked about how well do you meet the needs of the university on a scale of 1 to 5 (1 being the lowest and 5 the highest), two (12%) of the 17 participants commented they were too new at the institution to respond. The majority, 14 (93%) of 15 participants who answered this question reported 3 or higher. Seven (47%) of the 15 who responded to this question ranked themselves as a 5. One participant, code name Nurturer ranked herself as a 6.

Further, 16 of the 17 (94%) respondents provided percentages indicating how they spent time on different tasks. On average, the senior-level higher education administrators spend 35% on administrative tasks, 24% on university activities, 15% on community relations, 15% on planning, and 10% on other.

Major Theme 2
Female senior-level higher education administrators are hard workers, knowledgeable in the profession, confident, and rely on role models to establish their professional identities.

Sixteen of the 17 (94%) participants stated self-confident, hard working, or knowledgeable as personal characteristics and traits that senior-level higher education administrators should possess.

Sixteen (94%) of the 17 participants reported having role models or mentors to assist with professional skills and influencing their career path. Role models and mentors included senior-level higher education administrators, family, college professors, K-12 teachers and colleagues, friends, famous women never
met but read about, mentors, and members of their church. The participants explained their career paths and how they were inspired to becoming a senior-level higher education administrator. The inspiration to enter higher education administration came from other people or prior experiences. The data suggested that participants believed others motivated them to strive for senior-level positions in higher education.

Major Theme 3
Successful entry for women into the role of a senior-level higher education administrator includes education (master’s or higher), tenure (length of time) at the institution, working at a four-year public institution, and attaining an age of 50 years or more.

Eight participants’ (47%) indicated their first higher education position was as a faculty member. Two (25%) held a doctorate while the remaining six (75%) held a master’s degree. The same participants described their first administrative role. Five (63%) of the eight were directors, one (13%) was a department chair, and one (13%) was an acting dean. Five (63%) held masters degrees, and three (38%) held doctorates.

Nine (53%) of the 17 participants had their first experience in higher education as an administrator. Of the nine, one (11%) was a coordinator, one (11%) was an assistant director, one (11%) was an associate director, four (44%) were directors, one served as a fiscal analyst, and one as a vice president. Out of the nine participants, eight responded to highest degrees held. Degrees of the eight participants included one (13%) held a bachelor’s degree; one (13%) held a specialist degree (obtained after a bachelor’s, but not equivalent to a master’s degree), four (50%) held masters degrees, and two (25%) individuals reported having a doctorate.

On average, the 16 participants reported it took nine years to succeed in finding their first senior-level higher education administrative position, with the shortest time occurring less than one year and the longest 27 years. One notable comment from a participant, code name Spiritual was it took too long! Thirteen of seventeen (73%) of the women stated they became a senior-level higher education administrator while working at the same institution.

Sixteen participants were an average age of 58 years old when obtaining their first senior-level higher education administrative position. Of these, three women were 60 and three were 50 years old. The oldest woman, code named Strength, was 62 years old when she earned her first senior-level higher education administrative position, while another participant, code named Intelligent was the youngest at 29 years old.

Seventy-six percent (13 of 17) of the participants indicated they were employees at the institution when either appointed or hired through a search committee for their senior-level administrative position. Slightly more than half (nine of 16 or 56%) of the administrators were appointed to their current position; therefore did not have a search committee. Of the remaining seven (44%) respondents who went through a search committee process, the makeup of the search committee for all seven (100%
respondents included administrators. Six (86%) respondents had faculty on the search committee, while four (57%) had students. Three (43%) respondents had classified staff on the search committee and community people.

Fifteen (88%) of the 17 participants indicated they remain employed at the same institution where receiving their first senior-level administrative position. The length of time during which the women have been senior-level higher education administrators ranges between few months up to 10 years.

Further, the majority (10 of 17 or 59%) of the participants were working at a public institution when they obtained their first senior-level higher education administrative position. The remaining seven women worked at either a HBCU (four of 17 or 24%), followed by one (6%) participant each at a private institution, a community college, and another career field other than higher education prior to her senior-level appointment.

Major Theme 4
Possible limitations to career advancement are due to unequal treatment (salary, gender, age, and position), culture of the institution, not working hard, and not having the needed education. Based on the 16 questionnaires received from the respondents, approximately half (56%) were unsure if the state has an old boys or girls network that helps individuals obtain senior-level higher education administrative administrators. Four (25%) stated yes, while three (19%) stated no.

Nine (56%) of the 16 respondents said they believed the greatest hindrance to a female becoming and maintaining a senior-level higher education administrative position in Louisiana is the campus climate and environment. Eight (50%) of the 16 participants indicated that hindrances are due to discrimination as well as society’s belief of a woman’s role. Seven (44%) women selected career planning paths and stereotyping, followed by family responsibilities (five or 31%), characteristics of the search committee (individuals on the search committee) (three or 19%). The least chosen responses were academic background and institutional hiring and promotion practices, selected by two (13%) individuals each.

During the interviews, 16 of the 17 (94%) participants discussed hindrances encountered on their path to becoming senior-level administrators as well as current experiences. These hindrances were due to age, race, gender, pay, and culture of the institution. Further, the participants provided a list of recommendations for women aspiring to become a senior-level higher education administrator. Thirteen (76%) of the 17 participants stressed working hard and being an expert or knowledgeable in the intended field.

Discussion
This qualitative phenomenological study explored the lived experiences of females who are senior-level higher education administrators in Louisiana. The theoretical framework proposed that even though qualified women hold senior-level higher education administration positions, reasons exist that creates limited opportunities (Leconte, 2005). The literature implied internal, external, and societal influences do
impact an individual becoming a senior-level higher education administrator and maintaining this position. While themes varied, the underlying conclusion of the interview datum suggests:

1. The professional skills of female senior-level higher education administrators are categorized as collaborators and consensus builders.
2. Female senior-level higher education administrators work hard and use role models to establish their professional identities.
3. Successful entry for women into the role of a senior-level higher education administrator includes education (master’s or higher), tenure at the institution, working at a four-year public institution, and being in your 50s.
4. Possible limitations to career advancement are due to unequal treatment (salary, gender, age, and position), culture of the institution, not working hard, and not having the needed education.

The data that emerged from this study contained information that one may use to confirm a qualitative phenomenological approach remains the best method for exploration. The main reason for using this method was it allowed for the sharing of lived experiences of the females in higher education in describing what they thought was important in acquiring a senior leadership role in higher education in the state of Louisiana.

The conclusions, implications, and recommendations for future study and recommendations for future leaders to consider are in chapter 5. Insight into the career ascension of females in higher education has been included in this study. The study adds to the literature of senior-level women in male dominated organizations like higher education by examining the factors and personal competencies that enabled a purposive sample of females in higher education positions to acquire those leadership positions.

The researcher began this phenomenological study with the intent of exploring the lived experiences of females in higher education, and how they obtained their senior-level position. The participant perceptions, stories, and thoughts they shared in their interviews inspired and moved the researcher. The researcher is convinced that the shared ideas, thoughts, and stories will assist, inspire, and most importantly educate not only women, but men as both progress and ascend in their careers.
References


Appendix A: Research Paper Review Form

Indicate your evaluation by marking an X in the appropriate box (SA-strongly agree, A-agree, D-disagree, SD-strongly disagree). Please include comments providing objective remarks and/or suggestions for improvement.

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<td>6. The author’s findings, conclusions and/or recommendations are sufficiently justified, linked to the review of literature and are presented adequately and concisely.</td>
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Overall Evaluation | Reviewer Rating | Comments
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Accept and nominate for outstanding paper | | |
Accept for presentation | | |
Accept with minor revisions | | |
The Development of Youth Leadership Life Skills Attributed to Project-Based Experiences

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Abstract
The primary purpose of this study was to assess youth leadership life skills development (YLLSD) of high school students participating in project-based extracurricular experiences. The study was conducted using survey research that employed mostly descriptive analysis. Student exhibitors registered in the Georgia Junior Livestock Commercial Dairy Heifer Exhibitors database ranging from ninth through eleventh grades served as the population for this study. Sixty percent of students sampled completed the study. Findings based on the Youth Leadership Life Skills Development instrument revealed a high level of youth leadership life skills development for high school students participating in project-based experiences over a period of four months.

Introduction
“Assuming responsibility and accountability for developing youth leadership life skills today assures the promise for effective leadership tomorrow” (Seevers, Dormody, & Clason, 1995, p. 28). The following study was conducted to examine the self-perceived youth leadership life skill development of high school students who participated in project-based experiences.

What exactly are youth leadership life skills? Miller (1976) has defined youth leadership life skills development as the “development of life skills necessary to perform leadership functions in real life” (p. 6). Also, Miller (1976) breaks down leadership life skills development into seven categories: decision making, relationships, learning, management, understanding self, group processes and communications. The development of these skills yields a truly secure leader in any organization (Dormody & Seevers, 1995).

Several studies indicate that youth leadership life skill development occurs through project-based experiences and related activities (Anderson, 2011; Boleman, Cummings, & Briers, 2005; Clark, 2009; Gamon & Gehegehus-Hetzel, 1994; Guthrie & Majeski, 1997; Rusk, Martin, Talbert & Balshwied,
2002; Rusk, Summerlot-Early, Machtmes, Talbert, & Balschweid, 2003; Sawer, 1987; Walker, 2006; Ward, 1996); however, there is a gap in the literature elucidating dairy heifer exhibition and youth leadership life skill development. The purpose of this study was to fill the literature gap and identify the development of youth leadership life skills of students as a result of this project-based experience, specifically dairy heifer exhibition.

**Conceptual Framework**

Seevers and Dormody (1995) posited that, “leadership development has been and continues to be a major goal of most youth programs” (para. 1). But what exactly is leadership? Throughout history, there have been several researchers and authors who have contemplated, studied and analyzed definitions of leadership. Bennis and Nanus (1985) stated that, “decades of academic analysis have given us more than 350 definitions of leadership” (p. 4). John C. Maxwell (1993) defined leadership as influence (p. 1), but vanLinden and Fertman (1998) concluded that leaders are those who think for themselves, can communicate their thoughts and feelings effectively and help others to understand and be able to act on their own beliefs. Bennis and Nannus (1985) further opined that, “Leadership is what gives an organization its vision into reality” (p. 20). Also, Ricketts and Ricketts (2011) defined leadership “as the ability of a person – the leader – to move an organization or group towards the achievement or accomplishment of its goals and objectives, using whatever style is most effective in each situation” (p. 5). Carlson and Maxa stated that, “youth can be stimulated to embrace lifelong learning by effective leaders” (p. 8). Several authors believe that every person in our society has the potential to be a leader (Bennis & Nanus, 1985; vanLinden & Fertman, 1998). Those potential leaders are people who have a shared vision, challenge people, set a good example and encourage others to be successful (Kouzes & Posner, 2003).

Seevers and Dormody (1995) contended, “leadership development has been and continues to be a major goal of most youth programs” (para. 1). Ricketts and Rudd (2002) developed a model of youth leadership development for youth programs to utilize in formal and technical education programs. The researchers (Ricketts and Rudd, 2002) believed the primary dimensions of leadership development in youth are as follows: *Leadership Knowledge and Information, Leadership Attitude Will and Desire, Intrapersonal and Interpersonal Skills, Oral and Written Communication Skills, and Decision-making Reasoning and Critical Thinking.* Each dimension should be taught within the three hierarchical levels: *Awareness, Interaction, and Integration* (Ricketts and Rudd, 2002). These levels, or stages, “seek to build upon the experience and perception of the students in order to enhance cognition and behavior in leadership development (Ricketts and Rudd, 2012, para. 19).

*Figure 1: Leadership Development Model*
Youth leadership life skills development, as a concept and construct, is a “self-assessed and organization-specific development of life skills necessary to perform leadership functions in real life” (Dormody & Seevers, 1994, para. 4). The 4-H (2013) Targeting Life Skills Model defines leadership life skills as the ability for an individual to learn skills that will help them to be successful in living.

Boyd, Herring and Briers (1992) stated that these skills are the abilities students learn that help them succeed in leading a productive life. Based on of Miller’s (1976) seven categories of leadership life skills, Dormody, Seevers, and Clason (1993) developed the Youth Leadership Life Skills Development Scale (YLLSDS).

Researchers Boyd, Herring, and Briers (1992) discovered the level at which Texas 4-H members participated was an indicator of the leadership life skills development scores. Seevers and Dormody (1993) found that participation from 4-H members in Arizona, Colorado and New Mexico in leadership activities was an indicator of youth leadership life skills development. Mueller (as stated in Dormody & Seevers, 1994) determined that there was a relationship between youth leadership life skill development and 4-H leadership activities.

Boyd et al. (1992) described leadership life skills as communication, decision-making, and self-understanding. According to Enfield (2001), an important focus of the 4-H club is to develop leadership and citizenship skills. Researchers concluded that these are skills that will enable youth to make the
change to adulthood and be a functional part of society (Fox, Schroder, & Lodl, 2003; Ricketts, 2005; Seevers et al., 1995.)

Fox et al. (2003) stated that “one of the most pressing issues facing youth-serving organizations such as 4-H is how to best support youth in becoming productive, contributing individuals to society” (para. 2). Boyd et al. (1992) determined that adult skills include working with others, communicating and leadership. The development of these adult skills, otherwise known as leadership life skills will “allow youth to cope with their environment by making responsible decisions, having a better understanding of their values, and being better able to communicate and get along with others” (Boyd et al., 1992, para. 2). The United State Center for Disease Control (2011) found that youth engage in high risk behaviors including heavy alcohol consumption, tobacco use, delinquency and poor school performance. These juvenile delinquents are a burden to society rather than a contribution (Boyd et al., 1992). This may indicate a lack of leadership and life skills among our youth (Boyd et al., 1992).

Youth organizations such as FFA and 4-H promote life skills though experiential learning and leadership activities (National FFA Organization, 2013; 4-H Headquarters). Ricketts and Ricketts (2011) noted that students who were involved with youth organizations such as the National FFA Organization were rated highly by instructors and employers on leadership, citizenship, character confidence in self and work and cooperative spirit and effort. “Leadership of the 4-H organization wants its members to receive more from their projects than ribbon, trophies and trips, and monetary gains. More importantly, the 4-H leadership wants its members to acquire project and life skills” (Rusk et al., 2003, p. 1). Wingenbach and Kahler (1997) posited, “Among the primary purposes of this agricultural youth organization is the development of skills in communications, human relations, social abilities, citizenship, cooperation, and resource management” (p. 18).

Several researchers found leadership life skills were observed or obtained due to project-based experiences such as livestock exhibition and judging (Boleman, Cummings, & Briers, 2004; Gamon & Gehegehus-Hetz, 1994; Guthrie & Majeski, 1997; Rusk, Martin, Talbert & Balshwied, 2002; Sawer, 1987; Ward, 1996). Rusk et al. (2002) conducted a study to observe the life skills gained from youth who exhibited livestock through 4-H in the Indiana livestock judging program. Ten life skills were found as a result: decision making, ability to verbally defend a decision, livestock industry knowledge, oral communication, organizational skills, problem solving, self-confidence, self-discipline, self-motivation, and teamwork (Rusk et al., 2002). These life skills were selected from the Secretary’s Commission on Achieving Life Skills (SCANS) report (Brock, 1992).

Along those same lines, Boleman et al. (2004) sought to determine the life skills gained by youth who participate in the beef project through the 4-H program in Texas. Through exhibiting beef, participants felt that they mostly gained three life skills including accepting responsibility, setting goals and developing self-discipline (Boleman et al., 2004). Ward (1996) studied New Jersey 4-H alumni responding to their self-perceived impacts of livestock exhibition on the development of life skills. Those life skills included spirit of inquiry, decision-making, ability to accept responsibility, record keeping, and public speaking (Ward, 1996). This particular study indicated from the participants that the 4-H Animal Science
program in New Jersey does have a positive impact on life skill development. Sawer (1987) concerning the 4-H members in Oregon who exhibit beef, swine and sheep. These 4-H members recognized several life skills that are developed while exhibiting livestock including responsibility, communication, decision making, people relations, and leadership. Gamon and Gehegehus-Hetzel (1994) sought to determine how the Iowa 4-H swine project effected life skill development. The researchers found that exhibitors felt that their involvement with the swine project positively impacted their life skill development. (Gamon & Gehegehus-Hetzel, 1994). Guthrie and Majeskie (1997) determined several critical life skills that are learned when judging dairy cattle. Some of those include critical thinking, self-discipline, situation analysis, decision-making, organization, verbal expression, and defense of decisions (Guthrie & Majeski, 1997).

Millennials prefer teaching and learning styles that align with the constructivist paradigm in which students play an active role in in developing their knowledge by linking new knowledge with past experiences (Wisniewski’s, 2010). This environment is created by the teacher and promotes learning experientially. Wisniewski’s (2010) study yielded that effective leadership programs should develop several leadership skills such as effective communication, collaboration, being open to others’ ideas, working effectively with others from diverse groups, managing others, building trust, time management, and goal setting and self management, which aligns with other literature that utilized Millennials as participants (Anderson, 2011; Boleman, Cummings, & Briers, 2005; Clark, 2009; Gamon & Gehegehus-Hetzel, 1994; Guthrie & Majeski, 1997; Rusk, Martin, Talbert & Balshwied, 2002; Rusk, Summerlot-Early, Machtmes, Talbert, & Balschweid, 2003; Walker, 2006; Ward, 1996).

This study was conducted to examine the self-perceived youth leadership life skill development of students who participated in project-based experiences. To further focus this study, the researchers investigated the specific project-based experience of commercial dairy heifer exhibition. Dairy exhibition is a productive means of developing leadership development. Georgia Agriculture Educator and expert dairy exhibitor coach, Dr. Ronald Thomas stated, “dairy exhibition develops a students’ work ethic, level of responsibility, and is a continuous project where everyone can participate” (personal communication, November 12, 2012). A publication from the Mississippi State University Extension Service (MSUES) (2010) opined that exhibiting dairy heifers plays “a major role in helping youth become self-directed, productive and contributing adult citizens by developing valuable life skills” such as responsibility, sportsmanship, communication, critical thinking and working with other people (para. 1). There are several key elements when exhibiting dairy animals. An exhibitor must always select the best animal that he or she possibly can (MSUES, 2010). They must develop a feeding ration for the dairy animal and exhibitors must spend time training the animal to lead and pose (MSUES, 2010).

In the state of Georgia, the dairy heifer project is a unique project-based experience compared to other typical project-based experiences. With this specific project, in most cases, a student leases a heifer from a local dairyman. The local dairyman provides the feed, hay, and animal for little or no cost to the student. The student is required to care for the animal including developing feed and health programs, breaking and training, and daily maintenance, under the direction of a 4-H or FFA advisor and the support of a parent or guardian (MSUES, 2010). The student usually obtains ownership of the animal in
November and completes the experiences in February. During the four-month period, the student not only is required to complete the aforementioned tasks, but also to exhibit the animal in 6 – 9 shows across the state, keep accurate and detailed records of the project, develop imperative dairy evaluation skills and communication skills. This project requires the student to interact with their project a minimum of once a day, everyday for the duration of the project. This is an intense project in which the student takes over total ownership of the animal for four months and has the opportunity to develop essential leadership life skills.

**Purpose and Objectives**

The primary purpose of this study was to examine the self-perceived youth leadership life skill development of students and the participation project-based experiences. Moreover, the researcher sought to determine demographic variables that influenced leadership life skill development among the participants. Specifically, the study sought to:

1. Describe the participants by their gender, grade, and affiliations.
2. Describe the self-perceived youth leadership life skill development of the participants as a result of project-based experiences as compared to other similar project-based experience studies.
3. Determine the relationship between youth leadership life skill development of the participants and grade, gender, and affiliations.

**Research Methods and Procedures**

Data from this descriptive study were obtained from a sample \((N = 103)\) of Georgia Junior Livestock Commercial Dairy Heifer exhibitors. Exhibitors from the 2009 show year were 9\(^{th}\), 10\(^{th}\), or 11\(^{th}\) grade students. Sixty-two participated in the study for a 60.19\% response rate. Independent variables included grade, gender, FFA and/or 4-H affiliation during showing. These independent variables were derived from various theses, dissertations and an extensive review of the relating literature. The dependent variable was Youth Leadership Life Skills Development.

Data collection followed Dillman’s (2000) Tailored Design Method. Procedures for distributing instruments and collecting data were done by the researcher via postal mail. First, a pre-post card mailing occurred. Then, 18 days later, the first survey packet was mailed, including a YLLSDS (Dormody, Seevers & Clason, 1993) consent forms and a stamped addressed return envelope. Two weeks later, a reminder post card was sent out to the selected participants, followed by a second survey packet was mailed to non-responders and lastly, a Thank you post card to all respondents.

Two different instruments used when collecting data for this study: Youth Leadership Life Skill Development Scale (Dormody, Seevers, and Clason, 1993) and a demographic instrument. The first instrument was used to measure the YLLSD of students who exhibited commercial dairy heifers. The YLLSDS was a closed-ended questionnaire developed by Dormody, Seevers, and Clason (1993). The students were advised to complete the instrument with regard to YLLSD as a result of the project-based experience. The second instrument that was used was a demographic survey that the researcher developed. This survey consisted of questions that related to the livestock variables (gender, grade, FFA
and or 4-H affiliation for showing dairy). Enclosed with the two instruments were a cover letter explaining the primary purpose of the study, along with parental and student consent forms and a self-addressed stamped envelope.

During this study the YLLSDS (Dormody, Seevers & Clason, 1993) was employed to collect data from students who exhibited commercial dairy heifers in Georgia on their self-perceived youth leadership and life skills development. This particular instrument encompassed 30 specific leadership life skills and used a summed rating scale, rating the leadership life skills on a four-point scale from zero to three representing No Gain to A Lot of Gain (Dormody, Seevers & Clason, 1993). This was to measure the amount of leadership skill improvement as a result of the students’ commercial dairy heifer project. Reliability was reported by Seevers, Dormody, and Clason (1995) with a Cronbach’s alpha of .98. Cronbach’s alpha for reliability for this study was .91.

The researchers developed the instrument used to collect demographic information. This instrument measured, grade, gender, and FFA and/or 4-H affiliation during showing. A panel of experts was used to ensure content and face validity. Instruments were coded and entered into an Excel spreadsheet and then transferred into SPSS® for Windows™ statistical package for analysis. There were a total of 62 (n = 62) respondents for a 60.19% response rate. To account for non-response error, key dependent variables for early responders (Wave 1 = 27) were compared to late responders (Wave 2 = 35) via independent samples t- tests, and there were no differences between early and late responders (Linder, Murphy & Briers, 2001). The researcher utilized SPSS to calculate Frequencies and Percentages for demographic variables for objective one. Summated Means and Standard Deviation were calculated for the 30-item YLLSDS or the last objective, One-Way ANOVA was calculated to determine dependent variable differences among grade levels, and again t-tests were employed to determine differences between genders and FFA or 4-H show affiliation.

Results

Objective One: Describe participants by their gender, grade, and affiliations.

Georgia National Junior Livestock Commercial Dairy Heifer participants reported grade range from ninth through eleventh, f = 9.95, % = 0.75 (Table 4-1). Of 62 respondents, 19 were in ninth grade (30.65%), 27 were in tenth grade (43.55%), 16 were in eleventh grade (25.8%). The tenth grade represented the highest percentage age group (43.4%) (Table 4-2). The majority of participants in this study were females (n = 35) 56.45%. Males (n = 27) made up 43.55% of the sample. Respondents reported his or her affiliation in either FFA or 4-H. The number of students reporting their involvement through FFA was higher than those who reported 4-H affiliation. 83.87% (n = 52) of participants reported being affiliated with FFA, while 16.13% (n = 10) reported being affiliated in 4-H.

Table 4-1

Objective 1: Demographic Frequencies of Dairy Heifer Exhibitors (n = 62)
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographics</th>
<th>f</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>9th Grade</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>30.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10th Grade</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>43.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11th Grade</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>25.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>43.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>56.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FFA affiliation during show</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>83.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4-H affiliation during show</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>16.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: f = frequency. % = population percentage.

Objective Two: Describe the self-perceived youth leadership life skill development of the participants as a result of project-based experiences as compared to other similar project-based experience studies.

The composite mean Youth Leadership Life Skills Development Scale (YLLSDS) score was $M = 70.16$, $SD = 11.91$ (Table 4-5). Youth Leadership Life Skill Development Scale scores ranged from a low score of 39 to maximum score of 90. The developers of the YLLSDS note that scale values from 0 to 30 might be considered no to slight leadership life skills development, 31 to 60 moderate development and 61 to 90 high development (Seevers et al., 1995).

Table 4-2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Objective 2: Summated Mean for Youth Leadership Life Skill Development Scale (YLLSDS) (n = 62)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Min.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Possible scale values: 0 – 30 = no to slight leadership development. 31 – 60 = moderate leadership development. 61 – 90 = high leadership development. From “The Youth Leadership Life Skill Development Scale: An Evaluation and Research Tool for Youth Organizations,” by Dormody et al., 1993.

Objective Three: Determine the relationship between youth leadership life skill development of the participants and grade, gender, and affiliations.

One-Way ANOVA and Bonferroni comparisons were calculated with SPSS, and there were no leadership development differences among grade levels. An independent samples t-test was determined to calculate leadership relationships between males and females. There were no differences. T-tests were also calculated to determine any differences between FFA and 4-H exhibitors for the dependent variables. Largely, there were no differences, however, exhibitors who showed for FFA ($M = 33.58$, $SD = $
4.08) were more cognitively mature than 4-H exhibitors \((M = 29.80, SD = 5.20)\) for the post-test measure, \(t(60) = 2.57, p < .05\).

**Conclusions**

The primary purpose of this study was to examine the self-perceived youth leadership life skill development (YLLSD) of students and the participation project-based experiences. Moreover, the researcher sought to determine demographic variables that influenced leadership life skill development among the participants. The relationship between these key variables and the dependent variable of YLLSD was also explored.

**Objective One**

There was a proportion of participation from each of the three different grade levels indicating that participants found the activity useful and one they wish to continue to participate in. Participation percentages include ninth grade at 30.65%, tenth grade at 43.55%, and eleventh grade at 25.8% of the total population.

The majority of dairy exhibition participants were female (56.50%). This differs from similar YLLSD project-based studies. Walker’s (2006) study reveals that 56.43% of respondents were male and 43.56% were female. The findings of this study were consistent with other researchers in that females were more prominent in leadership development positions (Duncan, 2000; Kelly & Osborne, 2004; Ricketts et al., 2004; Ricketts, 2005; Seevers & Dormody, 1994).

There is more participation from students affiliated with FFA (83.90%) as compared to 4-H (16.10%). This could be due to a number of factors, one of which might be the economic downturn, which could possibly impact the number of agents concentrating on dairy production of livestock in general for the state of Georgia. Hollis (2010) refers to budget cuts proposed for the Cooperative Extension Service saying “It would appear that agriculture is being asked to take a disproportionately large hit from a state that is trying desperately to make up for a $1 billion deficit... It would mean [by cutting the Cooperative Extension Service] the elimination of 116 4-H positions and 169 Extension staff positions” (para. 4).

**Objective Two**

Because of the involvement in project-based experiences, the self-reported YLLDS indicated that participants enjoyed a high amount of leadership development. All participants scored 39 and above \((M = 70.16, SD = 11.91)\) for the possible range of 0-90 on the YLLDS. According to Seevers et al. (1995), “scale values from 0 and 30 might be considered no to slight leadership life skills development, from 31 to 60 moderate development, and from 61 to 90 high development” (p. 2). Dormody and Seevers (1994) reported YLLDS scores of Arizona, Colorado, and New Mexico FFA members having a mean of \(M = 64.2, SD = 17.7\), while Wingenbach and Kahler (1997) reported an overall YLLDS mean score of \(M = 62.65, SD = 17.83\) for Iowa FFA members. More recently, Walker (2006) found that members of the National Junior Angus Association that participated in the beef project reported having a mean of \(M = 73.02, SD = 13.77\), providing a score above 8 points compared to similar studies.
Total YLLSDS totaled just less than 3 points below Walker’s (2006) study YLLSD with the beef project and totaled more than 6 points above in the aforementioned studies. Though leadership life skills cannot be based solely on the exhibition of dairy heifers, the leadership development scores may indicate that project-based experiences, such as dairy exhibition, play a role in the important youth leadership life skills (Brock, 1992; Fox, Schroeder, and Lodl, 2003; Boyd et al., 1992). Furthermore, high school students are participating in a project-based experience that provides leadership life skill development in a much shorter amount of time at a smaller expense as compared to similar project-based experiences such as beef cattle and swine exhibition.

**Objective Three**
There were no leadership differences between males and females. Other studies such as Ricketts (2003), Gamon & Dehegedus-Hetzl (1994), and Seevers and Dormody (1994, 1995) concluded a difference in either critical thinking skills or youth leadership life skills among genders. This indicates that males and female participants in this study are on the same leadership and critical thinking levels.

**Recommendations**
The Youth Leadership Life Skills Development Scale is a reliable instrument that provides researchers with the ability to assess leadership life skills development among a population. The data that is provided from this instrument denotes the level of life skill development and can confirm or not confirm the development of youth leadership life skills as a result of a specific program, event, or affiliation. Students in this study scored higher than those in similar studies (Seevers & Dormody, 1994; Wingenbach & Kahler, 1997). Because students scored a high range for YLLSD, support for providing project-based experiences as part of youth leadership development programs should be considered. The results of the study, specifically as it relates to dairy cattle project as compared to similar projects raises the question is “Why do high school students in this study appear to be developing leadership life skills at a higher level than those of similar studies?” It is recommended that this study be replicated to promote generalizability. Also, because participants in this study yielded higher YLLSD scores than participants in similar studies, research should be conducted to further explore the research question, “Are students gaining youth leadership life skills as a result of project-based experiences?”

Females have had a more prominent presence in leadership development (Duncan, 2000; Kelly & Osborne, 2004; Ricketts et al., 2004; Ricketts, 2005; Seevers & Dormody, 1994). The National FFA Organization (2013) advertises that females hold more leadership positions than males. Why are females more likely to participate in leadership life skill development opportunities? According to this study, there was more female participation than male participation. It is recommended that further research should be completed to answer the question of why more females are involved in this project-based experience than males.

This project-based experience is a short-term project compared to similar project-based experiences. Students are able to gain leadership life skills at a faster rate than those with longer project-based experiences. This study highlights that a high school student can demonstrate leadership life skills development in less than one semester of school. Other similar studies (Walker, 2006) show leadership
life skills development but in a much longer project-based experience. This could be a potential project for leadership educators to promote for students to gain leadership life skills in a more condensed and lower cost project-based experience.

Implications

This descriptive study sought to fill the literature gap and identify the development of youth leadership life skills of high school students as a result of a project-based experience, specifically dairy heifer exhibition. Based on the analysis of data, students demonstrated an increase in YLLSD in a four-month period of time as a result of the project. However, certain questions arise and could lead to future studies: Could it be that since this semester-long project can increase YLLSD, then possibly a leadership educator could incorporate a similar project within their respective leadership course? Since a component of this project-based experience is attending dairy heifer exhibition shows, is that an actual part of the YLLSD process? Could it be the traveling across the state with the students’ peers and project advisor that promotes YLLSD? It is because the exhibition shows encourage healthy competition, creating an opportunity for YLLSD? Are youth leadership life skills developed because of feedback or a rating from an external source? Would the high school students increase or decrease their YLLSD if dairy heifer exhibition shows were not part of the project? Perhaps this project increases YLLSD because it utilizes a live animal. What if it is because of the amount of the project advisor’s leadership guidance towards the student? Could this increase in YLLSD be attributed to peer interaction throughout the duration of the project?

Also, since this study highlighted that a semester-long project can increase YLLSD, can this apply to other disciplines? If a math teacher recruits high school students for a competitive math team, where students are expected to practice their skills daily and participate in competitions during the semester, can this activity increase leadership development? What if a student is active in the school marching band that competes during the fall semester of the school year and it requires individual practice as well as group practice; is this an activity that could increase leadership development? Because Millennials utilize technology to learn (Wisniewski, 2010), perhaps technology-based projects enhance YLLSD. Further research is needed to explore these questions as it relates to YLLSD and it’s relationship to leadership education.
REFERENCES


Type Preference and U.S. Government Executive Leaders:
Insight into the Function and Dysfunction of the Federal Bureaucracy

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Federal Executive Institute

Abstract
This study analyzed the MBTI type preferences of 3,606 executive leaders in the United States federal government over a seven year period. Results indicate the predominant type preferences for these leaders are introversion (53%), sensing (54%), thinking (81%) and judging (64%). With the exception of extroversion and introversion, these preferences were stable over seven years of data collection. The results of this study are compared to a national sample of MBTI preferences and show distinct differences between federal civil servants and the citizens they serve. The discussion focuses on the challenges and opportunities of federal executive leaders based on type preferences. Leadership educators and practitioners should note these results in order to design and deliver more effective learning experiences for current and future leaders in the U.S. civil service.

Introduction
While similar on many fronts, executive leaders in U.S. public institutions differ from their private sector counterparts. Foremost, public sector leaders are both guided and bounded by the U.S. Constitution. Ethical and legal constraints often frame the complexity through which public sector leaders must guide both their followers and their organizations (Newell, Reeher & Ronayne, 2012). It is perhaps because of the constitutional, legal and ethical restraints that public sector leaders are criticized for being rigid, unresponsive and heartless (Stone, 2002). It is also possible that the structure, focus and mission draw certain types of leaders to executive-level public service positions.

This study examined the Myers-Briggs Personality Type (MBTI) preferences of executive level leaders in the U.S. Federal government. The MBTI assessment is one of the most widely used and most commonly known development assessments in the training and development industry (Cunningham, 2012). Many public and private organizations as well as educational institutions utilize the MBTI to create self-awareness, develop team cohesiveness, make hiring and promotion decisions, and reduce interpersonal conflict. It is, in part, because of this popularity that the MBTI assessment and, especially, the underlying theory, has been misinterpreted, misused, mislabeled, and provided misinformation to scores of audiences. The nucleus of the MBTI theory is about creating an awareness of innate preferences much akin to right-handedness and left-handedness (Rutledge, 2008). The preferences described in the MBTI assessment are present in every individual to varying degrees. Much like those with a right-handed preference, individuals have a preference for one MBTI function over another but do not lose the other function—just as a right handed person does not lose use of the left hand. The
MBTI assessment should be used to create understanding of natural preferences so that individuals can leverage innate strengths, talents and abilities to more successfully interact with those around them and function more effectively in personal and professional settings. Used appropriately and with a full understanding of the underpinning theory, the MBTI assessment can be a powerful tool for leadership development.

It is important for leadership educators to understand the type preferences of individuals drawn to certain career fields. Doing so allows educators to better design learning experiences that will prepare individuals to take on leadership roles in their career field of choice. Further, understanding the general and dominate type preferences of senior executives in the federal government allows practitioners, executive coaches and training specialists to be better prepared to design and deliver effective leadership development programs and techniques that are more salient to type preference. For the U.S. citizen, understanding the type preferences of senior government leaders may create opportunities to establish a more effective customer service relationship when citizens need governmental assistance. In short, much can be gained from a deeper understanding of the innate preferences of senior executives in the United States government.

**Literature review**

The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) is a psychological assessment that measures personality type preferences (Briggs Myers & Myers, 1995). Personality type emanated from the work of Swiss psychiatrist, Carl Jung. Jung (1923) argued that human behavior could be both classified and predicted based upon innate preferences for certain functions. From these natural preferences, human beings engaged in actions and reactions based upon the types of salient stimuli and the subsequent response to those stimuli. Jung argued that human beings noticed different types of information (stimuli) and then reacted differently (response). Jung believed that this notion of stimulus and response was the basic function of all living things from plants to fish to human beings. Jung suggested that the types of information that all beings take in and the response to that information is foundational to understanding and classifying human behavior.

At the urging of her mother, Katherine Briggs, Isabel Myers read Jung’s theory on psychological types. At the height of World War II, when many women were taking positions in industry and business to support the war effort and ensure continuity of operations in the homeland, Briggs believed that psychological type could play a role in ensuring that women were placed into work environments where they would be successful (Cunningham, 2012). Briggs hired a young neighbor, Katherine Downing (eventually Katherine Myers), to assist with charting and categorizing human behavior. Eventually, the MBTI assessment was developed and published by the Educational Testing Service (ETS) in 1962.
The MBTI measures eight functions on four dichotomies—extraversion and introversion, sensing and intuition, thinking and feeling, judging and perceiving. Jung developed the first three dichotomies and Myers added the fourth.

The extraversion-introversion dichotomy assesses the source from which an individual draws energy (Rutledge, 2008). Jung (1923) described two worlds—external and internal. The external world is made up of people, places and things while the inner world is created by individuals with one’s own thoughts, concepts and ideas. Jung argued that human beings with a preference for extraversion will draw energy from the outer world and be drained of energy from the inner world. Those with a preference for introversion would draw energy from the inner world and be drained of energy from the external world.

The sensing-intuition dichotomy assesses the perceiving function or the preference for how and the types of information that the human brain takes in (Briggs Myers & Myers, 1995). Those with a preference for sensing prefer to take in information using their five senses (sight, sound, smell, touch, taste). The sensing preference focuses on details and specifics in the moment. Those with a preference for intuition prefer to take in information that links like patterns, concepts and ideas. The intuition preference focuses on possibilities, generalizations and theory.

The thinking-feeling dichotomy assesses the judging function or the preference for decision making (Briggs Myers & Myers, 1995). Those with a preference for thinking tend to make decisions based on impersonal, logical reasoning from an objective viewpoint. Those with a preference for feeling tend to make decisions based on person-centered reasoning that appreciates varying opinions and reasoning and can be considered subjective given the people involved and the situation. The difference in decision-making preferences is generally considered to be the difference between making decisions with the head (thinking) versus the heart (feeling).

The judging-perceiving function assesses which of the two core functions (judging or perceiving) is more often the public face of public persona (Kroeger & Thuesen, 2002). Those with a preference for judging prefer to make order and sense of the outer world by creating structure and creating control. The judging preference indicates that the world is chaotic and complex and can only be understand through a series of decisions that create order and sustain purpose. Those with a preference for perceiving prefer to engage in the outer world by being adaptable, flexible and keeping options open. The perceiving preference indicates that the world is chaotic and complex and therefore cannot be structured or controlled and human beings must adapt and be flexible to change as the situation unfolds.

Jung (1923) argued that every human being has the ability to utilize all eight of the type functions, but that each individual has a natural preference for one side of the dichotomy over the other. As individuals determine their type preferences on each of the dichotomies, the functions are put together to formulate one of sixteen personality type profiles (ex: ESTJ, INFP). The MBTI assessment is not used to determine intelligence or talent and no type preferences are considered to be more effective or
preferred over the opposite. Instead, the MBTI assessment is used to create self-awareness and understanding of individual differences and interpersonal relationships.

The MBTI is one of the most widely used assessments in the world with over two million participants each year (Cunningham, 2012). The MBTI is predominately utilized by training and development professionals in public and private organizations. However, researchers have explored the connections between MBTI and interviewer performance (Abbott, Yost & Harding, 2003), willingness to engage in career counseling (Apostal & Marks, 1990), learning styles (Drummond & Stoddard, 1992), ability to manage stress (Elangovan & Xie, 1999), and work motivation (Barbuto, Fritz, Lim & Xu, 2008).

Scholars have used MBTI preferences to assess career choice in a variety of fields including medical (Davis, Bouhuijs, Dauphinee, McAvoy, Alexander, Coles… & Warren, 1990), information technology (Adya & Kaiser, 2005), software engineering (Capretz, 2003), and military (Bartle, 2003). To date, no research has examined the MBTI preferences of senior leaders in the United States Federal government. This study seeks to close that gap by examining the type preferences of senior career civil service employees. The analysis in this study provides insight into the MBTI types that are drawn to senior executive positions in the federal government and is compared to a national sample of MBTI results. From this understanding, leadership educators and practitioners have an opportunity to design and deliver more effective leadership development programming both for future and current government leaders.

**Methodology**

**Participants.** The participants in this study were full-time employees in career executive level positions in the United States government. Each participant was enrolled in a 4-week, residential leadership development course offered by the U.S. Office of Personnel Management’s Federal Executive Institute. To qualify for this course, each participant must be employed in an executive level position within the United States government. Executive level positions are classified as a general schedule rank of 15 (GS-15) or members of the Senior Executive Service (SES). The data were collected over a seven year period from 2006 to 2013 and 3,606 participants were included in the study. 30% were employed by the U.S. Department of Defense (DOD) while the remaining 70% were employed by other domestic U.S. agencies. 89% have achieved the rank of GS-15 while the other 11% have entered the SES. 34% were women.

**Procedure.** Data were collected prior to the four-week course in which the participant was enrolled. As part of a series of pre-work assignments, participants completed Form Q of the MBTI up to one month prior to the beginning of the course. Results were extracted from each report and placed into a type table so that no identifying information was collected. During the first week of the four week course, participants engaged in an MBTI workshop where each individual’s report was returned and interpreted by a certified MBTI practitioner.
This study is a descriptive analysis of the eight MBTI dichotomies and the 16 MBTI personality type preferences. From this analysis, the predominate type preferences that exist in senior executives in the federal government can be better understood. In addition, from this data, the strengths and weaknesses of senior leaders in the federal government can be better identified. It is from this understanding, that leadership educators and practitioners can develop and design more effective leadership curriculum and programs to meet the needs of these senior leaders.

**Results**

The preferences for the MBTI dichotomies are shown in Table 1. These figures are the sum for the entire sample of MBTI preferences on each preference within the four dichotomies. The percentages included in Table 1 indicate the separate quantity on each of the four dichotomies. The percentages for each of the E-I, S-N, T-F and J-P dichotomies will each combine to be 100%.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>MBTI Dichotomy Preferences of U.S. Government Executives</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leader Preferences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(47%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Of the more 3,600 participants over 7 years, more senior executives in the federal government had a preference for introversion (53%) over extraversion (47%). More had a preference for sensing (54%) over intuition (46%). Most of the senior leaders in this sample preferred thinking (81%) while fewer preferred feeling (19%). Finally, well over half (64%) preferred judging to perceiving (36%). The predominant type preferences of senior executives in the U.S. Federal government are introversion, sensing, thinking and judging.

The type distribution is shown in Table 2. Type distribution refers to the combination of each participant’s preferences on the four dichotomies which combine to create a four-letter type. The predominant type preference for senior leaders in the federal government is ISTJ with 21% of the sample reporting into that type preference. Also prevalent was ESTJ at 14%. INTJ, ENTP and ENTJ preferences were each reported by 9% of the participants. 62% of all participants in this sample reported preferences in one of those five types (ISTJ, ESTJ, INTJ, ENTP, and ENTJ).
Table 2

Distribution of Type Preferences of U.S. Government Executives

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Leader Type</th>
<th>ISTJ 769 (21%)</th>
<th>ISFJ 109 (3%)</th>
<th>INFJ 63 (2%)</th>
<th>INTJ 332 (9%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Preferences</td>
<td>ISTP 201 (6%)</td>
<td>ISFP 37 (1%)</td>
<td>INFP 98 (3%)</td>
<td>INTP 288 (8%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ESTP 171 (5%)</td>
<td>ESFP 44 (1%)</td>
<td>ENFP 158 (4%)</td>
<td>ENTP 315 (9%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ESTJ 501 (14%)</td>
<td>ESFJ 117 (3%)</td>
<td>ENFJ 87 (2%)</td>
<td>ENTJ 316 (9%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Type preferences were also examined by year in which the data were collected. These results are reported in Table 3. There is little change over the course of the seven years on the S-N, T-F and J-P dichotomies. On the E-I dichotomy, some fluctuation existed. While most years, introversion outnumbered extraversion, 2010 and 2011 were exceptions. In 2010, extraversion exceeded introversion and in 2011 extraversion and introversion were equal. Figures 1 through 4 graphically depict the relatively stable pattern that emerged over the 7 years in which this data were collected.

Table 3

Dichotomy Preferences Reported by Year

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>E</th>
<th>I</th>
<th>S</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>J</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2006</td>
<td>39%</td>
<td>61%</td>
<td>53%</td>
<td>47%</td>
<td>79%</td>
<td>21%</td>
<td>60%</td>
<td>40%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007</td>
<td>49%</td>
<td>51%</td>
<td>56%</td>
<td>44%</td>
<td>79%</td>
<td>21%</td>
<td>64%</td>
<td>36%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2008</td>
<td>45%</td>
<td>55%</td>
<td>51%</td>
<td>49%</td>
<td>79%</td>
<td>21%</td>
<td>62%</td>
<td>38%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2009</td>
<td>47%</td>
<td>53%</td>
<td>54%</td>
<td>46%</td>
<td>81%</td>
<td>19%</td>
<td>61%</td>
<td>39%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>56%</td>
<td>44%</td>
<td>56%</td>
<td>44%</td>
<td>80%</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>65%</td>
<td>35%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>56%</td>
<td>44%</td>
<td>80%</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>64%</td>
<td>36%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012</td>
<td>48%</td>
<td>52%</td>
<td>52%</td>
<td>48%</td>
<td>81%</td>
<td>19%</td>
<td>65%</td>
<td>35%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2013</td>
<td>47%</td>
<td>53%</td>
<td>56%</td>
<td>44%</td>
<td>96%</td>
<td>19%</td>
<td>80%</td>
<td>35%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Figure 1. Extraversion (E) and Introversion (I) preferences of government leaders in a seven year period.

Figure 2. Sensing (S) and Intuition (N) preferences of government leaders in a seven year period.
Figure 3. Thinking (T) and Feeling (F) preferences of government leaders in a seven year period.

Figure 4. Judging (J) and Perceiving (P) preferences of government leaders in a seven year period.
Discussion and Implications

The results of this study provide significant insights into the leadership behaviors and practices of senior government leaders. Because these leaders hold positions of public trust and exist to serve U.S. citizens, it is of interest to compare government leader MBTI preferences to the general population. Comparing the results of this study with the results of the Hammer and Mitchell (1996) national sample provides some insight into the unique characteristics of senior executives in the federal government and the interactions between these leaders and U.S. citizens. Figure 5 provides this comparison and the results are discussed below.

On the E-I dichotomy, the national sample and the government leaders sample are exactly opposite in terms of percentage. Most in the national sample prefer extraversion (53%) whereas most senior executives prefer introversion (53%). This finding may be somewhat paradoxical since a common prototype for leaders suggests the desire to be in front of crowds or conversing with individuals and generally enjoying interpersonal interactions (Bell & Smith, 2010). In contrast, the majority of federal executive leaders are likely to feel their energy drained by constant interactions with others. Those with the introversion preference are likely to need time to internally process information, interactions, conflicts and other types of stimuli before and after receiving the stimulus. The expectation that a senior federal executive can and will make a decision on-the-spot is likely to be untrue. Many will need time to internalize the decision and create internal energy around the decision to be made before it is announced publicly. In addition, those around the introverted leader are not likely to hear about or understand the internal processing that occurred. Whereas those with a preference for extraversion are likely to process ideas and decisions in a public manner, those with an introversion preference will process internally. While both may reach the same decision, the extraverted leader will publically talk through the decision and the introverted leader will internally process the decision.

Figure 5. Percentage comparison of national sample versus federal government executives.
Senior leaders in the federal government prefer intuition (46%) by a higher percentage than the national MBTI sample (30%). While the sensing function is the majority for both federal executives (54%) and the national sample (70%), the higher number of those with intuitive preference in senior leadership positions is notable. The majority of federal executive leaders (54%) take in information using their five senses and their understanding of the moment. However, a large percentage (46%) take in information using their “mental velcro”—attaching associations, meanings and relationships to past experiences, situations and understandings. Those with a preference for intuition are likely to engage in creative problem solving, enjoy strategic planning and have a future focused mindset. On the contrary, those with the sensing preference are more interested in facts, being concrete and realistic and considering just the next steps. That a near equal mix of these two functions is present in senior leaders brings both challenges and opportunities. For example, while those with a sensing preference are keen on details, they also may get lost in those details and encounter “analysis paralysis”. To an intuitive type, this may be frustrating because details are only a starting point and sparingly indicative of future progress. The intuitive types, by focusing on the future, strategy and big ideas will often miss details and nuance. While the opposite preference can be frustrating to the other, working together effectively, both the N and S preferences could develop big, bold ideas and put together the details to implement and execute those ideas.

Also of note is the large percentage of thinking (81%) versus feeling (19%) preference that is present in senior government leaders. When compared to the national sample which splits thinking and feeling at 50-50, this is a striking difference. For federal executives, the predominance of this preference creates a conundrum. On one hand, the federal government exists to serve the needs of the American public with its rich diversity, disparate challenges and increasing complexity. On the other hand, the federal executive is constrained by the U.S constitution, federal regulation and policy and congressional and media oversight. Not meeting the needs of citizens is unacceptable but acting outside of often strict regulations and policy is also unacceptable. The challenge that federal executives must face is to make good judgments (those that serve the public) and also the right judgments (those that align with public policy). Briggs Myers and Myers (1995) argued that most people will spend their life learning how to make good judgments. The thinking preference makes decisions and solves problems based on factual evidence, cause-effect logic, and a problem first-people second mindset. Those with a thinking preference want decisions to be clear and logical and often force objectivity. For those with the thinking preference who revert to logical, impersonal decision making, it is possible that consideration of the unique situations of American citizens could be overlooked or disregarded. This is a blind spot for most with the thinking preference. Government leaders with the thinking preference should be aware that they have a tendency to dismiss unique situations and circumstances in order to make an objective decision and this could be to the detriment of serving the public.

While the national sample is relatively balanced on the judging and perceiving dichotomy (55% to 45%), a higher percentage of government leaders (64%) have a preference for judging. Accordingly, most government leaders prefer to make sense of the world by structure, process, procedures, rules and regulations. For those observing the J preference in action, the visible function is the decision making
function. Thus, it may be difficult if not impossible to know and understand how the J preference person arrived at their decision because that person’s perceiving function (information and data gathering) is not as visible. For example, in the presidential election of 2012, Governor Mitt Romney drew much criticism for shifting political and policy ideologies during his campaign for president from his stances on those ideologies when he was governor of Massachusetts. Invisible to the public was the information, situations, readings, advisors or other information and data that caused Governor Romney to decide his stance. Public to those monitoring the campaign was his decision making function. In much the same manner, senior government executives’ decision making will be most visible to their co-workers, peers and the citizens they serve. It may be difficult to understand how or why the decision was made because the perceiving function (information in-take) is not visible. This coupled with the desire of such executives to come to resolution quickly so as to keep order may cause the perception that the J preference government leader is not responsive to individual needs, is quick to make decisions without knowing all the details and is operating “by the book”. Government leaders should be aware that this may be a perception and could take more time to specifically gather more information from people or other sources.

The stability of the reported MBTI preferences amongst 3,600 executive leaders over the course of seven years is a surprising finding. This result may suggest that I, S, T, J preferences are drawn to government service and then find success in that work, eventually rising to leadership positions. Many professions within the U.S. government are science or engineering related and ISTJ types are common in these professions (Kroeger & Thuesen, 2002). The government environment which is often incased in policy, regulation, and law may attract leaders with an STJ preference. The sensing preference allows the leader to be present and aware in any given moment, while making logical, reason-based decisions (thinking preference) in an efficient and effective manner so as to maintain order and adherence to policy (judging preference).

The combination of the T and J preferences is also of interest. TJ types are reputed to be well organized, disciplined, results-oriented, and in-control. They are frequently found in managerial positions and tend to gravitate to such roles (Kroeger & Thuesen, 2002). However, the S and the N preference are nearly evenly divided (54% to 46%) in government leaders so these preferences add yet another dynamic to the mix. In Figure 6, the four type distributions most common amongst federal executives are shown highlighted in a type table.
The four corners (highlighted in Figure 6) where ISTJ, INTJ, ESTJ and ENTJ are located are often referred to as the "hard edges" of the type table (Briggs Myers & Myers, 1995). These four types tend to engage the outer world in such a way as to plan, organize, and control events in a "hard" way via the impersonal, critical, task-focused thinking function. The TJ types also are referred to as the "executive types" and are described as "...tough-minded, executive, analytical, and instrumental leaders" (Briggs Myers, McCaulley, Quenk & Hammer, 2003, p. 88). STJs in particular tend to prefer organizations that are conservatively designed with a clear emphasis on a chain of command, clear roles and responsibilities, and clear discipline and reward structures. These types enjoy structure, completing projects, and fairness. This description provides insight into why the STJ and NTJ types are drawn to work in the government bureaucracy, which is structured, project oriented and highly regulated. In fact, these types may thrive in a bureaucratic environment. These results explain some of cause for the function and dysfunction in the federal government bureaucracy. For leadership educators, it is important to understand the natural preferences of these types and help them develop innate abilities and strengths but also to be aware of blind spots and other issues that may arise based on MBTI preferences.

**Conclusion**

The results of this study indicate that federal executive leaders in the U.S. government have a type distribution that differs in many aspects from the type distribution in the national MBTI sample. Future studies should focus on the causes, implications and outcomes of the current analysis.

Leadership educators have an opportunity to use knowledge of MBTI preferences to tailor learning but also as an educational tool for current and future leaders. Personality type preferences have an impact on the types of learning that will be most impactful and preferred by learners. With a general knowledge of the MBTI type preferences and knowledge of the predominant types present in senior government leaders, leadership educators and practitioners are better equipped to design programs and training opportunities that will be more effective. Knowledge of type preference will aid educators in preparing students for learning situations that are outside of the comfort zone and then be able to make more valuable and insightful connections to a variety of learning situations.

As educators consider how learning can transform potential into performance, it is important to understand the natural tendencies that learners bring to the classroom. With this understanding, leadership educators are better equipped to leverage these natural preferences to design and deliver more effective, engaging and transforming learning experiences.

**References**


What They Think: Faculty Members’ Perceptions on Effective Methods for Teaching Ethical and Moral Leadership

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University of Florida

Abstract
As a result of an increasing number of ethical and moral scandals over the past decades, society has demanded an increase in the teaching of ethical and moral leadership within educational institutions. The study sought to determine how faculty members teach ethical and moral leadership, specifically, what instructional methods they perceive to be effective for teaching ethical and/or moral leadership.

Participants were surveyed regarding the following constructs: effective methods for developing student knowledge of ethical and moral leadership principles and behaviors, demographic characteristics, and perceptions of the terms “ethics” and “morals” and determining student behaviors. The study found that when teaching ethical and/or moral leadership principles, participants perceive instructor-led discussion, traditional lecture and activities to be most effective. When teaching ethical and/or moral leadership behaviors, participants perceive instructor-led discussion and activities to be most effective. Lastly, participants do not have a clear understanding of the terms “ethics” and “morals” and perceive their students’ individual cognitive moral development to drastically increase as a direct result of their instructional methods.

Introduction
Society has seen an ever-increasing decline in the ethical and moral behavior of its leaders over the past few decades. The now infamous scandals and poor leadership behavior of Enron, Arthur Andersen, Martha Stewart, and of late, the Yahoo! Chief Executive Officer, Scott Thompson, and former CIA Director, General David Petraeus, have all contributed to the decline and to society’s concerns about the integrity and according to Brown, Treviño and Harrison (2005), the “role of leadership in shaping ethical conduct” (p. 117). Ethical scandals, such as those mentioned above, have led to corporate investigations, research on the ethical and moral behavior of business leaders, demands for justice, and of most importance to the study, action from educational institutions in preparing sound ethical and moral leaders for society.

In a study conducted by The Conference Board, Corporate Voices for Working Families, Partnership for 21st Century Skills, and the Society for Human Resource Management (2006), employers were asked to
rank “very important” skills related to workforce readiness. Among the top ten “very important” skills were “ethics/social responsibility” (Casner-Lotto, Barrington, & Wright, 2006, p. 9). The report concluded that two-year college graduates were deficient in many applied skills, including ethics and social responsibility (Casner-Lotto et al., 2006). Additionally, unethical behavior was listed as the most employer-identified attribute for top reasons new college graduates are fired (Casner-Lotto & Silvert, 2008).

**Educational Institutions Responsibility**

Facing scrutiny from the press, corporations, and society for not preparing ethically and morally sound leaders, not valuing ethics, and after accusations of being just as blameworthy as the wrong-doers (Alsop, 2003; Ghosal, 2003; Willen, 2004), educational institutions have begun to take a closer look at how ethics and morals play a role in their curriculum and what steps they can take to ensure those skills are taught to students. Liddell and Cooper (2012) noted that, “recent events and public debate have renewed the focus of higher education toward a consideration of moral development as an anticipated outcome of college attendance” (p. 5). This had led to a new emphasis on ethical coursework as many research scholars have noted (Bazerman & Gino, 2012; Canales, Massey, & Wrzesniewski, 2010; Clayton, 1999; Merritt, 2003; Pennington, 2006; Peppas & Diskin, 2001; Sims & Sims, 1991).

**Leadership Instruction in Colleges of Agriculture**

Universities have been working hard to meet those perceptions of their responsibilities through what has become a public, and somewhat transparent, lens of the inner-workings and course offerings of universities (Alsop, 2003). Though many of the aforementioned ethical scandals have occurred in the business world of management and corporate governance, much of the root of the problem has been traced back to those offenders who have largely been educated within our country’s leading business schools, such as Yale University’s School of Management (Ghosal, 2003).

However, leadership education of our society’s leaders does not just occur within the realms of Ivy League business schools. Many leadership programs are housed within other colleges, departments or academic units. As the report published by Corporate Voices for America (2010) stated, leadership is another applied skill in which college graduates are deficient. Colleges of agriculture are examples of academic units that have traditionally taught leadership and current research (Pennington, 2006) has suggested that colleges of agriculture may be beginning to address ethics in their leadership courses.

**Teaching Ethical and Moral Leadership Principles and Behaviors**

As departments work to recognize the relationship between ethics, morals and leadership by including ethical/moral coursework or leadership training into their programs, a larger question has surfaced: What are the most effective ways to teach ethical/moral leadership to ensure graduates will be ethically and morally sound leaders? Several opinions have formed on the topic and the small amount of research that has been conducted seems to have offered mixed conclusions (Dean & Beggs, 2006; Peppas & Diskin, 2001). “A review of the literature examining whether college-level ethics courses, and/or courses
in which ethics is incorporated into course content, have an impact on attitudes toward ethics shows that the results of the studies are mixed” (Peppas & Diskin, 2001, p. 348).

Included in the debate of how to best teach ethics and morals in leadership have been issues of whether or not ethics should be integrated into departmental or college-wide curricula, if ethics should be taught as a stand-alone course (Alsop, 2003; Murray, 2004); the disconnect between ethics and leadership (Canales, et al., 2010); how best to teach ethical leadership (Reeves, 2002); ethical frameworks to use (Oddo, 1997; Begley & Stefkovich, 2007); determining effective pedagogical approaches (Dean & Beggs, 2006); and different learning theory bases for ethical leadership curriculum (social learning theory, etc.) (Murray, 2004; Wilcox & Ebbs, 1992). Additionally, several scholars have noted that more research is needed on different approaches to teaching ethics (Murray, 2004; Peppas & Diskin, 2001; Reeves, 2002) and how to effectively teach ethics and ethical leadership (Brown & Treviño, 2006; Brown, Treviño, & Harrison, 2005; Peppas & Diskin, 2001; Sims & Felton, 2005).

Purpose and Objectives
The purpose of the study was to determine faculty members’ perceptions of methods for teaching ethical and moral leadership principles and behaviors in undergraduate college of agriculture courses. Objectives of the study included:

• Objective 1: To identify effective methods for developing student knowledge of ethical and moral leadership principles as reported by college of agriculture faculty.
• Objective 2: To identify effective methods for developing student knowledge of ethical and moral leadership behaviors as reported by college of agriculture faculty.
• Objective 3: To determine the demographic characteristics of faculty who teach ethical and moral leadership in colleges of agriculture.
• Objective 4: Identify faculty members’ perceptions of the terms “ethics” and “morals” and determining student behaviors.

Literature Review
After reviewing the literature, some inconsistencies were found in regards to the terms “ethics and morals.” Liddell and Cooper (2012) confirm the inconsistencies. “The term ‘moral development’ often is used as an interchangeable term for ‘ethical development,’ yet these are somewhat distinct constructs” (p. 14). For the purposes of the study, ethics and morals were operationally defined as: the identification of right and wrong principles, and the application of those principles according to moral standards. Ethical leadership was defined as: “the demonstration of normatively appropriate conduct through personal actions and interpersonal relationships, and the promotion of such conduct to followers through two-way communication, reinforcement, and decision-making” (Brown, et al., 2005, p. 120).

Three theories contributed to the study: Kohlberg’s theory of cognitive moral development, Rest’s four-component model of moral reasoning and social learning/cognitive theory.
According to Ambrose, Arnaud, and Schminke (2007), Beggs and Dean (2007), Ferris (1996), and Wright (1995), a theory that has had an impact on individual ethical and moral development is Lawrence Kohlberg’s theory of cognitive moral development. The theory of cognitive moral development breaks down the process of “the progressive increase in moral autonomy in early adolescence” (Wright, 1995, p. 17). The theory consists of six stages, separated into three levels: pre-conventional level, conventional level, and post-conventional level. Each level indicates increased moral development from a prior level (Hren, et al., 2006). Baxter and Rarick (1987) stated, “According to Kohlberg, many individuals never progress beyond Level II” (p. 244). Within each level of morality are two stages illustrative of the personal moral development stage an individual is currently at while progressing through the levels.

Another theory that added to the study’s theoretical foundation was James Rest and colleagues’ four-component model of moral reasoning. As defined by Dean and Beggs (2006), Rest’s model consists of the following four components: moral sensitivity, which is further defined as “an awareness of the moral content in a situation”; moral judgment, which is an individual’s selection of an analytical framework or standard of judgment and further application of the selection to a situation to determine morally appropriate action; moral will (also known as moral motivation), which is the resolution to act in accordance with the judgment made; and lastly, moral action, which is the “implementation of the moral judgment” (p. 21).

A third contributing theory that may influence ethical and moral leadership curricula, teaching practices, and help provide a medium for understanding ethical leadership is social learning theory. Brown, et al. (2005) stated that social learning theory provides a “strong theoretical foundation for understanding ethical leadership” (129-130). As it was used in the study, social learning theory as developed by Bandura (1977, 1986), provided a lens for understanding relationships, situations, and influences between followers and ethical leaders, and the interactions between the two. Since followers often learn from leaders, social learning theory posits that ethical behaviors and practices could also be learned from psychological matching processes such as observation, substitution of behaviors and mimicking.

**Literature Supporting Formal Education as an Influencing Factor**

As noted by several scholars, the formal education process has also affected individual’s moral functioning processes (Cloninger & Selvarajan, 2010; Jagger, 2011; King & Mayhew, 2002; Maeda et al., 2009; Sims & Felton, 2005). In a study analyzing two components of Rest’s model, Jagger (2011) sought to determine changes in moral judgment “resulting from an educational intervention” (p. 13). The study found “low levels of ethical sensitivity can have a significant impact on the ability of a person to develop moral judgment” (Jagger, 2011, p. 23). “In other words, students who struggled to identify and interpret the ethical issues to a reasonably high level were less able to make postconventional moral judgements” (Jagger, 2011, p. 23).

Similarly, Maeda, Thoma, and Bebeau’s 2009 study noted a transition from a conventional to a postconventional view of morality during adolescence and youth as a result of formal education. Maeda et al. (2009) recognized other studies that believe “students are influenced by the curriculum, both
formal (e.g., coursework highlighting moral issues) and informal (the social environment that fosters a discussion of moral issues. . .)” (p. 233).

An additional finding by King and Mayhew (2002) supported the study’s specific colleges of agriculture context. “Specific collegiate contexts (liberal arts colleges, certain types of educational experiences) are also associated with growth in moral judgment, and with the production of moral behavior” (p. 266).

Current Teaching Practices for Ethical and Moral Leadership

Many scholars have written about the beneficial effects of college education on moral and ethical judgments (Dean & Beggs, 2006). The teaching of ethics in institutions of higher education has been debated (Peppas & Diskin, 2001; Sims & Felton, 2005), however, a study by Sims and Felton (2005) reported, “the moral development of students can be enhanced through the education process” (p. 32). In regards to the debate, Ryan and Bisson (2011) stated, “it is not that ethics cannot be taught, but rather, how ethics education is delivered which might be the reason for poor ethical attitude amongst students and recent graduates” (p. 47). Though no one set of teaching practices has been identified as effective for teaching ethical and moral leadership, numerous studies have been conducted (Dean & Beggs, 2006; Ferris, 1996; Sims & Felton, 2005, Sims & Sims, 1991; Winston, 2005; Wright, 1995) that have provided evidence of the specific teaching practices used in classrooms. Teaching practices that have been mentioned in the literature as current educational practices used for teaching ethics and morals in a leadership-related context or setting include: storytelling, dialogue, specific practices such as defining ethics (Sims & Felton, 2005); videotapes, recommended readings, lectures, group discussions, and exams (Ryan & Bisson, 2011).

Relevant to teaching practices, Keller (2007) noted the difference between straight lecture and transformational instructional methodologies. Keller (2007) stated that direct presentations of class concepts and information (i.e., lecture) were examples of transactional instructional methodologies, whereas critical reflection and discussion were deemed as transformational instructional methodologies. In his findings, Keller (2007) noted that his sample of students preferred discussion to straight lecture.

Methods

The study was descriptive in nature and was constructed to serve as a census study. The context of the study was within land-grant colleges of agriculture. The data sources utilized for the study were all leadership education faculty members in departments of agricultural education, within colleges of agriculture, that have taught some component of ethical and moral leadership in their undergraduate leadership education courses.

As a current list of the described population did not exist, a researcher-developed list of all eligible participants for the study was constructed. The list was partially developed by land-grant universities listed on the Association of Leadership Educators (ALE, 2012) website, the Association of Public and Land-Grant Universities (APLU, 2012) official website, and the American Association for Agricultural Education’s (AAAE, 2012) website. This list, comprised of 77 separate colleges or schools of agriculture,
provided the study with an overall population of 32 individuals. As a census, the entire population was asked to participate in the study.

Because a current instrument that measured faculty members’ perceptions of teaching methods for ethical and moral leadership did not exist at the time of the study, the instrument was researcher-developed. The study’s survey instrument included a mixture of close-ended and open-ended questions. At least four questions per objective were formulated in order to measure each objective. The instrument was approved by the University of Florida Institutional Review Board (IRB-02). After completion of a pilot test, the survey questionnaire was distributed to all participant e-mail addresses. An e-mail about faculty members’ initial inclusion into the study was sent to notify them of the upcoming survey, provide study information, encourage their participation by assuring them that the results of the study would be provided and show appreciation for their assistance with the study. The promise of providing results was the only incentive used in the study. Reminder e-mails were sent out according to the Tailored Design method (Dillman et al. 2009) at varying times past the initial survey distribution. All attempts at addressing non-response were personalized. The e-mails were sent to initial non-respondents over a period of two weeks. Follow-up telephone calls were made as an attempt to reach non-respondents, answer any questions they may have had and to encourage them to complete the survey.

Data were collected on years of teaching experience, age, gender, race and educational level achieved. Demographic information was obtained to determine if any significant relationships existed between leadership educators’ characteristics and their perceptions of teaching methods for ethical and moral leadership. Descriptive statistics (frequencies) were calculated on all study variables. The open-ended questions on the instrument were analyzed through content analysis, using comparative coding, which identified similar themes among responses.

Findings
The following findings were representative of the data obtained for achieving each objective of the study. The initial response rate consisted of 25 participants. Seven participants did not complete the entire instrument, leaving only 18 qualified participants and a response rate of 56% ($n = 18$).

Objective 1: To Identify Effective Methods for Developing Student Knowledge of Ethical and Moral Leadership Principles as Reported by College of Agriculture Faculty
The top three instructional techniques used by participants were: instructor-led discussion (61.1%), traditional lecture (50%) and activities (50%). Participants chose seven techniques they thought to be most effective for teaching ethical and/or moral leadership principles, with activities ($n = 5$) being the most chosen of the instructional techniques. The other techniques were instructor-led discussion ($n = 4$), student-led discussion ($n = 3$), case studies ($n = 3$), current events ($n = 3$), videos ($n = 2$) and guest lecturers ($n = 2$). Participants indicated they use a variety of specific methods to effectively use their chosen technique/s for teaching ethical and/or moral leadership principles.
Objective 2: To Identify Effective Methods for Developing Student Knowledge of Ethical and Moral Leadership Behaviors as Reported by College of Agriculture Faculty.

The top two instructional techniques used by participants were: activities (44.4%) and instructor-led discussion (44.4%). When asked what specific instructional technique they thought to be most effective when teaching ethical and/or moral leadership behaviors, activities topped the list \((n = 4)\) of the ten techniques identified, followed by case studies \((n = 2)\), discussion groups \((n = 2)\), guest lecturers \((n = 2)\), instructor-led discussion \((n = 2)\), role-playing/role-modeling \((n = 2)\), current events \((n = 1)\), debates \((n = 2)\), ethics panel \((n = 1)\) and popular press \((n = 1)\). For teaching ethical and/or moral leadership behaviors, participants listed a variety of specific ways in which they effectively use their chosen technique/s.

Objective 3: To Determine the Demographic Characteristics of Faculty who Teach Ethical and Moral Leadership in Colleges of Agriculture.

55.6% of respondents were male, 44.4% were female. The majority of participants were either 33 – 40 years in age (44.4%) or were 49 – 56 years in age (33.3%).

When asked, “In what specific ways have you taught ethics as related to leadership?,” 72% \((n = 13)\) of the 18 participants selected that they teach ethics as related to leadership as an embedded course only (as a unit or sub-unit within another course), 16.7% \((n = 3)\) selected that they teach ethics as related to leadership as both a stand-alone and an embedded course. When asked, “In what specific ways have you taught morals as related to leadership?,” participants’ responses were identical to the previous question.

Objective 4: Identify Faculty Members’ Perceptions of the Terms “Ethics” and “Morals” and Determining Student Behaviors.

A large part of the study analyzed how faculty members perceive their students’ reasoning behind their actions both prior to completing their course in ethical and/or moral leadership and after completing their course. Two questions specifically identified which level and stage— according to Kohlberg’s Cognitive Theory of Moral Development— faculty members’ perceptions of their students fell into before and after taking their course. The study showed that faculty members perceive their students’ reasoning and level of cognitive moral development to be lower—ranking near the preconventional level of cognitive moral development—prior to taking their course (Table 5.1). This finding supports multiple studies (Wu, 2003, as reported by O’Fallon and Butterfield, 2005; Maeda, et al., 2009; Cloninger & Selvarajan, 2010).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Kohlberg’s Levels and Stages of Cognitive Moral Development</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>( f )</th>
<th>%</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Level I: Preconventional Morality</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Stage 1: Punishment orientation
Obeys rules to avoid punishment 4 22.2

Stage 2: Reward orientation
Conforms to obtain rewards, to have favors returned 6 33.3

Level II: Conventional Morality
Stage 3: Good-boy/good-girl orientation
Conforms to avoid disapproval of others 3 16.7

Stage 4: Authority orientation
Upholds laws and social rules to avoid censure of authorities and feelings of guilt about not “doing one’s duty” 1 5.6

Level III: Postconventional Morality
Stage 5: Social contract orientation
Actions guided by principles commonly agreed on as essential to the public welfare; principles upheld to retain respect of peers and, thus, self-respect 3 16.7

Stage 6: Ethical principle orientation
Actions guided by self-chosen ethical principles; principles upheld to avoid self-condemnation 1 5.6

The study also found that faculty members perceive their students’ reasoning and level of cognitive moral development to be significantly higher—ranking near the postconventional level of cognitive moral development—after taking their course (Table 5.2). As shown by the frequencies, faculty members’ have a higher perception of their students’ moral development after the students have taken their course. This indicates that faculty members perceive their teaching methods to be effective and as a direct result, also perceive their course on ethical and/or moral leadership to have a significant positive impact on students’ ethical/moral leadership behavior.

Though faculty members may be correct in perceiving an increase in cognitive moral development and reasoning after taking their course, such a drastic increase from a preconventional level to a postconventional level raises concerns. The researcher found it unlikely that in single semester, a student could jump from the earliest stage of preconventional morality—obeying rules to avoid punishment—all the way to one of the highest stages of postconventional morality. Kohlberg notes that many individuals never progress beyond Level II (Baxter & Rarick, 1987).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Kohlberg’s Levels and Stages</th>
<th>Description</th>
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<tr>
<td>Table 5-2. Participants’ Description of Their Students After Taking Their Course (n = 18)</td>
<td>Description</td>
<td>f</td>
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<tr>
<td>Level</td>
<td>Moral Development</td>
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<tr>
<td>Level I: Preconventional Morality</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stage 1: Punishment orientation</td>
<td>Obeys rules to avoid punishment</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stage 2: Reward orientation</td>
<td>Conforms to obtain rewards, to have favors returned</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level II: Conventional Morality</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stage 3: Good-boy/good-girl orientation</td>
<td>Conforms to avoid disapproval of others</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>11.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stage 4: Authority orientation</td>
<td>Upholds laws and social rules to avoid censure of authorities and feelings of guilt about not “doing one’s duty”</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level III: Postconventional Morality</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stage 5: Social contract orientation</td>
<td>Actions guided by principles commonly agreed on as essential to the public welfare; principles upheld to retain respect of peers and, thus, self-respect</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>66.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stage 6: Ethical principle orientation</td>
<td>Actions guided by self-chosen ethical principles; principles upheld to avoid self-condemnation</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>11.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Faculty members were also asked to define “ethics” and “morals”. This question was asked to determine if faculty members’ perception and definitions of these terms were consistent with each other and with definitions provided by the literature. Results indicated that faculty members have different perceptions of what the terms “ethics” and “morals” represent. For example, the study defined morals as: “morals, which they [philosophers] describe as specific standards [emphasis added] of right and wrong. . .” (Johnson, 2012, p. xxi). In other words, “morals” meaning the application of those principles [right and wrong] according to moral standards (i.e. the application resulting in “good”/“bad” result or action). One participant however, defined morals as: “an individual’s sense of what is right and wrong or [emphasis added] what is good and bad”. This particular definition clearly indicates the participant is meshing the meaning of ethics into the definition of morals.
Discussion and Implications

When asked to report how they specifically taught ethics as related to leadership and morals as related to leadership, faculty members’ responses were identical. This indicated no new instructional methods or strategies are being used to differentiate learning between the two. Since ethical leadership is different from moral leadership (as defined in the study), it seems logical that faculty members should consider using different methods/approaches for different topics.

Additionally, key findings of the demographic information indicated the majority of faculty members have had some experience with ethical and/or moral leadership and have been teaching some component of ethical and/or moral leadership for four or more years. Thus, it seems likely that the majority of faculty members should be aware of which instructional methods have proven ineffective in their classrooms. The study’s results suggested otherwise: the majority of faculty members are using the same instructional methods and they perceive their students’ cognitive moral development to be dramatically increasing and improving because of their instructional methods.

This study sought to determine which teaching techniques faculty members perceive to be effective when teaching both ethical and moral leadership principles and behaviors. Regarding ethical and moral leadership principles, the study’s results showed that two of the top three most-often used techniques would fall into “transactional” teaching methods which are more traditional and are not preferred by students (Keller, 2007).

Regarding ethical and moral leadership behaviors, the study’s results showed that faculty members mainly use one of each technique: instructor-led discussion, defined by Keller (2007) as a traditional technique, and activities, defined by Keller (2007) as a transformational and more effective technique. Among the least-used instructional techniques were transformational instructional techniques: student-led discussion, journals, and social media. Also low on the list was role playing/role-modeling which Brown and Treviño (2006) suggested as a process essential to “vicarious” learning of ethical and moral leadership: “[role playing/role-modeling is] particularly important for learning about ethical and unethical behavior in organizational contexts (p. 598). Additionally, techniques reported to be effective in literature in developing ethical and/or moral leadership principles or behaviors, such as simulations (Sims, 1991), role-modeling (Wright, 1995), case studies (Jagger, 2011); and videos (Ryan & Bisson, 2011) are not being used by faculty members as top priority teaching methods.

Lastly, the study noted the difference between faculty members’ definitions of the terms “ethics” and “morals.” Some definitions of “ethics” and “morals” were remarkably similar to each other, suggesting a clear understanding of these terms among faculty members does not exist. Other definitions seem to be the exact opposite of what the terms ethics and/or morals mean according to the definitions provided for the study.

Recommendations

Recommendations for the first two objectives are centered around faculty members changing their current teaching methods to include more transformational teaching styles to better engage their
students in discussion and behavior-related and skills-based activities, and communicate ethical and moral leadership principles and behaviors more clearly.

Regarding the third objective, faculty members should consider teaching ethical and/or moral leadership as a stand-alone course to ensure enough attention is given to the topic, ample time is provided for developed discussions and students have the opportunity to complete a long-term ethical and/or moral leadership activity.

Recommendations regarding the final objective are for faculty members to integrate and base their curriculum development on sound ethical or moral developmental theories and to identify specific theories particularly relevant to their course objectives, curriculum, and end-of-course goals. Faculty members should use found theories to clarify their own understanding of the terms “ethics” and “morals.” their students’ moral development, faculty members should survey their students’ current cognitive moral development level prior to and after taking their course on ethical and/or moral leadership development.

More research should be conducted to discover why faculty members use the ethical and moral leadership instructional techniques they do and why they perceive them to be effective. Additionally, research is needed on what instructional techniques prove to be most effective for teaching ethical and/or moral leadership behaviors. The study focused solely on faculty perceptions of methods for teaching ethical and/or moral leadership practices and behaviors; a follow-up study should be conducted to determine student perceptions of faculty members’ methods for teaching ethical and/or moral leadership practices and behaviors. Lastly, a study analyzing the degree to which faculty members exaggerate their use of non-lecture-based instruction might reveal self-serving bias that ultimately impacts students’ learning outcomes.

Conclusions
Overall, the study provided information on how ethical and moral leadership curricula is currently taught, specifically, educational frameworks and pedagogies faculty members have been using to teach ethical and moral leadership and particular influences that affect individual cognitive moral development.

Important findings from the study include: Faculty members perceive a variety of instructional techniques to be effective when teaching ethical and/or moral leadership behaviors and principles. Many of these instructional techniques are transactional (Keller, 2007) and unappealing to students’ learning styles. The majority of faculty members perceive their instructional methods to be effective enough that their students progress from the lowest level of cognitive moral development to the highest level of cognitive moral development, and thus moral reasoning, after just one semester of embedded ethics and/or moral leadership instruction. Lastly, faculty members do not have consistent definitions of the terms “ethics” and “morals.” In conclusion, the findings of the study suggested that faculty members are not adequately preparing students to lead or make decisions in an ethical or moral manner.
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You Got the Grant, Now What? Understanding Differences in Leadership Style and Perceptions of Teamwork by Principle Investigators

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Abstract
The purpose of this study was to begin exploring the nature of leadership behavior and style, along with team functionality. As the extent to which the problems we face grow and become more complex, researchers must be prepared to deal with issues related not just to the problem at hand, but leading large groups of researchers from a variety of disciplines. With this in mind, the study sought to explore the self-perceptions of principle investigators related to their leadership style and team functionality. It was found that transformational leadership was self-perceived to be used the most in contrast to transactional leadership behaviors. With respect to team functionality, absence of trust and inattention to results showed the greatest concern among PI’s, yet fear of conflict did not.

Introduction
Higher education is facing a unique challenge today; increasing demand, limited resources, knowledge gaps, and the same amount of time to produce results (Bruce & Ricketts, 2008; Miller, Baird, Littlefield, Kofinas, Chapin, & Redman, 2008). Budget cuts have forced researchers to adapt their work to be more efficient in the division of resources and knowledge (Minarovic, 2000). Minarovic also points out that sources of funding are also requiring more comprehensive research, forcing disciplines, such as those in agricultural sciences to work together to receive funding. Stedman (2011) stated “Historically, many of the teams granted funds for research have been unidisciplinary in scope, providing only one perspective or view of the problem and thus, solution. Many researchers attest that many challenges associated with solving complex research problems are due to strict differences in approaches to research, which restrict holistic perspectives (Miller et. al, 2008; Minarovic, 2000). In response to these many challenges, research is being conducted by interdisciplinary, multidisciplinary, and transdisciplinary groups.

Guion (2010) provided guidelines to follow when working in an interdisciplinary team, for example recognize every team members contributions, maximize member’s expertise, and use a team approach, to name a few. However, Guion never described who would be leading the team or how, also who makes sure the team is following the said guidelines? According to Stokols et al. (2008), skills and styles of team leaders immensely influence the quality of social interactions in cross-disciplinary research. Researchers hoped to investigate the role of principle investigators in interdisciplinary research in an effort to improve effectiveness. Empirical data collection was the goal to determining what types of leader behaviors are effective in interdisciplinary research teams.
Theoretical Framework and Literature Review

Principle investigators (PIs), as leaders of cross-disciplinary research, play a pivotal role in the way multiple disciplines collaborate to solve complex research questions. One vantage point for researching the quality of interactions between interdisciplinary teams is to determine the teams’ perception of the leadership and teamwork (Stedman, 2011). As teambuilding efforts in cross-disciplinary research become more prevalent, the need to assess the leadership behaviors of principle investigators becomes more important. The qualities and perceptions that PIs have regarding leadership and teamwork may give insight into how research teams function (Stedman, 2011).

Bruce and Ricketts (2008) addressed the stigma of inequitable resources by stating that education was the key to solving this problem in order for the environment of interdisciplinary teams to turn from hostility and separation to one of harmony and civility. However, what remains absent from Bruce and Ricketts’ discussion is the role that a principle investigator plays in making productivity and harmony characteristics of the environment among interdisciplinary groups. The role of the principle investigator should be that of the administrator or manager as previously referred to in Bruce and Ricketts’ study (2008). However, principle investigator’s leadership behaviors have failed to be an important topic discussed among researchers. The reason is unknown, but the benefits of knowing the role principle investigators play could alleviate or conquer some of the current challenges that interdisciplinary groups are facing (Bruce & Ricketts, 2008). Cropper & Merkowitz (1998) recognized that interdisciplinary teamwork allows for researchers to reduce replicated information and programming. Cropper and Merkowitz point out that this interdisciplinary teamwork increases support for members of the team.

Leadership

Scholars have been striving to understand how training can be implemented to improve the team aspects of cross-disciplinary research. According to Fiore (2008), many different types of training have been considered in order to improve the success of cross-disciplinary teams, such as team building, team dimensional training, cross training, and crew resource management. However, according to Fiore (2008), several theoretical approaches to leadership have been identified and applied in a range of industries, such as politics and military. However, there lies a great opportunity for leadership to be assessed within cross-disciplinary research (Fiore, 2008). In the agricultural context, Ricketts and Bruce (2009) and Meier (1989) argue that leaders of interdisciplinary teams are vital to the environment, collaboration and communication of a team of researchers. Gray (2008) described leadership in cross-disciplinary research as a mental model, or mindset, that leaders impose and followers adhere. According to Huxham and Vangen (2000), leadership in multi-disciplinary teams provides “the mechanisms that lead a collaboration’s policy and activity agenda in one direction rather than another” (p. 1165).

Antonakis, Avolio, & Sivasubramaniam (2003) operationalized transformational leadership behaviors as follows: Idealized Influence: leaders display conviction; emphasize trust; take stands on difficult issues; present their most important values; and emphasize the importance of purpose, commitment, and the ethical consequences of decision. Such leaders are admired as role models; they generate pride, loyalty, confidence, and alignment around a shared purpose. Inspirational
Motivation: leaders articulate an appealing vision of the future, challenge followers with high standards, talk optimistically and with enthusiasm, and provide encouragement and meaning for what needs to be done. Intellectual Stimulation: leaders question old assumptions, traditions, and beliefs; stimulate in others new perspectives and ways of doing things; and encourage the expression of ideas and reasons. Individualized Consideration: leaders deal with others as individuals; consider their individual needs, abilities and aspirations; listen attentively; further their development; advise; and coach.

Transactional leadership was operationalized as: Contingent Reward: leaders engage in a constructive path-goal transaction of reward for performance. They clarify expectations, exchange promises and resources, arrange mutually satisfactory agreements, negotiate for resources, exchange assistance for effort, and provide commendations for successful follower performance. Management-by-Exception: Active—leaders monitor followers' performance and take corrective action if deviations from standards occur. They enforce rules to avoid mistakes. Passive—leaders fail to intervene until problems become serious. They wait to take action until mistakes are brought to their attention (Antonakis, Avolio, & Sivasubramaniam, 2003).

Key themes in regards to what traits and actions team leader should possess and enact were prevalent in previous research. Stokols, et al., (2008) recommended that supportive and empowering leaders employ considerable support for team members in an academic setting. Young (2000) noted that leaders need to be modest, benevolent, visionary, and strong. Young (2000) also identified a list of leadership tasks categorized as: cognitive, structural, and processual when conducting research on leadership roles in transdisciplinary research. Cognitive tasks refer to leadership involving the management of meaning. Leaders provide meaning by providing a map of goals and pathways for achievement, and simultaneously encouraging creativity from members and instilling motivation. Structural tasks of the leader involve managing the need for coordination and information exchange directly inside and outside the team. Furthermore, processual tasks involve the management. As outlined by Gray (2008) these tasks include: designing meetings, determining ground rules, helping teams move toward objectives, building trust, making certain communication is effective, attaining buy-in, and managing conflict.

Other themes have also been identified in regards to the environment of interdisciplinary research: tendencies toward conflict, collaborative readiness, and preparation and practice (Stokols, Misra et al., 2008). These three themes have overlapped with previous studies and research previously mentioned, such as Boone’s (1990) recommendation that practice is the sure way to become more effective in participating in multidisciplinary teams. Stokols et al., (2008) have extensively constructed the contextual factors that apply for leadership application for effectiveness in interdisciplinary teams. As the need for interdisciplinary teams increase, principle investigators must take a pensive view of themselves, investigating their behaviors and how these behaviors affect the success of interdisciplinary teams.

**Teamwork**

According to Bruce and Ricketts (2008), teamwork is extremely important among cross-disciplinary groups in order to produce effective and efficient work. Collaboration has been the focus of much research (Bruce & Ricketts, 2008; Grage, Place, & Ricketts, 2004) relating to the effectiveness of
multiple disciplines coming together to produce mutually beneficial results. Collaboration is defined as the act or work with others for mutual benefit (Bruce & Ricketts, 2008). According to Whent (1994) in a study of agriculture teachers, when information sharing, team building, and assigned tasks were characteristic of groups, the amount of cooperation and resource sharing significantly increased. Fiore (2008) argues that interdisciplinary research is team research and this science of team is a catalyst for change. Coordinating scientific teams is a process that does not naturally occur, but is learned. Fiore (2008) makes clear that researchers are often burdened by interdisciplinary research, because researchers feel they must have a great understanding of each discipline. However, Fiore makes the argument that when teams outside of scientific research come together, they do so by bringing unique skills to the problem they are solving and in this way solve problems by connecting overlapping knowledge. Therefore, Fiore (2008) suggested that interdisciplinary research should be viewed through a teamwork lens, not as a product that emerges. The opportunities of team science in an interdisciplinary context help frame the concept of social intelligence, which is necessary in interdisciplinary teams (Fiore, 2008). According to Fiore (2008), this viewpoint could potentially make interdisciplinary research more amenable.

Lencioni’s Five Dysfunctions of a Team (2002) were used to determine the teamwork aspect for this study; absence of trust, fear of conflict, lack of commitment, avoidance of accountability, and inattention to results. Absence of trust refers to team members who hesitate to ask for help, hesitate to offer help, hold grudges, dread meetings, and jump to negative conclusions about other team members (Lencioni, 2002). Fear of conflict refers to teams that have boring meetings, create environments were personal attacks thrive, ignore controversial topics, and waste time with posturing and interpersonal risks (Lencioni, 2002). Lack of commitment refers to teams who breed lack of confidence and fear of failure, revisit discussions again and again, and encourage second guessing among team members (Lencioni, 2002). Teams that avoid accountability are teams who create resentment among members, miss deadlines, place the sole source of discipline on the leaders, and encourage mediocrity (Lencioni, 2002). Finally, teams that are not focused on results tend to be stagnant in growth, often defeated by competitors, easily distracted, and encourage team members to focus on personal growth not team growth (Lencioni, 2002).

**Purpose**

The purpose of this study was to determine if their leadership style effected their perceptions of teamwork ability. The following objectives were established to provide guidance to the methodology of the study:

1. to identify PI’s self-perceived leadership behaviors,
2. to describe PI’s perceptions of teamwork,
3. to report mean scores by the selected demographics of gender, age, rank, and discipline, and
4. to identify relationships between leadership behaviors and teamwork.

**Methods**

This quantitative descriptive study used design to assess the self-perceptions of principle investigator’s leadership behaviors and style, as well as teamwork. In order to accomplish this, the research team established an IRB protocol #2011-U-0691. The study was partially funded through the National Institute of Food and Agriculture (NIFA) discretionary funds. NIFA provided the
researchers with database access to projects funded within between 2005 and 2010 either through NIFA initiatives or through the United States Department of Agriculture (USDA). The initial database contained over 2000 research projects, but was synthesized for duplicates resulting in 716 unique entries. Researchers used the Excel random number generator to select 408 participants from a pool of 716.

The researchers used two questionnaires as data collection tools. The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) developed by Bass and Avolio (1995) was used to determine principle investigators leadership behaviors characterizing transformational and transactional leadership styles. Lencioni’s Team Assessment (2002) was used to determine the potential for the five dysfunctions of a team to surface. Researchers adapted each instrument to be used via online distribution using Qualtrics software.

The MLQ was a 45-statement questionnaire measuring leadership based on leadership behaviors and styles Bass and Avolio (1995). Using a Likert scale, 1 (Not at all) to 5 (Frequently) respondents self-reported leadership style based on a number of behaviors, or factor statements. For the purposes of this study the questionnaire was administered on the web, versus the traditional paper-based form. The reliability of leadership behaviors, or factors, ranged from .74 to .91 and leadership styles, or outcomes, ranging from .91 to .94 (Bass and Avolio, 1995).

Transformational leadership was measured using 20 statements associated with the behaviors of idealized influence (behavior and attributed), intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration and inspirational motivation. Transactional leadership was measured using 12 statements, using the behaviors of contingent reward and management-by-exception (active and passive). Individual behavior statement scores are utilized to create an aggregate score for each leadership style. This is accomplished by averaging the total behavior score by the number of items. For transformational leadership style, this included the average of the summed scores for each transformational behavior (5 behaviors). Transactional leadership style was aggregated by the average of the summed scores for each transactional behavior (3 behaviors).

Lencioni’s team assessment was a 15 item 3 point, Likert-type assessment in which researchers adjusted to be a 5 point, Likert-type assessment (1-Strongly Disagree to 5-Strongly Agree). The five dysfunctions measured by the assessment include: absence of trust, fear of conflict, lack of commitment, avoidance of accountability, and inattention to results. Each dysfunction was measured using three statements. For each dysfunction a higher score is considered to be less likely to result in negative teamwork functionality. Low scores indicate a greater risk.

For the first through third objectives, simple mean scores and standard deviations were calculated to describe the nature of leadership style and teamwork functionality by principle investigators. The fourth 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).

Findings
The make-up of the respondents was varied and is important to illustrate to understand the nature of the findings. Of the 408 randomly sampled, a total of 99 responded with the number of useable responses being 82. In order to address the smaller response rate for the online administration, non-response was controlled for using a comparison of early and late respondents (Lindner, Murphy and Briers, 2001). Because of the lower response rate the researchers opted to only use descriptive statistics as a means for analysing the data.

Of those who did respond, there were 40 male and 28 female, the majority reported they were Caucasian/White (n=66) with only 2 reporting minority status. The largest age group was between 41 and 48 (n=20) followed by 49-57 (n=17) and 33-40 (n=15). Of those who responded, the majority reported a bench or hard science discipline (n=44) while the remainder indicated a social science discipline (n=24). The greatest reported rank was at the Assistant level (n=27) followed by Full (n=22) and Associate (n=14).

**Objective 1**

Objective 1 was accomplished by reporting the following mean scores and standard deviations for the group of respondents. The total score for the transformational style of leadership was $M=3.89$, $SD=.61$ and the total for transactional style was $M=2.81$, $SD=.58$. Of the transformational behaviors the highest self-reported was individualized consideration $M=4.20$, $SD=.54$ followed by inspirational motivation $M=4.10$, $SD=.68$, intellectual stimulation $M=3.99$, $SD=.65$, idealized influence (behavior) $M=3.88$, $SD=.68$, and idealized influence (attribute) $M=3.71$, $SD=.81$. For the transactional behaviors the highest reported was contingent reward $M=3.76$, $SD=.74$ followed by management-by-exception (active) $M=2.59$, $SD=.89$, and management-by-exception (passive) $M=2.18$, $SD=.69$. Table 1 represents these findings.

**Table 1**

| Summary of Leadership Behavior and Style Scores |
|-----|-----|-----|
| Factor | $n$ | $M$ | $SD$ |
| IC | 67 | 4.20 | .54 |
| IM | 67 | 4.10 | .68 |
| IS | 67 | 3.99 | .65 |
| II B | 67 | 3.88 | .68 |
| CR | 67 | 3.76 | .74 |
| II A | 67 | 3.71 | .81 |
| MBE A | 67 | 2.59 | .89 |
| MBE P | 67 | 2.18 | .69 |
| Transformational | 72 | 3.89 | .61 |
| Transactional | 72 | 2.81 | .58 |

**Objective 2**

The intent of objective 2 was to provide the respondents’ perceptions of teamwork based on Lencioni’s (2002) teamwork assessment. The behavior or dysfunction with the highest likelihood of resulting in negative team functionality was absence of trust ($M=10.06$, $SD=2.08$) followed by
inattention to results ($M=10.11, SD=1.55$), avoidance of accountability ($M=10.31, SD=2.08$), lack of commitment ($M=11.86, SD=1.82$) and fear of conflict ($M=12.14, SD=1.47$).

**Objective 3**
The goal of objective 3 was to provide a point of comparison for mean scores representing key demographic characteristics of the respondents. These demographics included gender, age, rank and discipline.

**Leadership Style**
In examining leadership style specifically, women scored themselves higher in transformational style ($M=4.15, SD=.40$) than their male counterparts ($M=3.85, SD=.56$) and also in transactional style ($M=3.00, SD=.55$) with men self-scoring ($M=2.73, SD=.54$). With respect to leadership style by age the youngest group (25-32) scored themselves highest in transformational behaviors ($M=4.23, SD=.78$), followed by those 49-57 ($M=4.06, SD=.47$), the lowest reported were those age 33-40 with $M=3.76, SD=.63$. For transactional behaviors the highest scored were those in the age range of 66-73 with $M=3.08, SD=0.00$ followed by 33-40 ($M=2.99, SD=.74$) with the lowest reported by those in the age range of 25-32 ($M=2.56, SD=.46$). These figures are represented in Table 2.

Table 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>Transformational</th>
<th>Transactional</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>3.85 (.56)</td>
<td>2.73 (.54)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>4.15 (.40)</td>
<td>3.00 (.55)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25-32</td>
<td>03</td>
<td>4.23 (.78)</td>
<td>2.56 (.46)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33-40</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>3.76 (.63)</td>
<td>2.99 (.74)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41-48</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>4.03 (.44)</td>
<td>2.90 (.51)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>49-57</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>4.06 (.47)</td>
<td>2.69 (.42)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>58-65</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>3.94 (.51)</td>
<td>2.82 (.63)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>66-73</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.85 (.00)</td>
<td>3.08 (.00)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The next demographics were more closely associated with their position versus attributes and were rank and discipline. For rank, those responding full professor self-reported scores in transformational style highest ($M=4.00, SD=.41$) followed by associate professors ($M=3.98, SD=.41$) and assistant professors ($M=3.98, SD=.66$). Within transactional behaviors the highest self-reported scores were by assistant professors ($M=2.92, SD=.67$) then full professors ($M=2.86, SD=.46$) and associate professors ($M=2.77, SD=.44$). Discipline differences were inversed with social scientist reporting higher scores in the transformational style ($M=4.14, SD=.56$) and lowest in transactional ($M=2.68, SD=.58$) compared to their bench science counterparts who reported scored ($M=3.89, SD=.47$) and ($M=2.93, SD=.53$) respectively. Table 3 represents these figures.

Table 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Summary of Leadership Style by Rank and Discipline</th>
<th>Transformational</th>
<th>Transactional</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male full professor</td>
<td>4.00 (.41)</td>
<td>2.86 (.46)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male associate professor</td>
<td>3.98 (.41)</td>
<td>2.77 (.44)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male assistant professor</td>
<td>3.98 (.66)</td>
<td>2.92 (.67)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female full professor</td>
<td>3.98 (.41)</td>
<td>2.86 (.46)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female associate professor</td>
<td>3.98 (.41)</td>
<td>2.77 (.44)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female assistant professor</td>
<td>3.98 (.66)</td>
<td>2.92 (.67)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social scientist</td>
<td>4.14 (.56)</td>
<td>2.68 (.58)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bench science</td>
<td>3.89 (.47)</td>
<td>2.93 (.53)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Summary of Teamwork Perceptions by Gender and Age

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>Trust</th>
<th>Conflict</th>
<th>Commitment</th>
<th>Avoidance</th>
<th>Results</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>9.85</td>
<td>1.92</td>
<td>12.00</td>
<td>1.59</td>
<td>11.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>10.36</td>
<td>2.31</td>
<td>12.25</td>
<td>1.43</td>
<td>12.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25-32</td>
<td>03</td>
<td>12.00</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>12.67</td>
<td>1.54</td>
<td>12.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33-40</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>9.60</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>12.20</td>
<td>1.26</td>
<td>11.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41-48</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>9.95</td>
<td>2.35</td>
<td>11.75</td>
<td>1.74</td>
<td>11.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>49-57</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>10.71</td>
<td>1.90</td>
<td>12.29</td>
<td>1.86</td>
<td>12.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>58-65</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>9.27</td>
<td>2.15</td>
<td>12.18</td>
<td>1.08</td>
<td>11.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>66-73</td>
<td>01</td>
<td>10.00</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>12.00</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>13.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

With respect to rank and discipline teamwork functionality was expressed differently. For rank assistant professors were most likely to attribute a negative team environment to inattention to results (M=10.04, SD=1.68) and least likely to attribute it to fear of conflict (M=12.11, SD=1.37) similarly associate professors scored fear of conflict least likely (M=12.21, SD=1.76), but scored absence of trust most likely (M=9.50, SD=2.93). Full professors were most likely to attribute a negative environment to absence of trust (M=10.05, SD=1.73) and scored fear of conflict least likely (M=12.05, SD=1.73). By discipline, the scores were consistent for both social and bench scientist with absence of trust being the most likely to cause a negative team environment and fear of conflict least likely. These scores are represented below in Table 5.
Table 5

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Summary of Teamwork Perceptions by Rank and Discipline</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Factor</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assistant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Associate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Full Social Science</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bench Science</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Objective 4**

The fourth objective was to understand the nature of the relationship existing between self-perceived leadership styles of principle investigators’ and team functionality. To accomplish this, a simple Pearson Product Moment Correlation was computed. The key finding for this objective was that both transformational and transactional leadership were positively correlated to inattention to results. The correlation coefficient for transformational leadership style and inattention to results was $r = .313, p < .05$ and for transactional it was $r = .265, p < .05$. These coefficients indicate and moderate and low positive correlation respectively.

**Conclusions and Recommendations**

Each objective yielded interesting findings with respect to understanding the complexities of leadership style and teamwork functionality. Objective 1 indicated that overall principle investigators’ perceived themselves to be more transformational in leadership behavior, yet individually, scored contingent reward behaviors (transactional) higher than idealized influence (attribute/transformational). This is consistent with Bruce and Ricketts (2008) who purported that PI’s should strive for productivity and harmony. Further Guion (2010) indicated the nature of team member contribution as key, which is reflected in the top scoring leadership behavior individualized consideration.

Objective two highlighted the complex nature of teamwork and showed that absence of trust is a huge factor that PI’s perceive within their teams. Bruce and Ricketts (2008) indicated that there must be a change from hostility and separation in team environments to one of harmony and civility. This conclusion may be an indicator of the depth of this problem. Overall; however, the concept of lack of commitment and fear of conflict scored lowest. This idea is consistent with the notion that interdisciplinary researchers are coming together to solve complex problems and working together is a must (Cropper & Merkowitz, 1998 and Fiore, 2008).

Within objective three we begin to see the breakdown of perceptions by PI’s through a demographic lens. This indicates that women are more transformational than men, which is consistent with Northouse (2013). Women have opted for more democratic and participative leadership styles, which is represented with transformational leadership. Across age, there is a wider range of scores,
but it appears that the younger PIs of the group also self-perceived more transformational behaviors. This is fairly consistent with literature indicating that organizational tenure (affiliated with age) tends to be more transactional, also represented in this study (Stedman & Rudd, 2005).

One area that had not been explored was the association between rank and leadership style and teamwork. Here we see that full professors ranked themselves higher in transformational leadership compared to their counterparts, although not by much, but that assistants reported more transactional leadership These findings were mixed and somewhat contrasted to the age finding, as one would purport that the older researchers are full professors and younger assistants. Further, both social and bench scientists reported more transformational behaviors, although social scientist scored themselves higher in transformational behaviors and bench transactional. There is no additional literature to identify connections with respect of these characteristics.

Teamwork also ranged and had little established research to compare. However, women and men do rank order the potential for dysfunction to lead to issues of team functionality differently. Men move towards concepts of trust and accountability, while women tend towards inattention to results. Pretty consistent for the demographic of age was the nature of team functionality and that most agreed that the most likely factor was in fact, absence of trust. Again for rank and discipline absence of trust was a huge factor in team functionality, although inattention to results was also important. What did not appear to be an issue was fear of conflict for any group.

The last element of this study examined the nature of the relationship between leadership style and team functionality. It was shown that transformational leadership exhibited a moderate positive correlation with inattention to results. While it was not consistently scored the highest among all the groups analysed, inattention to results recurred enough that PI’s clearly see it as a growing problem and perceived that the more transformational behaviors used the less likely it would be a contributing problem to team functionality.

The following recommendations have been outlined for this study with respect to research and practice. It is advised; however, that these only be utilized within the context of this study.

**Research**

- Complete the study utilizing the 360° assessments outlined for both the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire and Lencioni’s Teamwork Inventory.
- Further explore the differences in perceptions based on gender and age. It is recognized that these groups are different, but inferential statistics could further identify the nature of the differences between these groups.
- Qualitatively explore the nature of this phenomenon through small focus groups, allowing for more intimate discussion of the nature of team functionality and leadership.
- Identify the nature of differences existing between rank and discipline. What is the potential for significant differences among these groups?
- Explore other demographics like: proximity, appointment split, administrative experience, leadership development exposure, and teamwork/team leadership exposure.
Practice

- Provide more hands on leadership development to PIs. There is little documented on-going support for this group. Most current efforts are directed toward administrative functions.
- PIs should yield to more transformational behaviors, as they tend to show more gains in eliminating concerns of dysfunction among the team.
- PIs should be aware of the demographic make-up of their team and the impact this could have on how the team functions overall.
- Team member of large multi-discipline teams should appreciate the breadth and depth of expertise brought by a diversity of backgrounds.
- There should be an intense focus on issues related to absence of trust among teams.

This purpose of this study was to begin exploring the nature of teamwork and leadership behavior and style by principle investigators. In doing so, the conversation related to these topics and this area can yield greater gains in pursuing an understanding of how to make large interdisciplinary teams function better. In the coming years, the nature of the problems researchers are asked to solve are only going to grow in complexity requiring a greater range of input and support from a diversity of researchers. It is an important and valid concern that we recognize best how to create teams that are led by strong PI’s who understand the nature of team functionality.

References


EMERGING RESEARCH IN FULL
A Fantasy Theme Analysis of Leadership in the Harry Potter Books

Lisa Jenice Scheeler, Ph.D.
Georgetown University

Abstract
This poster session will present my emerging doctoral research on a fantasy theme analysis of the messages surrounding leadership as presented in the Harry Potter series by J. K. Rowling. Utilizing fantasy theme analysis, originally formulated by E. G. Bormann, this poster will explore the vision and community of the Harry Potter books by exploring the rhetorical arts and artifacts. Further, I will explore the three themes of setting, action, and character to establish the messages and motives regarding leadership that are presented in the book series.

Introduction
In looking for a theoretical construct to explore the leadership messages in the Harry Potter series I have begun to explore fantasy theme analysis. This rhetorical critique method, rooted in organizational communication, allows for the exploration of message and motive through an examination of the discourse and symbols presented. According to Bormann, a single text is insufficient to conduct a fantasy theme critique (Jackson, 1999), thus utilizing the entire series of J. K. Rowling books, I will be analyzing the messages regarding leadership for the rhetorical vision presented. Further, to see if that vision is being communicated to the audience of readers, proof of the message being received will be investigated. This, in addition to an analysis of the themes of setting, action, and character will be presented to establish the messages and motives around leadership as they are presented in the book series.

Background
In 1972, Ernest G. Bormann introduced the idea of fantasy theme analysis. Based on his research on small group communication, and utilizing the concept of “group fantasizing,” as established by Robert Bales, the theory stated that the rhetoric of fantasies around past events, or future dreams could chain through a group, and spur communication, motivation, and action. Since this original article, fantasy theme analysis has been applied to organizational communication, leadership communication, political communication, and more. For the purposes of this study, fantasy theme analysis is being applied to explore the rhetoric around how leadership is presented in the Harry Potter books and how that message has been received by the readership.

Method
For the purposes of this study I will be utilizing the five steps in conducting fantasy-theme criticism as presented by Foss (1989). The steps are 1) identify the evidence of the rhetorical vision within a rhetorical community. 2) Code the act and artifacts to isolate recurrent fantasy themes. 3) Search out the patterns in the fantasy themes, both major and minor, constructing the rhetorical vision. 4) Explore
the motives of the regarding which themes are best received. And, 5) assess and evaluate in terms of other leadership education messengers.

References


All The World’s A Stage: Theatrical Mentorship Programs in Primary, Secondary, and Post-Secondary Education

Laura Puchalski
Eastern Michigan University

Abstract

This study of theatrical mentorship examines the integration of the current model of cross-age mentoring with theatrical training in a school setting. Formatted as a three tier mentorship program, this study includes mentoring between graduate, high school, and middle school students over a fourteen week period. The study would culminate in a public performance, overseen by high school students and performed by middle school students. Benefits of this study include exposure of performing arts to students at primary and secondary levels, practice of leadership skills, and introduction to career opportunities in theatre arts. Students will have the ability to learn leadership skills while exploring their creative potential, all within their school setting. This positive exchange of mentorship and theatre arts creates leadership among students in primary, secondary, and post-secondary institutions promoting leadership resiliency across all levels.

Introduction

Integrating theatre arts into cross-age peer mentoring is another aspect that should be considered in research of new mentorship programs. The blend of theatre arts and mentoring provides a way to improve the current model of cross-age peer mentoring through a developmental arts-based approach. The practice of dramatic play and training in theatre arts has many positive implications for both mentors and mentees that would serve as an effective new mentorship program model.

Background

Mentoring is viewed as the tool that could fill the gap in the lives of young at-risk children and research confirms this, stating that mentoring relationships are the most significant relationships that children develop with non-parental figures (Limor & Mayseless, 2009). Although mentoring is an effective tool, there are major concerns that need to be addressed to make sure mentorship programs can remain effective for the future. Major concerns within cross-age peer mentoring programs involve limitations/inconsistencies of research methods, discontinuation/break in programs causing decline in benefits, and limited information of the effect on mentors (Karcher, 2005). These major concerns lead not only to the decline in the effectiveness of mentorship programs, but to the decline in the education of young people as leaders. Addressing these concerns will promote mentorship programs and building resiliency in the lives of young people. How can mentorship programs be transformed to address current problems and remain effective in the lives of young people in the future? This study uses a
phenomenological lens to conduct a qualitative study to understand the effects of theatrical mentorship on the development of leadership skills, artistry, and career opportunities in the lives of young people.

**Method**

An interpretative qualitative research sample study will be constructed of the new mentorship model integrating theatre using a phenomenological approach. The study is based on the theories of the importance and positive effects of dramatic play by Baldwin and Koste. Sample population will be taken from Oakland University, Clarkston High school, and Clarkston Junior High School in Michigan. It will take place at both Clarkston High school and Clarkston Junior High school during the Fall semester of 2013. The study will consist of five MFA graduate Theatre students, one in each area of concentration in acting, directing, set/props, costume, and stage management, ten high school junior/seniors, and twenty 7th/8th graders and one University level professor who acts as overseer. This sample study will be a fourteen week after school program, one day a week after school for two hours where grad/high school students will meet for the first hour and high school/middle school students will meet for the second hour. There will be one full day of leadership training/mentor mentee matching a week before the program start. Monthly events, such as Saturday outings with all mentors/mentees and parents will also take place once a month. The program will culminate in a performance by the middle school mentees, overseen by their high school mentors. Surveys will be passed out before and after the study to all graduate students, high school students, and middle school students to measure outcomes in areas of connectedness of mentees to self, others, and society, the quality of mentor/mentee relationship and academic improvement. Other data measurements and analysis will include mentor/mentee growth in artistic development, leadership skills, and positive outlook for future career.

**Results to Date**

Although no current model for theatrical mentorship exists, research on exposure of children to dramatic play and theatre arts findings include increased improvement in cognitive skills and social skills (Baldwin, 2004). This study of a new theatrical mentorship program anticipates results such as positive changes in connectedness with parents, teachers, and school environment. Other anticipated results from this study include significant improvement in connectedness of mentees to self, others, and society, the quality of mentor/mentee relationship, and academic improvement. Positive connectedness of students to their self, peers, teachers, parents and society is of utmost importance in an age of school shootings and violence. Students will not only have a more positive view of themselves, but of their school environment; creating resiliency within educational settings.

**Discussions**

The implications of exposure to dramatic play and theatre arts are wide and varying, providing many positive developmental effects for children. Studies of scholars and scientists have verified that play is not a luxury, but a necessity for humankind (Koste, 1978). Research shows that play prepares children’s brains by developing emotional intelligence, discovering the self, developing physically, developing social behavior, rehearsing survival, rehearsing for future challenging situations, practicing flexible thinking, practicing speaking and listening skills, and learning to learn (Baldwin, 2004). Drama is especially useful in stimulating brain activity and linking many different parts of the brain through body,
mind, sight, sound, language, and movement. Mirror neurons are also at work in the brain during drama as they support the relationship between action, perception, cognition, and emotion. Research and literature give an overwhelming case for exposing children to dramatic play and performing arts, showing the many positive developmental assets within young people’s everyday life and school environment. This current research supports the creation of a theatrical mentorship program in primary, secondary, and post-secondary education with positive outcomes in artistry, leadership, and career development with a focus on building resiliency in educational institutions now and for the diverse future.

References


Emerging Research on the Outcomes of Alumni Association Involvement in the Development and Engagement of Students at a Public Land-Grant University

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The Association of Former Students

Jennifer R. Williams, Ph.D.
Texas A&M University

Landry L. Lockett, Ph.D.
Texas A&M University

Kelli Hutka
The Association of Former Students

Abstract
This emerging research idea describes a new model of student alumni organization, one based on leadership development. The model incorporates leadership education, mentorship, and experiential activities, a combination not previously discussed in the literature. Planned short- and long-term research on the model is expected to have important implications for leadership educators, universities, the alumni profession, and students as this new model may have mutual benefits for all parties.

Introduction
The [Alumni Association] of [University] has recently chartered a student organization to develop lifelong leadership skills in emerging student leaders. This organization will offer formal leadership curriculum led by an advisor and guest speakers, mentorship by alumni association staff, networking with [University] leaders and alumni, and service-learning and experiential education opportunities. The goals of the program are to develop stronger connections between current and former students, propel the student’s leadership career as a student and beyond, to develop future leaders for [Alumni Association’s] global network, and to increase general understanding of the mission of and participation with the programs and activities of [Alumni Association].

The new student organization model developed at [University] represents a departure from other student alumni organizations discussed in the literature in that it incorporates a customized formal leadership development curriculum with the service and mentorship components found elsewhere.

Rigorous research, assessment, and evaluation techniques are being implemented to better understand the phenomenon of student alumni organizations and the short- and long-term impacts of the
participants leadership development, alumni involvement (volunteer and advocacy), and alumni giving. Comparisons will be made to matched samples of students outside of the organization. The researchers seek to determine best practices applicable to other institutions of higher learning.

Background
Alumni associations are an integral part of American higher education which exist to promote the interests and welfare of the alma mater, perpetuate ties of affection and esteem among alumni, and to serve the student body ([Alumni Association], 2011; Dolbert, 2002). Student alumni organizations have proven successful in connecting students and alumni. Models include service organizations, membership organizations, or student foundations, taking the form of large, open groups or small, competitive-entry groups. Student alumni organizations can offer mentorship, transition, and community service programs (Gaier, 2001; Singer & Hughey, 2002).

Student participation in campus leadership activities, including competitive-entry student alumni organizations, has been shown to lead to a higher motivation to give back financially to their alma mater (Thomas & Smart, 2005). The degree of student engagement in college is a significant predictor of alumni volunteering and advocacy (Weerts, Caberra, & Sanford, 2009; Weerts & Ronca, 2008).

Participation in leadership development programs can increase skills and knowledge of students. Common elements of student leadership programs include opportunities for service, experiential activities, and active learning (Cress, Astin, Zimmerman-Oster, & Burkhardt, 2001). Eich (2008) found that high-quality student leadership development programs included participants engaged in building and sustaining a learning community, student-centered experiential learning experiences, and research-grounded continuous program development. Common program elements of these programs include seminars, workshops, mentors, and guest speakers.

Colleges and universities have abundant opportunity to impact student leadership skill development (Smith & Rosser, 2007). Leadership development is an important objective for higher education (Thompson, 2006).

Institutions of higher education possess intangible qualities, including the mission, philosophy, values, and belief system, which can play an important role in student development (Kuh, 1995).

Collegiate leadership development may take place in the classroom or through extracurricular activities (Brungardt, 1997). Extracurricular involvement is positively related to satisfaction with the college experience and the development of social and personal skills. However, not all students benefit equally from these experiences (Kuh, 1995). A number of independent variables can account for gains from participation, but the literature is clear that leadership is not an inherent characteristic which cannot be taught (Cress et al., 2001).

We seek to gain a better understanding of methods alumni associations can employ to foster leadership development through student alumni organizations, and the impact participation in these organizations has on lifelong leadership with the alumni association and beyond.
Method
This student leadership program was designed utilizing the conceptual framework set by Brungardt (1996). This framework establishes the integration of leadership skills, leadership education, and reflection in order for students to fully experience leadership development. Skill development will come from the instruction and training of the skills needed for members to complete their roles as volunteers. Leadership education will be a curriculum based upon the work of Steven R. Covey and the core values of [University]. The reflection and development for students will occur as they work with their mentors and advisor to become effective stewards of the program and effective leaders. Following Brungardt and Crawford’s (1996) method of using multiple quantitative and qualitative methods in designing an assessment and evaluation of leadership performance, we will implement multiple existing instruments over time to create a longitudinal study of the program.

The membership will be randomly sampled and assigned to a group tested at the commencement of the first semester of the program, again at the end of the first year of the program, and once more at the end of a student’s involvement in the program with a single instrument.

Instruments to be utilized include, but are not limited to:

- Socially Responsible Leadership Scale
- Student Leadership Practices Inventory  As of the time of this writing, [Alumni Association] has not made a firm commitment to fund the cost of the additional testing materials, but they may be incorporated. Results from the instruments across time will be compared with matched samples from:
  - [University] students in another leadership program
  - [University] students not in any leadership program
  - [Other university] students in student alumni association
  - [Other university] students not in any leadership program [Other university] has been identified based on similarities in size and mission to [University]. Furthermore, a random sample of students will be asked to answer a short questionnaire of open-ended questions at the end of each meeting of the organization (ten per year) to provide qualitative data about the program. Data will be collected from the database of [Alumni Association] and the alumni association of [Other university] after the graduation of members to determine alumni involvement and giving, and will be compared across groups.

Results to Date
Two theories inform the expected results from research: social exchange theory and expectancy theory (Emerson, 1976; Vroom, 1964). We expect that, because what is known about social exchange theory, students receiving a benefit from their alumni association will be more likely to give back to their alma mater. Because the student alumni organization will place expectations on students’ behaviors as they
become alumni, expectancy theory suggests that they will be more likely to remain involved and give back (Weerts & Ronca, 2006).
Furthermore, we believe that members of a student alumni organization will be likely to view the alumni association as a major contributor to their leadership identity (Komives, Owen, Longerbeam, Mainella, & Osteen, 2005).

Discussion
This new model has enormous potential for leadership educators, universities, alumni associations, and students because of the anticipated benefits at multiple levels.
The alumni leadership model is also attractive because of the opportunity to progress from student leader to a leader in the alumni association after graduation. With many other student leadership programs, students must disconnect once they walk the stage.
The model also allows gaps or needs to be fulfilled. Alumni associations and universities require donor dollars, volunteers, and advocates to continue to function, while students need to develop personal skills and professional networks to become successful after graduation.

If this model proves successful, leadership educators may find a new ally in alumni professionals to fund and implement leadership development programs.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Student Benefit</th>
<th>Alumni Benefit</th>
<th>University Benefit</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Leadership development</td>
<td>Real-world experience Networking &amp; mentorship</td>
<td>Alumni see impact of giving in students’ lives Connection with students at their alma mater</td>
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References


Enhancing Students’ Cultural Awareness: Implementing Global Leadership Experiences

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Abstract
Study abroad programs allow institutions of higher education to foster and develop cultural and global awareness among their student populations. The purpose of this study was to assess the increase in nine (n = 9) students’ knowledge of culture in [country]. This was a qualitative study that employed a semi-structured interview guide to answer the research objectives. Interviews lasted between 45 and 60 minutes. The majority of students reported becoming the most aware of religion, social relations, food and clothes as elements of culture. Experiential learning opportunities allow students to witness where curricula meet current practices. University administrators and faculty should strive to provide global leadership experiences to enhance current students’ leadership skills in order for future organizations to reap the benefits of a more culturally aware employee corps.

Introduction
Students’ participation in study abroad programs can lead to an increase in cross-cultural tolerance and empathy (Black & Duhon, 2006). Both long and short-term study abroad experiences offer students the opportunity to alter their perceptions about the world (Lewis & Niesenbaum, 2005). Colleges and universities need to enhance the cultural and global awareness of their students in order to better allow them to compete in a global workplace (Relyea, Cocchiara, & Studdard, 2008).

Background
The conceptual framework of the study was constructed from Delaney’s (2011) eight elements when investigating culture, including space and time; language and social relations; body, food, and clothes; life structures; and public myths, religion, and rituals. Time and space refers to how a culture is influenced by its idea of time value and space orientation. Language and social relations indicate how a culture is affected by its symbolism of language and social relationships. Body, food, and clothes describe how a culture is shaped by their views of eating and body self-image. Life structures address the everyday life of a culture. Public myths, religion, and rituals investigate the cultural icons of a particular culture (Delaney, 2011).
Methodology
The study was conducted through the use of an elemental qualitative research design (Dooley, 2007). Nine (n = 9) participants from [university] participated in a study abroad program in [country]. Eight semi-structured questions were used to conduct participant interviews. The interviews last between 45 to 60 minutes each. Audio recording was used to collect and accurately transcribe data from the interviews to connect emerging themes. Participants’ responses were elicited in regards to their study abroad experiences and understanding of culture. The interviews were numerically ordered one through nine (Respondent1 [R1] – Respondent9 [R9]).

Trustworthiness is the accuracy of study findings in depicting participants and their attitudes and clearly detailed data collection processes may be used to establish data trustworthiness (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Researchers used member checks by emailing respondents their interview data and obtaining written confirmation on the accuracy of the interview data. Using the constant comparative method allows researchers to use respondent data to develop themes (Glaser, 2002). The researchers implemented selective coding to obtain common themes and similar results.

Results to Date
The majority of students reported becoming the most aware of religion, social relations, food and clothes of the eight elements of culture. All nine (n = 9) respondents indicated their level of awareness regarding [country’s] food was enhanced. R3 said “I was taken aback by how much black beans is a major part of locals’ diet. I did not expect cheeseburgers to be plentiful but I was surprised how important black beans were to meals whether breakfast, lunch or dinner.” R6 stated “They have the best juices I have had. They are not processed because they are all natural from what fruit or vegetable is in season. Those were my favorite part of mealtime.”

Social relations was reported by eight (n = 8) respondents as one of the most learned elements of culture. R7 explained “People in [country] hung out more with their family than my family does. Family is more important to their culture than ours.” R1 said “[country’s] family is at a core of their daily life. Most people in the community lived and worked there just to stay close to family.”

Eight (n = 8) of the nine respondents reported becoming more culturally aware of the local religion. R4 added “I was very surprised how involved the majority of the people where with Catholicism”. They seemed to take their religion more serious than we do ours.” R8 included “Religion brought everyone together regardless of family, community events, or holidays. It seems Americans are brought together by sporting events and other things but religion is not as much the initial aspect as [country].”

Seven (n = 7) respondents indicated that clothes was a learning experience. R9 said “We worked with community and business leaders during our two weeks and I saw no one with name brand clothes. I thought how cool it was that they did not have the pressure or expectations to show off name brand clothes. We could learn a lesson from them.” R2 added “Owning name brand fashions did not seem important to [country]. Or if it was important, they did not flaunt it like some in our society do.”
Discussions
Faculty can provide opportunities for students to gain global leadership experiences. A study abroad experience is one approach but individual research or organizational collaborations may be another. Experiential learning opportunities allow students to witness where curricula meet current practices. University administrators and faculty should strive to provide global leadership experiences to enhance current students’ leadership skills in order for future organizations to reap the benefits of a more culturally aware employee corps.

References
Fostering Resiliency through a Leadership Development Program in A Florida Gulf Coast Community

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University of Florida

Angie B Lindsey, Ph.D.
University of Florida

Background
Following the Deepwater Horizon oil spill in 2010, coastal communities that rely on the Gulf of Mexico for their livelihood began to feel the negative environmental and economic impacts (Walsh, 2010). The United States Government estimated the total volume of oil spilled into the Gulf was in excess of 4.9 million barrels (Polson, 2011). Impacts were varied throughout the coastal communities bordering the Gulf of Mexico; some areas experienced oil washing ashore and the loss of coastal wildlife more than others (Walsh, 2010). American shrimp producers caught an estimated 42.1 million fewer pounds of shrimp in 2010 (NMFS, 2011). The resulting higher prices paid by consumers and fears of food quality as a result of the spill impacting marine life caused a significant decrease in demand nationally (NMFS 2011).

Apalachicola Bay is located on the Gulf of Mexico coastline in Franklin County, Florida. The area did not suffer the significant economic impacts many communities experienced as a result of the Horizon Deepwater spill. During the majority of the oil spill clean-up process, the Franklin County seafood harvesting and commercial fishing areas remained open to fishermen and tourists (Oil Spill, 2011). However, following the oil spill, the Apalachicola Bay oyster fisheries started to experience a significant decline in oyster production and tourism; which lead to the creation of a task force to address the problem (Nordie, 2012).

Need for Program
The coastal impacts from the oil spill and the decline of the seafood industry served to provide a warning to the residents and business owners of Franklin County and Apalachicola Bay. As a result, a group of stakeholders’ created the group ‘Seafood Management Assistance Resource & Recovery Team’, (SMARRT). This 15-member group would enable the local seafood community to speak with one voice in communications with management agencies and research teams; and is made up of oystermen, shrimpers, crabbers, guides, dealers and other industry personnel (Nordie, 2012). SMARRT’s goal is “a collaborative effort to build local capacity/consensus to develop a sustainable and resilient resource management plan to insure the future of Franklin County’s seafood heritage” (Report, 2012). Support
resource organizations volunteering to assist in the development of the organization include representatives from many national, state, and local governmental entities.

**Proposed Research**

With the diverse nature of the SMARRT organization, members have identified that the group would benefit from some targeted leadership development opportunities in the form of a leadership program for SMARRT members. While these opportunities would directly benefit the members, the skills they learn and knowledge they gain would have additional benefits to the various constituency groups within this rural, coastal community.

The proposed research will begin with a needs assessment to determine the level and abilities of board members’ leadership skills. This would also help to identify leadership goals of this group, so the programming can be tailored to accomplish these goals. Northouse (2013) defines leadership as a process in which “an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal” (p. 5). Leadership, in order to be effective, involves exerting influence in relationships. Similarly, opinion leaders influence those within their sphere of influence. The board members are opinion leaders in their respective fields; and as such, the development of skills and characteristics of opinion leaders will be a focused area of concentration for this program and for this research. Recognition and self-identification as an opinion leader is important for this leadership team so that they can understand how their status as opinion leaders can assist in the achievement of their stated organizational goals. Specifically, when making decisions, opinion leaders influence important determinants of an individual’s behavior, thereby influencing opinion formation (Bearden, Netemeyer, & Teel, 1989).

Following completion and analysis of the needs assessment, a series of four, one-day leadership programs will be developed by the research team. Topics for each full day program will be derived from the responses of the needs assessment. In addition to the needs assessment and program development, a pre-test and post-test evaluation will also be constructed to identify where participants are in regards to the topics identified at the beginning and at the end of the program.

**Leadership Programming**

The researchers anticipate that potential leadership programming topics for the development of a resilient leadership team include: skills in teambuilding, consensus building, and interpersonal communication skills. According to Kouzes and Posner (2006), “The self-confidence required to lead comes from learning about ourselves; our skills, values, talents, and shortcomings. Self-confidence develops as we build on strengths and overcome weaknesses” (p.6). Developing a leadership program that allows board members to self-identify their specific strengths and weaknesses is a first step. Once the individuals have learned about themselves, teambuilding exercises that allow the members to build upon their weaknesses by leveraging the strengths of others should, in a non-threatening environment, will facilitate growth and development as a cohesive team.

In addition, the theme of opinion leadership will also be included as these are the individuals that will be returning to their respective groups (fishermen, guides, businessmen, etc.) and will be sharing what they
have learned. Exercising their opinion leadership roles, through an awareness of their personal risk aversion tendencies, these leaders can provide a significant boost to the Apalachicola Bay industries.

**Impacts of Research**
Through the inclusion of industry representatives from multiple fields in the fisheries markets in Apalachicola Bay, the development of cohesive leadership and communication strategies is furthered. By focusing on the resiliency of both the community and the related industries, the leadership program seeks to provide the skills and experience needed to enhance the capabilities of the board members. This application of leadership theories and practical experience, measured through pre and posttests, will demonstrate the effectiveness of the program’s curriculum. Based on the needs of the group (as determined in the initial needs assessment), the specific leadership principles and theories will be analyzed and published for further investigations.

**Conclusion**
Working with the SMARRT committee, the effectiveness of the leadership program can be assessed while also building capacity and fostering resiliency among the leaders. By including the board members in the development of the leadership program during content development, it is believed that the program will be more effective and specific to the relative needs of the group.

Through the leadership program, the board members of SMARRT should be equipped with the experience and tools to effectively influence their community and industries. The influence and leadership of SMARRT’s members will provide the opportunity to develop stronger social networks capable of managing future threats to the Apalachicola Bay fishing industry and associated response activities necessary should the Gulf experience a environmental and economic catastrophe again.
References


From cultural awareness to cultural understanding: Influences from an international service and learning experience

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Abstract
This emerging qualitative research idea focuses on an international, short term experience for undergraduate students in [program]. Cognitive maps, journal entries, and reflection statements will be analyzed to connect various activities encountered on the international experience with cultural awareness or cultural understanding in an effort to build a grounded theory.

Introduction
Over the past 20 years, the internationalization of curriculum within agriculture and leadership development disciplines, as well as the overall higher education student experience, has continued to develop in both popularity and research efforts (Altbach & Knight, 2007; Moore, Williams, Boyd, & Elbert, 2011). Coers, Rodriguez, Roberts, Emerson, & Barrick (2012) noted:

The current generation of collegiate students has been raised in a culture that embraces globalization and connectedness; yet, true understanding of other cultures and practices is limited among students. International educational experiences, including both short-term and long-term travel, immerse students into a culture and offer the opportunity for application of skills and development of personal understanding of global citizenship. (p.60)

The Institute of International Education (IIE) reports in their 2012 “Fast Facts” that participation in study abroad experiences has more than tripled over the past two decades. Among the nearly 275,000 U.S. students that studied abroad in 2010-2011 for academic credit, 58.1% were engaged in a short term experience (summer or eight weeks or less) (IIE, 2012). Specifically at the University of Florida, over 170 students from the College of Agricultural and Life Sciences studied abroad in 2012 for academic credit (S. Hill, personal communication, February 25, 2013). The continued investment of time and student services to the experience of study abroad, as well as growth in student engagement in study abroad programs, is a clear indication of its potential benefits for students.

Rhodes, Biscarra, Loberg, and Roller (2012) cite several benefits of study abroad, including: positive impacts on student views of world affairs, maturity, and self-awareness (Gonyea, 2008); improved classroom engagement and cultural knowledge (Redden, 2010); and positive college engagement and student transformation (Anderson, Lawton, Rexeisen, & Hubbard, 2006). Study abroad experiences offer a great opportunity for students, as Wingenbach, et al. (2003) notes the importance for students to increase their awareness and understanding of global events and become intentional about applying new insights. However, it is important for students to be fully engaged in the process as a whole—entering the experience prepared, creating meaningful experiences while in country, and processing the
experience upon reentry to their home country—to gain the full benefits of the study abroad experience (Connors, 2004; Coers, et al., 2012). In order to do so, time and reflection are imperative to glean the most value from an international experience and create meaningful connections regarding cultural awareness and understanding (Irani, et al., 2006; Coers, et al., 2012). While the benefits of study abroad, as well as the need for cultural awareness, are well documented, additional research is needed to facilitate an understanding of students’ experiences abroad and how various activities impact cultural awareness and its translation to lasting cultural understanding.

Background

Within agricultural education, the American Association for Agricultural Education’s National Research Agenda (2011) highlights the changing needs of a global economy and its contingent impact on educating a workforce to be aptly prepared for improving agricultural systems and sustaining growth. Priority three emphasizes specifically the need to develop and retain professionals that are culturally aware, in addition to their content and technical competence (Doerfert, 2011). Additionally, Zhai & Scheer (2004) noted:

Colleges of agriculture have the responsibility to prepare students adequately for the global and diverse environment in which the will participate throughout their careers. Assessing the maturation of agriculture students’ global perspectives and attitudes toward cultural diversity is an important step for future educational program development.

(p.40-41)

Thus, the need for cultural awareness is established, and responsibility is placed upon institutions of higher education to create programs that facilitate this development. This research will focus on the beginning of a line of inquiry to connect a student’s short-term international experience to cultural awareness or understanding. This study will directly inform the planning process of the [program] and aims to enhance the quality of experience the students encounter that may result in transferable cultural understanding. Although directly impacting a single program, the aim of this research is to create a model for short-term study abroad experiences that indicates the activities most beneficial for the development of cultural awareness, or cultural understanding.

Method

This qualitative study will focus on undergraduate students in the [program]. To minimize the subjectivity of the context of this research, triangulation will be utilized through the following methods:

1. Cognitive mapping: Prior to the international experience, students will create a cognitive map about their expected experience in the country selected for their international service and learning experience. Upon return from the trip, the students will create a second cognitive map regarding their international service and learning experience. The cognitive maps will be analyzed for common factors from expectations to experiences of impact.

2. Journal entries: Each student is required to keep a daily journal while on the international service and learning experience. A general guided question for each day
will prompt students to write about the day’s activities and what was experienced. The journal entries will be analyzed for common activity themes and what impact each activity had on the students.

3. Post-trip reflection: Approximately three months following the international service and learning experience, students will submit a reflection essay based on key reflective question(s). The reflections will be analyzed for common activity themes and what made a lasting impact on the student.

In addition to the methods stated above, students will be administered the Intercultural Development Inventory (IDI) to establish baseline for intercultural competence prior to the international service and learning experience. The IDI places individuals on a developmental continuum, which includes five primary orientations: denial, polarization (defense or reversal), minimization, acceptance, and adaptation (Hammer, 2011). Although additional components exist through the IDI, only the referred orientation will be utilized for each student. Each student will receive a one-on-one session to review their orientation level of intercultural development, and a group session will be facilitated to provide a common language for future discussions of intercultural development. Demographic information will also be collected at this time, including prior international travel experiences.

Results to Date

No results to date, as this is an emerging research proposal.

Discussion

The [program] international experience has continued to evolve; this research will directly impact my professional role and the continued development of programming for the [program]. On a larger scale, however, the implications from this study could be of interest to leadership educators and other disciplines in regard to developing students that meet expectations from employers desiring “global citizens” with leadership capacity. The development of a grounded theory could also aid faculty planning of international experiences by enabling the alignment of intention for a trip (awareness or understanding) with various activities to consider including in an international, short-term experience.
References


Appendix A: Poster Proposal Review Form

Indicate your evaluation by marking an X in the appropriate box (SA-strongly agree, A-agree, D-disagree, SD-strongly disagree). Please include comments providing objective remarks and/or suggestions for improvement.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Submission Evaluation</th>
<th>SA</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Comments</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. The content of the proposal will have practical or research applications that would be of interest to ALE members.</td>
<td></td>
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<td>2. The proposal adds to the body of knowledge in leadership education and provokes thought among ALE conference participants.</td>
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<td>3. The problem/idea proposed is clear and concise.</td>
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<td>4. The author links the proposal to existing literature/discussion in the field of leadership education.</td>
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<td>5. The discussion is sufficiently developed and relevant.</td>
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<td>6. The author’s findings, conclusions and/or recommendations are sufficiently justified, linked to the review of literature, and presented concisely.</td>
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<td>7. The proposal is written clearly (grammar, organization, flow)</td>
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Overall Evaluation | Reviewer Rating | Comments |
-------------------|-----------------|----------|
Accept and nominate for outstanding poster |                |          |
Accept for presentation |                |          |
Accept with minor revisions |                |          |
Not acceptable for presentation |                |          |
How Differentiated Leader-Member Relationships, Group Potency, and Cynical Team Members Affect Team Performance

Juan E. Garza, Ph.D. Candidate
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Abstract
The purpose of this emerging research is to examine the interrelationships between leader-follower dyadic relationships and group efficacy within the context of organizational change. The research wishes to examine via a qualitative methodology, the ways Leader-Member exchange influences team and group dynamics, organizational cynicism behavior and team performance. As organizations continue to seek new and innovative ways of adapting to change, what impact do these organizational changes have on the relationships of groups, leader-subordinate and individual team members? The results of this research will aid with an understanding of the dynamic LMX relationships as well as team/group dynamics and its impact on individuals organizational cynicism.

Introduction
As the changing nature of organizations force leaders to seek better approaches to innovate, expand and remain relevant in the current economic environment, it has required leaders to seek new and innovate was of managing, motivating and transforming organizations. Almost exclusively, leaders in organizations turn to organizational change processes to help solve these problems. The reasons for doing so are usually based on the premise of reducing costs, creating efficiencies, and eliminating duplicate efforts in order to optimize their organizations so they retain their competitive advantage.

The importance the understanding of a leader’s ability to effectively lead change will continue to be important for leaders all types of organization. (Bryman, 1992). In studies of leading change, scholars have often addressed issues related to organizational resistance and employee resistance to change. Rubin, Diefdorff, Bommier & Baldwin, (2009), state that most of these models view employee resistance and employee cynicism as key indicators of resistance to change and because of this, it has become important to begin to look at the overall impact of these change efforts on leader-member relationships, team dynamics and team performance. In reviewing leading organizational change, most of the studies of these organizational change efforts have been based on outcomes (i.e. productivity, cost savings, and efficiencies). Yet, many researchers see the importance of leadership in the change process and have examined the impact of organizational change on leaders (Michaelis, Stegmaier & Sonntag, 2009), leadership, (Burnes, and Jackson, 2011) and teams (Shapiro and Kirkman, 1999).

The overall goal of the paper is to begin the construction of a model that examines the impact of leader-follower relationships, team beliefs, and individual views of cynicism on team performance. Specifically,
this conceptual model suggests that the difference in relationship between the leader and followers (i.e., LMX-Differentiation) will have an impact on team members’ views of their groups’ abilities (Group Potency). The followers’ views of the strength of their team will be related to the amount of individual cynicism displayed by individual followers (cynicism of organizational change) and will have an impact on overall team performance.

Methods
Based on the author’s experience in leadership in higher education, this study takes a grounded-theory approach. The model proposed in this paper was developed by an extensive review of the literature seeking to help leaders “conceptualize the process, action and interaction” of change, follower relations, and cynicism (Creswell, 2005, p. 414). The author queried various information sources for research literature pertaining to studies on organizational cynicism, organizational change, leader-follower relationship, group social dynamics, as well as group efficacy.

Framework and Results
Leader Member Exchange
The Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) theory, which was developed as an extension of the vertical-dyad linkage model, is based on the differential types of relationships that form between leaders and individual group members. (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995) LMX theory is based on the premise that leaders differentiate among their subordinates (Linden, Erdogan, and Wayne, 2006).

There have been various authors who have studied the linkages of positive LMX relationships with individual level outcomes such as higher job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and citizenship behaviors (Epitropaki & Martin, 1999; Martin, Thomas, Charles, Epitropaki & McNamara, 2005; Townsend, Phillips & Elkins, 2000). There have been only a few studies that examine the impact of LMX exchanges on group performance and team dynamics (Hooper & Martin, 2008; Linden, Erdogan, and Wayne, 2006). Various authors (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Liden, Sparrowe & Wayne, 1997; Sias & Jablin, 1995) have suggested LMX inequalities may negatively affect relations among team members. Few empirical studies have examined the impact of LMX differentiation on group potency and team performance.

There have been a few studies that have examined LMX differentiation within teams. These include Sais and Jablin (1995), Van Breukelen, Konst & Van Der Vlist (2002) and Sherony & Green (2002). In Sais and Jablin’ s (1995) study, the authors concluded that LMX variability may lead to relational problems between coworkers, while Van Breukelen, et al. (2002) concluded teams with lower variability or LMX differentiation had a greater amount of commitment. Sherony & Green’s (2002) study found when workers had similar LMX relationships, that they had a better coworker relationship.

For the purpose of developing a conceptual model, the author uses the definition provided by Hooper & Martin (2008), in defining LMX differentiation as the amount of variability in LMX relationships perceived by team members. As noted by the above-mentioned studies, there is evidence to suggest that LMX-differentiation can have an impact on team dynamics.
Collective Efficacy & Group Potency

Collective efficacy, defined as a group’s shared belief that it can execute a task successfully, is fundamental to group motivation, performance, and effectiveness (Bandura, 1997; Gully, Joshi, Incalcatera, & Beaubien, 2002). Group potency is seen as a generalized belief about the capabilities of the team across tasks and context, or in other words, the belief that the team will be successful no matter what the task or situation (Guzzo, Yost, Campbell, & Shea, 1993).

While these two constructs are distinct as described by Stajkovic, Lee, and Nyberg (2009), the distinction is because group potency reflects a more generalized belief about a group’s capability across tasks and situations; while group efficacy is the belief a group has in its ability to can handle a certain set of tasks (Guzzo et al., 1993). In the proposed conceptual model, the instrumentation will examine how group potency is a moderator variable between LMX-differentiation and team performance while it tests if potency is a mediator variable for individual cynicism of organizational change.

Since previous studies have examined the relationship between team performance and team cohesion and is relationship to the trust and belief in leaders, the author believes there will be a strong relationship between LMX-differentiation amongst group members and group potency. This is based on previous research, which has shown leaders who understand their relative strengths and weakness have better performance. Hooper and Martin’s (2008) study found that perceived LMX variability had a negative effect on intra-team relations. While a study by Linden, Erdogan, Wayne, and Sparrowe (2006) suggested task interdependence did significantly moderate the relationship between LMX-differentiation and team performance. For the basis of this model, we suggest that LMX-differentiation has an associated relationship with group potency because these teams’ work as highly interdependent groups.

Proposition 1: Teams with LMX-Differentiation will be less likely to have a high group potency score because of perceived unjust treatment by team members.

Proposition 2: Low LMX-Differentiation will have a positive relationship with group potency.

Leaders and Organizational Change and Cynicism

Organizations deal with changes in the competitive environment by creating structural changes for the betterment of the enterprise. Gioia and Chittipeddi (1991) viewed this change approach as an attempt of the organization to take advantage of strategic opportunities. The success of these changes is affected by how well employees transition to a new organizational structure (Higgs & Rowland, 2005).

Organizations continue to rely on employees’ abilities to adapt to change to remain competitive (Van Knippenber, Martin, & Tyler, 2006). According to Reichers, Wanous, and Austin (1997), individuals at different hierarchies of the organization view organizational change differently. Due to this differing view, organizational changes create a level of cynicism within employees impacted by the changes to their organizational structure and lives.
Dean, Brandes, & Dharwadkar (1998, p.345) defined organizational cynicism as “a negative attitude toward one's employing organization, comprising three dimensions: (1) a belief that the organization lacks integrity; (2) negative affect toward the organization; and (3) tendencies to disparaging and critical behavior toward the organization that are consistent with these beliefs and affect”. Yet for the purpose of this model we look at a distinct form of organizational cynicism, cynicism of organizational change (COAC), which involves a pessimistic outlook of organizational change and places blame on the perceived failings on leadership (Wanous, Reichers, & Austin, 2000).

As organizational change occurs, individuals are trying to make sense of the purpose and impact on them individually (Reichers, Wanous, & Austin, 1997). During an organizational change process, employees are affected by high levels of stress due to the perceived uncertainty of job security, potential post change job characteristics, and the maintenance of social relationships (Rune, Espedal, & Johansen, 2005).

Since few organizations develop effective processes that allow for proper communication, trust, and discussion of changes, cynicism becomes a part of employees’ organizational lives (Reichers, Wanous, & Austin, 1997). It is reasonable to assume then, that organizational change will include individuals who are cynical of the change and of leadership during this process. This follower cynicism of organizational change can be reasonably believed to strain the leadership-member dyads and team member social exchange relationships. It is proposed that individuals cynical of organizational change will have a negative impact on LMX – relationship with leader.

Proposition 3: Cynicism of followers during organizational change will have a negative impact on the LMX relationship with leader, this can in turn influence group members based LMX-differentiation.

**Group Potency & Cynicisms of Organizational Change**

In reviewing the literature on teams, Choi, Price, and Vinokur, (2003) have defined affective climate as an overall interaction pattern or a shared positive perception among members, which helps shape the interactions within a team. In this context, affective climate is viewed as a group-level construct that represents the shared perception of the group (Anderson & West, 1998). Research by De Rivera, (1992) suggests climate perceptions influence how individuals think and behave collectively by stimulating their perceptions and feelings about their team. Tse and Dasborough’s (2008), study on team members found similar results where they concluded the quality of team member relationships was associated with the emotions experienced by the individuals in the relationships. Therefore, individual member’s display of emotions influence the quality of their relationships with other team members. This is consistent with research by Salancik & Pfeffer, (1978) and their theory of social information processing (SIP). Their research found that employees processing of information from a social environment (i.e. organization, work group and teams) in part helps construct their attitudes.

This theoretical framework is logically tied to and based on Festinger’s (1954) social comparison theory that asserts individuals (i.e., employees) cognitively process and take notice of social information
because it helps them to understand complex or ambiguous situations (i.e., team dynamics, organizational values) (Wilkerson, Evans & Davis, 2009).

The author proposes teams with high collective potency will be influenced by their team member/work group’s view of leaders and the organization. Another proposition is that individual based cynicism of organizational change can be mitigated by team potency and low LMX-differentiation. It is asserted, based on social information processing, team member’s social clues will have an effect on individual’s cynical organizational view of change, while teams with high LMX-Differentiation and low potency score will not affect individual cynicism scores.

*Proposition 4: Teams with Low LMX-differentiation and high group potency will mitigate individual Cynicism of Organization.*

**Team Performance**

In examining how team performance is impacted by LMX and group potency, there have been various studies that examined the relationship between group potency and team performance. Boies and Howell’s (2009) study also found the mean LMX within teams was positively related to team potency. Yet we have not found a study that links the LMX-differentiation to team potency and its impact on team performance. The authors propose that based on the prior research, LMX-differentiation amongst a team will be related to team potency and have an impact on team performance.

*Proposition 5: Teams with Low LMX-differentiation and high group potency will have higher team performance.*

A recent study by Neves (2012) found a linkage with organizational cynicism and leadership exchange relationships. The study found cynical attitudes can spill over to the exchange relationship between employees and supervisors, and this spillover effect has implications for the employee’s performance. Neves’ (2012), study found the relationship between leader and subordinate was mediated by organizational cynicism of the organization.

The author proposes teams with better relationship with leaders will have higher group potency scores, and higher team performance scores. The strength of these LMX and Team Potency relationships will mitigate the individual based COAC and lead to higher team performance.

*Proposition 6: Teams with Low LMX-differentiation and high group potency will mitigate the impact of individual base COAC and have higher team performance.*

Figure 1 depicts a multi-level model in which collective efficacy is a mediator linking the relationship between LMX-Differentiation and team performance at the individual level, and group efficacy serves as a group-level moderator to buffer the relationship between LMX-Differentiation and cynicism of organizational change at the individual level. In this model the author suggests the influencing characters of individuals via mechanism of social influence processing and team beliefs, such as group potency, can help mitigate some of the individual cynicism towards organizational change.
Discussion

For this meta-analysis, we explored the nature of an individual’s cynicism toward organizational change and its impact on team performance, while reviewing the moderating effects of Leader-member exchange and group potency on the overall team performance. The resulting model and forthcoming study will test the propositions of this paper.

This model involves variables at different levels of analysis: individual and group. In order to empirically test the model, it is suggested individual level data be aggregated to group level data (Gibson, Randel and Earley, 2000). The variables that would require aggregation would be LMX for differentiation, group potency and team performance.

Since all variables and constructs presented in this model have established measures, it would allow a pilot test to be conducted to ensure the instruments can be tested for validity and reliability. The following instruments and measures used in the model include perceived LMX variability/differentiation (Hooper & Martin, 2008), LMX-MDM (Linden & Maslyn, 1998), cynicism of organizational change (Wanous, Reichers, & Austin, 2000), group potency (Guzzo et al., 1993) and team performance (Van Scotter, Motowidlo & Cross, 2000).

The intended purpose of this paper to present a model that examines how individual and group level perceptions of leaders, (LMX, LMX-Differentiation) and team based beliefs (group potency), can mitigate
individual team members the cynicism of organizational change (COAC) and how these three interact and impact team performance. This papers’ other purpose is to aid leaders in understanding how individuals perceptions of organizational change influences leader-follower, team-based relationships and team performance, so they can adapt their approaches to leading change efforts and better motivate employees, teams and units, therefore reducing the negative aspects of organizational change.

References


Abstract

Demonstrating leadership theory and practice through pop culture is a practice that is becoming increasingly popular in leadership education. This presentation focuses on the real-life leadership of Steve Jobs, former CEO of Apple, Inc. Jobs’ leadership, innovation, and focus drove Apple to be the successful and lucrative business that it is today. Often people look at the success of a business and assume the leadership within the organization is equally successful, although this may have been the case with Jobs’ leadership, it is not holding true for his replacement. It is apparent the leadership of Jobs was directly tied to the success and innovation of the organization. Although Apple still appears successful, this success may be short-lived, as their corporate ratings and customer satisfaction rates have declined. The “Post Jobs” era provides evidence that Jobs’ leadership was neither sustainable nor transferable.

Introduction

In leadership education, educators seek real life examples of leadership to appeal to students. Furthermore, students are entrenched in popular culture, often dubbed pop culture, through mass media and continual social interaction (Williams & McClure, 2010). Additionally, continual exposure to various forms of pop culture provides leadership instructors with the tools to assist students with the learning process. Specifically, the use of pop culture to illustrate leadership theory, models, and concepts can add to the leadership curriculum by assisting students with retention of course material through an emotional connection with the pop culture illustration, hold the attention of students during instruction, and engage students to critically assess how the pop culture pertains to course concepts (Callahan & Rosser, 2007).

Background

The majority of higher education students are connected in someway to Apple, Inc. Students either own an iPod, iPad, iPhone, or a Mac laptop. Even if students do not own an Apple product, they use Apple services such as iTunes or iUniversity. Furthermore, Steve Jobs is a household name among college
students. In fact, with the passing of Steve Jobs in 2011, students gathered at Apple stores across the country leaving flowers, cards, and other mementos (Potter, Curry, & James, 2011). Because of students’ familiarity with Apple and Steve Jobs, illustrations can be made to a variety of leadership topics to engage students in leadership education.

An introductory service course at [University] focuses on basic leadership concepts and service-learning. The course is comprised of primarily sophomore and junior students and is taught year round (fall, spring, and summer semesters). Additionally, the course attracts a variety of majors from different disciplines and colleges. Therefore, it is critical to use illustrations that will engage a diverse group of students.

In order to provide students with a pop culture example on leadership sustainability, an analysis of Steve Jobs was conducted to determine if he could serve as viable illustration of sustainable leadership.

Method
A basic search was conducted through Google Scholar to identify articles pertaining to Steve Jobs and his leadership at Apple, Inc. The article search was limited to articles within the past ten years and only full text articles were analyzed. By analyzing the articles, it was determined a consistent theme emerged regarding Steve Jobs’ leadership transferability. Therefore, the objective of this study was to determine if the “apple” had a bite taken out of it since the exit of Steve Jobs? In other words, was the leadership of Steve Jobs transferable?

Results to Date
Steve Jobs is a great example of successful leadership that was neither sustainable nor transferable after his death in 2011. Jobs was given the award of the Most Powerful Person in Business by Fortune Magazine in 2007. When compared to current CEO Tim Cook, many organizational experts claim Cook cannot match Jobs in leadership, innovation, or performance. According to some, Jobs “was a very special person, there will never be another like him” (Tsukayama, 2012). Specifically, it is interesting to note that while Cook may have filled the position of CEO at Apple, he has two other top executives working alongside him to fulfill the roles Jobs performed solo.

The detriment to Apple resulting from the loss of Jobs is no surprise as history has simply repeated itself. Jobs was fired from Apple, the company he co-founded in 1983. While Jobs was left to pursue other endeavors, such as acquiring a small animation company called Pixar, Apple began to struggle and within a decade was near bankruptcy. Desperate for a resurgence, the Apple board of directors persuaded Jobs to return to the company in 1997. Jobs began immediate damage control and helped Apple recover from a $708 million loss. “Against all odds, Steve Jobs pulled the company he founded and loved back from the brink” (Entrepreneur, 2012).

Apple, Inc. is once again without Jobs and the company is once again at risk of losing its competitive edge. After Jobs’ untimely death in 2001, Apple as a company, Tim Cook was appointed as CEO. When taking the helm, Cook pledged that Apple would continue to be founded on the values and innovative
spirit cultivated by Jobs (Tsukayama, 2012). Cook committed to continuing Jobs’ legacy by being the forerunner in innovative technology. However this has not been the case. Although Apple stock has increased by 79% since Cook was named CEO, this success is short-term (Swartz, 2012). Critics are concerned that the values and innovation Jobs brought to Apple has now been compromised. “Apple plummeted to 26th from 5th on Forbes magazine’s list of the world's most innovative companies this year over concerns that Apple cannot maintain its edge without Jobs” (Swartz, 2012). Aside from innovation, Jobs also brought a sense of team building to the Apple, as he was able to bring different personalities together to create a well-rounded team (Wei, 2012). On the other hand, Cook is struggling with his top administrators. In October 2012, due to conflict within the company, Apple lost Senior Vice President of Retail Josh Browett and ousted Senior Vice President of iOS Software Scott Forstall (Cheng & Lowensohn, 2012). The inability of Apple to retain employment of top management positions confirms that Jobs’ did not have transferable or sustainable leadership. Also, with recent failure of new product initiatives (Cheng & Lowensohn, 2012) and the lack of perfection and innovation brought to the table by Jobs, Apple is proving its lack of resiliency as a company. This too supports that Jobs’ leadership was non-transferable.

Discussion
While this study analyzed the sustainability and transferability of Steve Jobs’ leadership, there are other leadership topics that could be illustrating by examining Steve Jobs leadership with Apple, Inc. Relevant leadership topics could include Kouzes and Posner’s Five Practices of Exemplary Leadership, leaders and vision, transactional vs. transformational leadership, and Blake and Mouton’s Managerial (Leadership) Grid.

Furthermore, assignments and activities could be created using Steve Jobs as an illustration. Activities could include a “reel leadership” assignment where students are asked to view the movie jOBS, a new release about Jobs’ career path from college dropout to Apple, Inc. CEO; critique of Jobs’ leadership vision as portrayed the TED video from Job’s Stanford commencement speech; or reviewing articles that support Jobs implementing the Five Practices of Exemplary Leadership as defined by Kouzes and Posner.

Additional exploration of popular leaders should be conducted. using different examples of popular leaders from different segments of society including politicians, entertainers, non-profit executives, and athletes. By casting a wider net of examples, instructors have the potential to connect with and engage more students in the learning process.

References


Incorporating Online Learning Tools into Adult Leadership Programs

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Abstract

Agricultural leadership programs continue to build leaders through developing skills and increasing awareness of issues. Program curriculum has traditionally followed a format of lectures, field visits, and other forms of face-to-face learning. Though successful, traditional formats may not meet the needs of future populations of diverse learners. Agricultural leadership programs can meet the needs of these learners through a blend of online and face-to-face practical application within a two-year program. This paper outlines emerging research within an agricultural leadership program in a southern state to incorporate online learning tools into their curriculum.

Introduction

Agricultural leadership programs (ALP) were first established in 1965 in response to a growing need for leadership to bridge the gap between the industry and its consumer (Miller, 1976). Today, programs encourage participants to gain understanding in political, social and economic issues; and develop leadership skills to be effective spokespersons respective organizations, communities, and industries. Program outcomes have been assessed through evaluations on state and national levels (Strickland, 2011) and include increased skill development (Howell, et al., 1979), increased networking (Carter & Rudd, 2000), and greater knowledge of current issues (Abington-Cooper, 2004).

The curriculum within ALPs encourages participants to “become effective and responsible agricultural leaders that are capable of addressing industry issues and becoming active participants in public affairs” (Kaufman & Carter, 2005, p. 68). Currently, formats for learning include lectures, field visits, panels, and meetings (Hustedde & Woodward, 1996). Programs improve “participants’ leadership skills through experiential/ action learning processes that includes instruction, practice, feedback, and reflection” (Van de Valk, 2010, p. 142). Though, there is no one program theory that guides agricultural leadership programs, Strickland (2011) identified that agricultural leadership programs can facilitate the learning process within Roberts (2006) model of the experiential learning process.
Though programs following traditional formats that have proved successful, the successful educational systems of the past are no longer adequate to meet the needs of present and future students (Murphy, 2013). Facilitators using traditional teaching methods are struggling to be effective at educating the skills needed by an increasingly diverse population of learners (Abbott, 2012; Murphy, 2013; Shinamoto, 2012). How can ALPs sufficiently educate future students with skills to meet the demands of the 21st century workforce? A possible solution is adapting to blended teaching and learning techniques, combining online class preparation with face-to-face practical application.

Background

Zaleznik (1993) concluded that the best way to learn about leadership is through experience. The approach of experiential learning suggests that learners construct meaning from their experiences (Roberts, 2006). In the synthesis of theories and models by Dewey, Joplin and Kolb; Roberts (2006) proposed the Model of the Experiential Learning Process. Followed by focusing on the leader, experiential learning follows the process through initial experience, reflection and generalization. Once concepts are generalized, learners then move throughout the cycle to test and retest those generalizations in another learning opportunity. This process continues and builds upon prior experience and knowledge (Beard & Wilson, 2006). According to Roberts (2006), experiential learning can align itself with constructivism which contents that learners construct meaning from their experiences.

Figure 1-1. Roberts’ Proposed Model of Experiential Learning (2006)

According to Merriam, Caffarella and Baumgartner (2007), “much of adult learning is constructivist in nature” (p. 293) and meaning is made both at the individual and social levels. Personal constructivism allows learning to involve personal cognition to interact with the environment (Driver, Asoko, Lead, Morimer, & Scott, 1994). Through social constructivism, the individual learner constructs meaning based on socially defined nature of the knowledge they have obtained (Doolittle & Camp, 1999). This knowledge acquired is constantly evolving through reconstruction and transformation.

With the advancement of technology and the internet, it is more economically sustainable to provide an online approach to education as a form of information delivery (Abbott, 2012; Murphy, 2013). The use
of online content can strengthen ALPs by decreasing the barriers to lifelong learning and making face-to-face class opportunities more efficient (Murphy, 2013). Online educational content includes teacher-created videos, interactive lessons, simulation games, and asynchronous presentations via various programs (Abbott, 2012; Shinamoto, 2012; Tucker, 2012; Brame, 2013).

This emerging research is intended to provide agricultural leadership program facilitators with a description of the incorporation of online learning tools into their programs. Traditionally, curriculum has followed traditional formats with very little use of online tools. The use online tools will be piloted in an agricultural leadership program in a southern state. Research objectives are:

1. To determine participants’ perceptions on technology
2. To assess participants’ current usage of technology
3. To describe the effectiveness of technology in facilitating leadership learning

**Description of the Research**

An ALP in a southern state recently had a visioning session and determined changes in their curriculum. They sought out to move to using digital teaching methods in addition to seminars. Class participants will receive online materials before each seminar with ample time to review and reflect at the individual level. Seminars would be shortened and entail more discussion among participants about the material presented prior to the seminar. Participants will be accountable for listing or watching and reflecting on the material given to them in digital format between seminars. This allows more opportunity for seminars to focus on participants reflecting in a group setting and generalizing material as part of the experiential learning process using critical thinking skills with the instructor acting as a facilitator of the session.

The research will be conducted with a 30 member class of the ALP described throughout their two-year program experience, utilizing both qualitative and quantitative research methods. The study will provide recommendations for future usage of technology in adult leadership programs and provide data for an adult learner group that could be compared to data from college students.

**Foreseeable Implications**

The use of interactive teaching methods allows for information delivery and retrieval to be preparatory to the critical thinking and application components of the course (Abbott, 2012, Brame, 2013). In comparison with traditional lecture-based classes, students can show improved retention and better conceptual understanding of learned material in active learning environments (Shinamoto, 2012). This new paradigm also forces educators to be meticulous when creating effective online content (Tucker, 2012). Yet, these new methods are not quite simple to implement due to the range of technical skills, conceptual knowledge, and teaching and learning expertise required executing the varying aspects of the methods (Shinamoto, 2012; Tucker, 2012). Other issues with using an online pedagogical technique include accessibility to proper equipment, internet access, time commitment by stakeholders (Shinamoto, 2012), and costs associated with this innovation adoption.
**Recommended Next Steps**

Implementing online, interactive teaching methods effectively require a set of technical skills, conceptual knowledge, and teaching expertise (Shinamoto, 2012; Tucker, 2012). This incorporates the ability to create or find the online content needed and modifications to current curriculum. Programs need to sell the idea to future participants, current stakeholders including sponsors, and those interested in nominating and sponsoring participants and current and potential curriculum presenters. Through meeting the needs of today’s student, in formal and non-formal settings, innovated programs and curriculum will decrease the barriers to lifelong learning, increase the value of face-to-face interaction (Murphy, 2013), and ensure learning through both individual and collective constructivism. By focusing on the learner in developing online curriculum, agricultural leadership programs can ensure continued success and value in the program by meeting the needs of its customer.
References


Leadership and Risk-Taking

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Abstract

According to trait theories of leadership (Daft, 2011; Northouse, 2009), a leader possess certain characteristics (e.g., optimism, high self-confidence) that allows them to behave differently than most individuals. When making choices that involve risk, the Von Neumann-Morgenstern utility theorem (1947) would suggest that individuals weigh the costs and benefits of their potential gambles and are risk-averse if the probability of winning is against their favor. Studies of framing effects (the tendency for individuals to avoid risk when a choice is framed as a “gain” and to engage in risk when a choice is framed as a loss; Tversky & Kahneman, 1981), argue otherwise. The current study intends to use a spinner game (DeMartino et al., 2006; Reyna et al., 2011) to measure risk-taking behavior to seek to find whether individuals in leadership positions are more risk-seeking in situations that involve benefits to their organization than non-leaders.

Introduction

Individuals from all over the United States travel to Las Vegas to try their hand in numerous games of chance with the intention of walking away as winners. People invest the money that they have worked hard to earn at their jobs on simple games because they believe that the outcomes may be in their favor. The amount of risks that a gambler takes depends on how much money they are expecting to win and how much they can afford to lose.

The word “risk taking” is defined in laboratory tasks as choosing an unpredictable option over a sure option of equal expected value (Reyna, Estrada, DeMarinis, Stanisz, & Mills, 2011). Dual-process theories of decision making have shown that humans have two systems to make choices: the analytic/executive system and the emotionally charged system (De Neys, 2006; Evans, 2008; Kahneman, 2003; Kahneman & Frederick, 2007). Individuals using the analytic/executive system take more time, exert more control, think rationally, and use a cost-benefit analysis. For example, if a game of chance yields a 1/10th chance of winning and a 9/10th chance of losing, the individual will rationally decide that there is a higher probability that the game will reduce in a loss rather than a win, and will therefore be risk-averse and avoid taking the risk. Daniel Bernoulli, a Swiss mathematician and physicist, explained risk-aversion
through the expected utility hypothesis (Bernoulli, 1738/1954). This hypothesis states that the subjective value, or utility, attached to a gain changes depending on the situation; specifically, the tendency to avoid risks decreases as the amount of wealth increases. A $20 bill will be perceived as very valuable for an individual that makes a profit of $100 a week, because it is 1/5th of their total income, compared to an individual that makes $1,000 a week. The emotionally charged system of decision making argues in contrast to Bernoulli and states that individuals using this system make decisions quicker, effortlessly, and with less control. When individuals are emotionally charged, such as when they are angry, they make quick decisions that are driven by the emotion that is later regretted. For example, if a jealous boyfriend sees his girlfriend at a restaurant with another man, then the boyfriend might send her a lengthy text message that details how unfaithful the girl is, rather than waiting to speak to her after the dinner to ask if she and the man are relatives.

Although certain situations might yield a low probability of an outcome, emotion has the ability to overpower these probabilities and still act against their favor. Dread risks, for example, are outcomes that are low in probability but are highly damaging if they occur (Gigerenzer, 2006). An example of a dread risk is the terrorist attack on the World Trade Centers that occurred on September 11, 2001. Although the probability that another event as damaging as that would occur in the next few years in very low, a majority of the United States population reduced airline travel after this event and traveled to their destinations by motorized vehicles (Gigerenzer, 2006). Decisions such as these suggest that people exaggerate the risks of certain outcomes due to one extreme event and overlook the risks of events that are unreported for other events. Other forms of decision making involve underlying, subconscious emotions that the individual is unaware of at use.

Studies on framing effects (Kahneman & Frederick, 2007; Kahneman & Tversky, 1985; Kahneman, 2004; Tversky & Kahneman, 1981) have shown that choices presented in terms of gains and losses can result in increased risk-taking behavior. When a question is framed as a gain, such as when an individual has a chance to win five dollars, then participants are more risk-aversive compared to when a choice is framed as a loss, such as when individuals will lose five dollars if they do not participate. In the famous Asian disease problem (Tversky & Kahneman, 1981), participants are informed a hypothetical scenario of the United States preparing for an outbreak of an unusual Asian disease that is expected to kill 600 people. Participants then have the choice of adapting one of two programs that can be used to combat the disease, but each program has a different outcome. If Program A is adopted, then 200 people will be saved for sure, and if Program B is adopted, then there is a 1/3 probability that 600 people will be saved and a 2/3 probability that no one will be saved. This study has shown that when given these two options, participants are risk-averse and choose Program A majority of the time. The same participants are then given another set of two options to choose from: Program C, which if adopted will cause 400 people to die, or Program D, which if adopted will have a 1/3 probability that nobody will die and a 2/3 probability that 600 people will die. When the choices are framed in this manner, majority of the participants become risk-seeking and choose option D. Although programs A and C and B and D have the same outcome, people have been found to take risks more often when choices are framed as losses compared to gains. Prospect theory (Kahneman & Tversky, 1971) is used to explain the framing effect by showing that losses feel worse than gains. This theory suggests that the numerical utility gained from an
individual finding $100 is not the same amount as it is for an individual losing $100; losses feel worse than gains. The specific type of emotional state that an individual is under can also effect whether or not they take risks.

In defining emotions, “affect” refers to the positive (pleasant) and negative (unpleasant) feelings that occur in reaction to a specific stimuli or event, whereas “mood” describes a more general “free floating” state that does not necessarily need to be linked to a specific event (Grable & Roszkowski, 2008). Slovic, Finucane, Peters, and MacGregor (2002) use the term “affect heuristic” to explain how the judgment of risk is driven by affect towards a behavior and how affect has the power to override risky assessments. Positive affect towards an object (such as the positive feeling of landing a difficult skateboard trick) is associated with a lower perception of risk (i.e., the trick might cause injury) and a higher perception of benefit (i.e., the individual will land the skateboard trick safely; Cheung & Mikels, 2011). Cheung and Mikels (2011) presented participants with a framing task by dividing the participants into three groups: the emotion-focused condition, where participants were instructed to let their emotions guide their choices, the emotion-regulation condition, where participants were instructed to not let their emotions influences their choices, and a control condition. The researchers found that the emotion-regulation condition were less likely to choose the gamble option for both the gain and loss frames in comparison to the control condition, suggesting that reliance on emotion may increase one’s overall likelihood of choosing a risky option. Cassotti et al. (2012) conducted a study very similar to Cheung and Mikels (2011), but rather than letting participants be guided by their emotions, participants were induced into a pleasant (positive) or unpleasant (negative) emotional state by viewing valenced images. Cassotti et al. (2012) found that although the control and unpleasant valenced conditions showed standard framing effects, risk-aversion in the gain frame and risk-seeking in the loss frame, the pleasant condition revealed that the framing effect disappeared as participants did not show any significant difference in risk-taking behavior between the gain and loss frames. Although negative emotions found standard framing effects, when Lerner, Gonzalez, Small, and Fischhoff (2003) tested for specific negative emotions, the researchers found that fearful individuals were more risk-averse and angry individuals were more risk-seeking.

Aside from the influence of framing effects, it has been shown that prior outcomes can have an effect on future risk taking. The “house money effect” (Thaler & Johnson, 1990), for example, has shown that individuals who win in a game of chance involving money are likely to increase their gamble in the next game. A winner in a game of blackjack who has just won $100 is more likely to place a larger bet during their next turn because they are playing with the “house money” that they have won rather than their “own money”. The “break even effect” (Coval & Shumway, 2005; McGlothlin, 1956) is when an individual loses some amount of money in a game involving risk, they are more likely to take greater risks in order to try and gain the money back to “break even”. The “Mood Maintenance Hypothesis” (Isen, Nygren, & Ashby, 1988) combines emotions with prior outcomes to show that participants in a good mood are more likely to be risk-averse in gambling scenarios because they want to maintain the positive mood that they have. For example, an individual that has won $100 in blackjack is less likely to place a large gamble on their next turn because the gamble might result in a loss and the individual will lose the positive emotion that they gained from the prior win. Demaree et al. (2011) had participants
play in one of three slot machines that had the chance of winning set to 13%, 50%, and 87%; participants were not aware of the win outcome of each slot machine. The researchers found that participants abided by the Mood-Maintenance Hypothesis by taking less risks for the slot machines that had a low chance of winning high rewards (i.e., a 13% chance of winning $100) and abided by the “House money effect” by taking greater rewards for the slot machines that had a high chance of winning low rewards (i.e., an 87% chance of winning $5). The novel effect found in this study was that participants took less risks after experiencing an unexpected event, even if the event was positive. If participants won a large reward (i.e., $100) when playing in a slot machine that offered a 13% chance of winning or failed to win a small award (i.e., $5) in a slot machine that offered a 87% chance of winning, then risk-taking decreased. This “risk dishabituation” effect is explained by the tendency to decrease risk when confronted with a novel, “surprising” stimulus. Essentially, unexpected outcomes are suggested to be followed by risk-aversion, because if the individual cannot expect the future outcome, then he or she should not take a risk.

Other variables have also shown to influence risk taking behavior. For instance, it has been shown that men tend to be more risk-taking than women (Cardenas, Dreber, Von Essen, & Ranehill, 2011; Charness & Gneezy, 2012; Croson & Gneezy, 2009; Miller & Ubeda, 2012). Xu, Schwarz, and Zwick (2012) experimented with the metaphor “washing away your bad luck” by having participants wash their hands after experiencing a series of good luck or bad luck events. Participants that had experienced a winning streak were more risk-averse after washing their hands, suggesting that they might have “washed away” their good luck, while participants that had experienced a losing streak became more risk-seeking after washing their hands, suggesting that they might have “washed away” their bad luck. Time pressure has also been studied to find that participants perceive risk as more attractive if there is less time to make a decision (Young, Goodie, Hall, & Wu, 2012). A limited time frame for making choices that were framed in terms of gain increased risk-seeking behavior but making choices that were framed in terms of loss increased risk-averse behavior. Chandler and Pronin (2012) discovered that increased thought speed can also influence risk-taking behavior. Participants that read a text out loud at a fast rate (40 milliseconds per letter) took more risks in a risk-taking game compared to participants that read a text in a slow rate (170 milliseconds per letter). Positional status of a “leader” has also been found to impact risk-taking behavior (Ertac & Guardal, 2012).

Leadership theories have argued that there are two main approaches to studying leadership, the trait approach and the skills approach (Northhouse, 2003). The trait approach is derived from “great man” theories that state that a specific set of unique individuals have innate characteristics that make them natural born leaders (Bass, 1990). The trait approach is different because although it states that individuals occupying a leadership role are different from individuals occupying a follower role on the basis of certain traits (i.e., intelligence, alertness, insight, responsibility, initiative, persistence, self-confidence, and sociability), it also states that leaders may function better when in one situation rather than another (Stogdill, 1948). For example, a fast-food manager may function well when transferred to another restaurant, but may function poorly when transferred to a corporate office. In a study that examined more than 1,400 findings regarding personality and leadership, Mann (1959) suggested that leaders could be identified from non-leaders on the basis of six personality traits: intelligence,
masculinity, adjustment, dominance, extraversion, and conservatism. Other studies of leadership traits have found the following important characteristics that distinguish leaders from non-leaders: alertness, insight, responsibility, initiative, and sociability (Stogdill, 1948), masculinity and dominance (Lord, DeVader, & Alliger, 1986), and drive, motivation, confidence, and task knowledge (Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1991). Personality studies on leadership have also found that extraversion is one of the strongest factors associated with leadership, followed by conscientiousness, openness, and low neuroticism (Judge, Bono, Ilies, & Gerhardt, 2002). Some weakness of the trait approach to leadership is that leadership characteristics are moderated by the situation, so that individuals who possess the traits to be effective leaders in one environment may not be effective leaders in another environment (Stogdill, 1948). Another weakness is that authors might be biased in selecting the traits that are most important to leaders. Drive and persistency might be important traits to one individual while self-control regulation and patience may be essential to another individual (Northouse, 2003).

In contrast to the traits approach, the skills approach states that leaders have a specific set of skills and abilities that can be acquired and perfected over time as individuals hold leadership positions. Traits represent the innate characteristics and personalities of leaders while skills represent what leaders are able to accomplish. Katz (1955) argues that three basic skills are required for effective leadership: technical, human, and conceptual. Technical skills is knowledge about how to conduct a specific type of job (e.g., how to use a data analysis software), human skills is the ability to work with people (e.g., creating an environment where followers are encouraged to work well with others and dedicate their time to a project), and conceptual skills is the ability to work with ideas and concepts to solve problems (e.g., creating a goal and strategy of what the organization hopes to accomplish in the next five years). Mumford et al. (2000) developed a unique model based on the skills approach called the “skills model of leadership”. In this model, the researchers argue that four individual attributes (i.e., general cognitive ability, crystallized cognitive ability, motivation, and personality) determine competencies of problem-solving skills, social judgment skills, and knowledge, which then define the outcomes of effective problem solving and performance. The researchers also state that leaders gain experiences and knowledge in the course of their career that effects their skills in solving problems and making certain decisions. Furthermore, the researchers mention that factors that lie outside of the leader’s control might also have an effect on leadership performance.

If the skills approach argues that leadership abilities can be learned through experience and education rather than occupying a certain “leadership-type” personality, then it can be assumed that individuals can learn how to be effective leaders when they are placed in different situations. Hiemer and Abele (2012) found that risk-taking behavior by people in high-power positions (i.e., leaders) was influenced by the situation as well as power motivation, in contrast to people in low-power conditions (i.e. subordinates) who were influenced by only the situation. Another study (Chakravarty et al., 2005) found that individuals take less risks when they find themselves in a situation where they must decide for an anonymous stranger compared to deciding for themselves. Ertac and Guardal (2012) had participants make risky decisions that affected the payoffs of all members of a group. Leaders were identified as participants who volunteered to take the “leader” role in a group activity. The results found that leaders took significantly more risks than non-leaders, males volunteered to be leaders significantly more than
females, males took more risks than females, and male leaders took more risks than male non-leaders. Ertac and Guardal (2012) is a good study to measure the effects of risk taking on people in leadership positions, yet the method of choosing leaders was a weak point for external validity. The fact that individuals agreed to take the role of a leader has no indication on whether the individual does or does not have the characteristics of a leader. It is also not mentioned whether the researchers asked participants whether they were currently holding leadership positions in their university or community. Also, although Ertac and Guardal (2012) showed that leaders take more risks than non-leaders, it is not stated whether Ertac and Guardal (2012) showed that leaders take more risks than non-leaders, it is not stated whether framing effects would change risk-taking behaviors.

The current study intends to use a similar methodology to Ertac and Guardal (2012) to measure risk-taking differences among leaders and non-leaders. The sample of this study will use individuals who are in leadership positions (i.e. presidents and vice presidents) or non-leadership positions (i.e., active members) of their student organizations. This study will use the skills approach to leadership to find that individuals placed in certain situations can develop the needed characteristics of an effective leader, which specifically includes the ability to make decisions that will benefit the entire organization. When statements about earning money for their organization are presented to leaders in terms of certainty and risks, then it is hypothesized that leaders will be more risk-taking than non-leaders. The major difference between this study and past studies about leadership and risk taking (Chakravarty et al., 2005; Ertac & Guardal, 2012; Hiemer and Abele, 2012) is that the current study will include a framing task.

Recent studies (Cassotti et al., 2012; Cheung & Mikels, 2011; DeMartino et al., 2006; Reyna et al., 2011) have presented framing effects to participants in the form of a spinner game. The gain frame spinner present participants with two options, a sure option informs participants that they can win a certain amount of hypothetical money, and a gamble option informs participant that they can take a gamble and try to earn more money if the spinner lands on red or lose all of the money if the spinner lands on blue. The loss frame spinner is presented by the participant first being endowed with a certain amount of hypothetical money, and then being offered to choose one of the following spinners: the sure option will result in the participant in losing a certain amount of money for sure, while in the gamble option the participant can either take a risk of keeping all of the money that they were endowed with or losing all of the money.

Northouse (2009) explains that there are five bases of power: referent, expert, legitimate, reward, and coercive. Positions of student organizational leadership occupies the role of either legitimate power (the presidents of organizations are associated with status and of formal job authority) and/or referent power (students are elected to become president based on followers’ identification and liking for the student). It is expected that students in these positions will want to benefit their organization and will take more risks when presented with a loss scenario in order to gain money back that is lost. For example, if the student is first given $100 and then $50 is immediately taken away, and the student has the choice of walking away with $50 or taking a risk to try and earn the $100 back, the leader will want to take the risk because the money does not benefit themselves but rather benefits the organization that they are leading through referent and/or legitimate power. The perception that it is the President’s
responsibility as a leader to benefit the entire organization will influence risk-taking behavior and is intended to lead participants to take more risks when the situation is presented in terms of a loss.

The fuzzy-trace theory (Reyna & Brainerd, 1995) approach states that people rely on gist- and verbatim-based processing when making risky decisions, so that as more detail and thought is put into a decision, the more likely a person will take the risk. For instance, in a game of Russian roulette where individuals place a bullet into a six-chamber handgun and take turns shooting themselves, the risk of death is high. If offered a chance to play Russian roulette for $1,000, most people will deny the offer because gist-based processing tells the individual that there is a chance the person could die and the $1,000 is not worth it. As the price of the offer increases to $1,000,000 or even $1,000,000,000, then people begin to use a verbatim-based process and think about specific detail (i.e., the amount of materials that they can purchase with the large sum of money) rather than a broad outcome (i.e., playing the game results in a 1/6th chance of death) and are more likely to take the risk. Reyna et al. (2011) tested the fuzzy-trace theory in a spinner game with framing effects and found that individuals make decisions based on two systems: standard framing effects and reversed framing effects. Standard framing effects occur when individuals are risk-averse for gain frames and are risk-seeking for loss frames and reverse-framing effects occur when individuals are risk-seeking for gain frames and risk-averse for loss frames.

For the current study, leaders and non-leaders will be presented with framing tasks from a spinner game to make decisions regarding hypothetical money that will benefit their student organizations. It is hypothesized that leaders will rely more on a verbatim-based process of decision making and show reverse-framing effects by “taking more risks”, and non-leaders will rely more on a gist-based process of decisions making and show standard-framing effects by “avoiding risks”.

Method and Design

Participants
Participants will be 100 undergraduate students from Texas A&M University who are at least 18 years of age and are currently enrolled at the university. The demographics of the participants should be a similar representation of the university student body. All students must currently be active members of a university organization on campus and must be willing to volunteer to take part in this study.

Participants will be identified through their organization’s website and will be contacted through the university’s email system. The researcher will first email the president of the student organization to ask if they would be willing to dedicate thirty minutes of their time to take part in a study that measures risk-taking among college students. Incentives to volunteer for this study will be the chance to enter a raffle drawing to win a $20 Visa or Mastercard gift card. If the president states that they cannot take part in the study, then the vice-president of the organization will be contacted with the same email. After either the president or vice president has accepted to take part in the study, they will be asked if they can forward the email to the members of their organization in order for the study to include non-leaders as well.
Materials
Participants will be presented with the framing task through MediaLab Presentation Software (Jarvis, 2002). This software will be installed on a computer in a laboratory where the studies will be conducted.

“Leadership” for the current study will be operationally defined as whether participants are a president or vice president of their student organization, and “non-leadership” will be defined as participants holding only a membership position in their organization rather than an officer position. “Risk taking” will be operationally defined as choosing the “gamble” option rather than the “sure” option in both the gain and loss frames, and “risk-aversion” will be defined as taking the “sure” option rather than the “gamble” option in both the gain and loss frames.

Procedure
Participants will enter the laboratory and have a seat in front of a computer. After signing an informed consent form (see Appendix A) and agreeing to take part in the study, the experimenter will explain to the participants that the entire study will be conducted on a software that is installed on a computer. Participants will learn how to play the spinner game by going through two practice trials, with the experimenter verbally explaining the choices that the participant has for each trial. Participants will then be informed to imagine that they have been chosen to play this game for their student organization and to pretend that all hypothetical money is real money that can be earned or lost to benefit the funds of the organization.

For the spinner game, participants will randomly be presented with spinners framed as gains and losses. Each choice will be made between two spinners and each spinner will be labeled as the “sure” option or the “gamble” option. For the “gamble” option, the spinner will be divided as either a 1/2 probability of a win, a 1/3 probability of a win, or a 1/4 probability of a win, with different monetary amounts listed for the win or loss (see Appendix B). Participants will be reminded to imagine that all money that is won or lost is “real” and that they will use this money for their student organization. Because the participants will only choose the spinner that they would like to spin and not be able to actually spin the spinners to see the outcome of their choice, participants will be informed that each spinner option is new and independent of the option presented before. If participants were allowed to spin the spinner and be notified of their wins or losses, then a “house money effect” or a “break even effect” might occur as prior gains or losses might be used to determine future risk taking behavior.

After completing the spinner game, participants will answer a series of debriefing questions. Participants will first answer demographic questions about their age, gender, income, and ethnicity. Next, participants will be asked to list their position of all student organizations that they are a member of, the duration of time that they have occupied this position, the amount of time they dedicate in their position at each organization, and whether they consider themselves as active member of the organization. Questions will also be asked of prior leadership experience or current leadership experience outside of the university (i.e., a manager at a job, a committee member of a church, etc.). Students will be debriefed and thanked for their time for contributing to the study. The student’s first
and last name, their email address, and their current phone number will be written down on an index card to be entered into a raffle drawing to win a $20 gift card, as promised during recruitment.

**Expected Results**

To examine whether leadership positions influenced risk taking behavior in the framing task, a repeated-measures analysis of variance (ANOVA) will be conducted with leadership (leader vs. non-leader) as the between-subjects factor and frames (gain vs. loss) as the within-subjects factor. The analysis is expected to reveal a significant interaction between leadership and frame with leaders showing more risk-taking in the loss frame compared non-leaders.

**References**


Leadership Identity Development Through an Undergraduate Teaching Assistant Experience

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Abstract
Professors and course instructors are dealing with an increase of students in their classrooms and limited resources to effectively manage the number of students; the use of undergraduate teaching assistants (UGTAs) has been found effective in classroom management, UGTA development, and enrolled student populations. The purpose of this study is to visually depict the ongoing research in the [University Leadership Program] to describe the development of leadership identity of UGTAs as a result of a 15 week undergraduate teaching assistant experience. The participants will consist of current and previous UGTAs; data will be collected with interviews. The Leadership Identity Development Model will be used to guide the data analysis and inform the conclusions.

Introduction and Background
Professors and course instructors are dealing with an increase of students in their classrooms and limited resources to effectively manage the number of students. Undergraduate teaching assistants (UGTA) are a resource being used at many universities to address this concern (Fingerson & Culley, 2001; Velez, Simonsen, Cano, & Connors, 2010). In addition to serving as a critical resource, Velez, Simonsen, Cano, and Connors (2010) also found that UGTAs were able to develop skills, such as personal accountability, communication, flexibility, and teamwork, which “stimulated both cognitive and affective domains” (p. 56). The authors also found that UGTAs were perceived positively by the students enrolled in the course.

Students given the opportunity to be UGTAs are able to interact with peers in a manner that allows them to develop leadership skills on a higher level that may otherwise only be developed after college (Micari, Streitwieser, & Light, 2006; Schalk, McGinnis, Harring, Hendrickson, & Smith, 2009). Further, UGTAs enhance the learning experience of students enrolled in courses by offering insight and ideas not offered by graduate teaching assistants (MacGregor, 2000).
The [University Leadership Program] is implementing the use of UGTAs in 15-week and 5-week courses as a means of student development. The following objectives were created for participants in the UGTA experience: (a) develop valuable, career-oriented skills; (b) enhance knowledge of the field of leadership study; (c) expand viewpoints on teaching leadership; and (d) interact with diverse groups of students ([University Citation], 2012).

**Theoretical Framework**

The Leadership Identity Development Model (LID), as described by Komives, Owen, Longerbeam, Mainella, and Osteen (2005), includes five categories that influence leadership identity development and six stages in which development occurs (see Figure 1). The five categories that influence leadership identity development include: “broadening view of leadership, developing self, group influences, developmental influences, and the changing view of self with others” (Komives, Longerbeam, Owen, Mainella, & Osteen, 2006, p. 403). Students’ broadening view of leadership represents a shift in leadership understanding from an external force to a non-positional process (Komives et al., 2006). Developing self includes an increase in self-efficacy, awareness, and the ability to apply and synthesize leadership concepts; students who increase in the understanding of group influences better engage in groups (Komives et al., 2006). The development influences that influence leadership identity move from adult and peer affirmation to reflective learning (Komives et al., 2006). These changes in categories reflect a shift from dependent relationships to interdependent relationships with others through the six stages of awareness, exploration/engagement, leader identified, leadership differentiated, generativity, and integration/synthesis (Komives et al., 2006). The LID process molds students’ leadership identity through reflection, modeling, encouragement and emotional intelligence (Komives et al., 2006).
The purpose of the poster is to visually depict the ongoing research in the [University Leadership Program] to describe the development of leadership identity in undergraduate students as a result of participation in an undergraduate teaching assistant experience.

Methodology
This study is rooted in the qualitative paradigm, specifically, phenomenology. Merriam (2009) describes phenomenology as “a focus on the experience itself and how experiencing something is transformed into consciousness” (p. 24). Participants will be purposefully selected based on their current or past experience as an undergraduate teaching assistant in the [University Department]. The researchers will “depict the essence or basic structure” (Merriam, 2009, p. 25) of the participants’ development of their leadership identity with a semi-structured interview protocol (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Open-ended questions will be based on the Leadership Identity Development Model (Komives et al., 2006). The data will be analyzed and reported according to the constant comparative method (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). Weekly journals will be kept by the researchers.

Conclusion and Educational Importance
The [University Leadership Program] provides the opportunity for leadership students to serve in the role of an undergraduate teaching assistant. In order to maximize leadership students’ experiences as teaching assistants, it is critical to understand how the experience can develop their leadership identity. This study has further educational importance in determining the impact of high-impact learning experiences on leadership students. This study will also provide necessary research foundations to determine any reciprocal impact of undergraduate teaching assistants on the leadership identity development of students enrolled in the courses that use undergraduate teaching assistants.

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Leading the Farm League: An Interdisciplinary Approach to Agricultural Education

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Abstract
Agricultural education teachers influence their students in a variety of ways. They are not only a mentor and role model to their students, but they are an educator, leader, and often a coach. While there are programs in place to formally educate teachers to fulfill two of the three roles, there is little to no guidance in regard to their role as a coach. In order to best equip agricultural education teachers to meet the vast array of their students’ needs, this study looks outside of the field of agriculture to an athletic setting, assessing strengths and skills baseball coaches harbor that may be suitable for agricultural education teachers to integrate into their current leadership philosophies.

Introduction
In leadership education, there is often a discussion of the comparison between leadership and management, and discourse occurs regarding whether or not these two terms are synonymous. There is also a strong emphasis on team-building and its contribution to leadership skills and abilities. However, there is little light shed on the concept of coaching, which is also a unique leadership role worthy of dialogue. In the field of agricultural education, the teachers fill many roles in the lives of their students, and they are often both an educator and a coach to the youth they influence. In order to best prepare agricultural teachers for the many hats they need to wear, research must be done to assess the skill-set of successful coaches to see if these would positively augment teacher education in this specific field.

Background
Transformational leadership is the process whereby a person engages with others and creates a connection that raises the level of motivation and morality in both the leader and the follower. The type of leaders is attentive to the needs and motives of followers and tries to help followers reach their fullest potential (Dvir, Eden, Avolio, & Shamir, 2002; Northouse, 2009). Transformational leaders work
to influence their followers to complete more than what they believe they can achieve. According to Dvir et al. (2002), transformational leaders also generate a level of empowerment in their followers. This model of leadership can apply to students, in this instance student athlete, where individuals are challenged to become better followers in a team environment.

Many of the top teams in the United States recognize the importance of coach training and have implemented some sort of program for the indoctrination of their new coaches, which ranges from higher education that is either supported financially or with time off to attend classes, to impromptu on-the-job training, to formal continuing education classes that are taught by leaders in the coaching profession at nationally recognized clinics (Thomas, 2005). Wright and Cote (2003) found that similarly to transformational leadership, coaches are vital to the process of fostering leadership skills in students (Dvir et al., 2002; Day, Gronn, Salas, 2004). It is vital that other professionals, such as educators, are able to adapt their pedagogical techniques and assimilate in order to reach students.

Method
Bass and Avolio’s Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire, along with a questionnaire identifying their coaching and/or education experience, will be distributed to baseball coaches on the little league, high school, and college level, as well as agricultural education teachers (Bass, 2008). Once the results have been evaluated, the performance of each of their teams, whether they are athletes or students, will be assessed. Baseball teams will be assessed according to their record, while agriculture students will be assessed based upon their Career Development Event performances as well as their ranking in the Chapter of the Year competition in [state]. Researchers will then compare the coaches’ results of the MLQ with the overall success of the teams they lead.

Results to Date
Researchers will identify domains that indicate room for improvement that present themselves in the data along with demographic factors, such as coaching experience or education that contribute to success. We expect to find a positive correlation between the level of experience and education in regards to coaching with team performance.

Discussion
To enhance the resiliency of leadership in the many team-based environments agriculture students are involved in, this research would positively contribute to agricultural teacher education programs by providing a comprehensive study of the strengths and skills that culminate to form great coaches. In order to best prepare agricultural teachers for their various leadership roles, this research will pinpoint the skills and techniques that will best serve the mission of agricultural education in [state].

References


Quantifying the Impact of a Leadership Development Program

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Abstract
The Leadership Academy is a year-long program focused on the development of leadership through a variety of co-curricular and extra-curricular activities. This study attempted to examine the impact of the Leadership Academy on students’ leadership development experiences outside of the classroom. Students participating in the program were asked to identify the hours/week spent completing a variety of leadership development experiences at the beginning and mid-point of the Leadership Academy. Researchers found tremendous gains in the amount of time students spent completing these identified leadership development experiences. The largest improvement in time spent was in direct interaction with the community, a focal point of the Leadership Academy. Continued research into the role of these experiences on college students’ leadership growth is recommended.

Introduction
The development of leadership skills within college students has been and will continue to be a major focus for institutes of higher learning (Miles, 2011). Astin and Astin (2000) indicate that one of the most effective methods for the development of leadership skills within college students is to provide authentic leadership experiences both in and out of the classroom. The assessment of a year-long leadership development program’s impact on the amount of time students’ spent completing these leadership developing experiences served as the guiding objective for this research.

Background
The Leadership Academy is a year-long program focused on the leadership development of college students. The Leadership Academy focuses on the development of leadership in college students through instruction, mentors and applicable leadership experiences. Students in the Leadership Academy are required to attend weekly seminars focused on leadership development, have a faculty mentor within the university and participate in both community and on-campus organizations.

Method
Data were collected from the 2012-2013 Oregon State University, College of Agricultural Sciences Leadership Academy cohort comprised of 12 students. The pre-test was administered during the first seminar with the cohort. Mid-point data were collected during the middle of the second of three terms.
Questions asked students to report the “minutes/week” spent on 8 specific leadership development activities.

Results to Date

Table 1
Minutes/Week Spent on Leadership Development Activities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Leadership Development Activity</th>
<th>Beginning of Leadership Academy</th>
<th>Mid-Point of Leadership Academy</th>
<th>Difference in Minutes/Week Spent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Interacting Directly with Community</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>440</td>
<td>+325</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reflecting for Personal Growth</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>137</td>
<td>+90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leading Other Students</td>
<td>339</td>
<td>427</td>
<td>+88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interacting with a Personal Mentor</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>123</td>
<td>+75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mentoring Others</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>133</td>
<td>+74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading for Personal Growth</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>+18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Actively Journaling</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>+15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interacting Directly with Faculty</td>
<td>239</td>
<td>227</td>
<td>-12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N=12 Students

Discussion

Students in the Leadership Academy have dedicated more time to their leadership development through a variety of activities. The greatest area of time increase has been in students’ direct interaction with the community, which has nearly quadrupled since the beginning of the program. This tremendous
jump in students’ interaction with the community is directly tied to an objective of the Leadership Academy, that all students will take an active role in a community organization.

The one area in which the amount of time spent decreased was the interaction with faculty. Students are paired with faculty mentors as part of the Leadership Academy, therefore it would be presumed that the amount of time spent interacting with faculty would increase. The reduction in time spent may be the product of students mistaking the type of interaction with faculty the researchers were trying to obtain. During the first point of data collection students may have included being in class when they indicated the number of minutes/week spent interacting with faculty. Between the first point of data collection and the mid-point of data collection researchers changed the wording of the interaction with faculty question to specify interaction with faculty outside of class.

Moving forward two main objectives guide this research; the development and refinement of this data collection instrument and future research investigating the effectiveness of these experiences on students’ leadership development. The goal will be to have an effective tool for monitoring students’ time spent outside of the classroom on their personal leadership development as well as a concrete understanding of the relationship between these experiences and students’ leadership.

References


Using Leadership Theories to Develop Agriculture and Natural Resources
Adult Leadership Development Programs

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Abstract
Built upon the need for practical leadership skills and advanced knowledge of complex topics, REAL [state] was created for adult professionals in the agriculture and natural resources industry in (state). Twenty agricultural and natural resources professionals will be chosen to participate in a ten seminar, two year leadership program organized through [university] Extension. Content framework was constructed based on the Ethical Capacity Development Model (Johnson, 2009) and the Leadership Identity Development method of self-efficacy (Komives, Longerbeam, Mainella, Osteen, & Owen, 2009). Participants will engage in multiple feedback-intensive activities and evaluations (Mccauley & Van, eds., 2004). Results will be used to measure the progressive learning of participants to achieve an active, evolving program design. Participants will complete the program with advanced level knowledge of multiple topics within the agriculture and natural resources industry, gain practical experience with leadership theories, and be better equipped to face ethical challenges within their workplace.

Introduction
The agriculture and natural resource industries in (state) are facing unprecedented change due to new technologies, consumer preferences, environmental concerns, government regulation, and global trade. At the same time, the population base from which these industries draw their leadership is diminishing. Today’s issues demand strong, informed leaders who not only excel in their chosen professions, but are also proficient in communications, politics, and issue management. REAL [state] will be the first comprehensive 2 year leadership program offering in-depth education and training on these issues. The program goal is to build a network of informed and engaged leaders by building alliances, analyzing agricultural and leadership issues, gaining confidence in policy development, and assuming greater leadership responsibilities. This objective will be met through comprehensive training on applying leadership theory and ethical practices within the program’s core topics.
The 2013 ALE conference theme compliments the REAL [state] goal to heighten knowledge, enhance skills, and enrich the experiences of leaders to promote positive change in (state) agriculture and natural resources industries.

**Background**

REAL [state] views leadership as one’s “beliefs about his or her abilities to exercise leadership knowledge and skills in a given situation” (Denzine, 1999, p.3). Participants will apply this view by integrating theories into realistic situations focused on core seminar topics. By doing so, knowledge of leadership theory and practical application will produce a positive change within the industry.

REAL [state] adapted the Ethical Capacity Development Model (Johnson, 2009, p.56) to compliment core seminar topics and serve as the leadership development model for the program. Each seminar will feature a different leadership theory or ethical practice to provide participants with practical knowledge of how the theory operates in a given seminar’s core theme. Seminar facilitators and program mentors will provide participants with the three components of leadership development (challenge, assessment, and support). Assessment instruments are program specific and provide the participants with 360-degree feedback (Chappelow, 2004). The three components are applied to the participant’s professional identity and performance in their industry in order to enhance their ethical capacity as a leader (perspective, skills, motivation, and knowledge). The result is exhibited through the participants’ character, self-awareness, self-confidence, moral imagination, climate, follow-through, resistance, and reasoning.

*Figure 1 Ethical Capacity Development Model (Johnson, 2009)*
Through active learning experiences, seminars will provide participants with opportunities for developing leadership self-efficacy. Leadership Identity Development (LID) researchers found Bandura’s (1997) four developmental sources of self-efficacy as an effective method to deliver leadership identity development programs. LID researchers identified this as “Opportunities for Developing Leadership Self-Efficacy” (Komives, Longerbeam, Mainella, Osteen, & Owen, 2009, p. 31). This model provided REAL [state] programmers with a framework for building the curriculum content.

These models and opportunities will be used to improve leadership identity and positive leadership practices of industry professionals.

Method

The target audience is adults who earn a substantial percentage of their livelihoods from (state) agriculture and natural resources and demonstrate the willingness for leadership development. This mixed methods program will engage participants in feedback-intensive assessments, pre and post surveys, and interviews to assess outcomes (McCauley & Van, eds., 2004).

The program is being developed through collaboration between the program director and steering committee. Program admission is a competitive process based on industry recommendations, written applications, and interviews. Therefore, purposive sampling will be utilized as the selection method of participants (Leedy & Ormrod, 2013).
Multiple methods of data collection will be involved. Needs assessment interviews were conducted with key informants addressing the program categories of educational content, ethical and leadership challenges in the field, and expected outcomes. Findings provided program support, established need, and assisted in program development and design.

The program guides participants through intensive leadership training while providing exposure to industry challenges and innovations. Seminars will be held across (state) for educational tours and classes, and participants will also attend a policy trip to Washington D.C. and an international trip to study global trade. Participants will take part in both formative and summative assessments during the two year period. A pre-program interview and end of session surveys will assess participants’ knowledge, attitudes, aspirations, skills, and expectations. An annual interview will describe participants’ progression. Pre and post-program findings will measure changes. The formative information will allow for an active design, capable of adapting leadership and educational content to the real needs of participants. Self-analysis of leadership portfolios and projects will also measure leadership content knowledge and growth. Data analysis procedures will include basic descriptive statistics and content analysis.

**Results to Date**

Results from the needs assessment provided insight for program development. The informants identified that the need for REAL [state] is very urgent within the state. REAL [state] should be different from other agriculture and natural resources programs by including a healthy mix of young and older professionals; participants should have diverse occupations within agriculture and natural resources; create a collaborative and quality networking environment to form organizational bonds between the many different industries; place positive emphasis on lobbying and policies that help young producers; a broad knowledge of how each of the different industries in agriculture and natural resources are interrelated; information should be relevant to both rural and urban participants; and take tours of local businesses to get on-site training and education. Local industry leaders should play the role as facilitator for seminars. Participants should leave REAL [state] with an understanding of personal leadership, economics, business financing, an alumni network of professionals, and the self-confidence and aptitude to tackle industry misconceptions.

**Discussion**

Program developers now have a firm foundation of the needs of employers, funders, and potential participants. Further research on potential facilitators, conflicts, and critical issues must be conducted. When selecting participants, individuals with opposing viewpoints should be included. This presents a challenge, uniting unlikely industry professionals and presenting the opportunity for resolution—through collaboration and conflict resolution—to address misconceptions portrayed in media. The implications of these findings are that needs assessments are crucial in acquiring the developmental and leadership needs of professionals. In order to produce a program tailored to an industry, it is necessary to educate participants on multiple topics necessary to equip them with the leadership skills to communicate effectively with the general public about the truths in agriculture and natural resources.
References


Why are we STILL Talking about Gender?

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Abstract

“One day our descendants will think it incredible that we paid so much attention to things like the amount of melanin in our skin or the shape of our eyes or our gender instead of the unique identities of each of us as complex human beings.” — Franklin Thomas

As we move firmly into the middle of the 21st century we still find ourselves, men and women alike, hindered because of issues of gender. Even after historical women such as Amelia Earhart, Susan B. Anthony, and Eleanor Roosevelt fought for equality, we still are forced to confront issues of gender discrimination. Though since the 1980s women have made up at least 50% of the workforce, issues of workplace discrimination is still as prevalent today as it was when women were exceptions to the norm and not the norm (Bratton, Sawchuk, Forshaw, Callinan, Corbett, 2010). So prevalent is this discrimination, society has coined catch phrases “sticky floor” or “glass ceiling”. This study aims to discover the mind of the average college student and the opinions they hold on women and their abilities to lead. The outcome of this study is to understand, to some degree, whether the discussions of gender differences and discrimination are still necessary and to help guide and direct the course of leadership studies to promote gender equity before sending individuals out to the work world.

Introduction

Imagine walking into a laboratory class on the first day and noticing you are the only individual of your gender. How would you feel? Would you be uncomfortable? How would you expect the other students to treat you? What about the professor- would you expect them to treat you differently because of your gender? As you leave that class, and head off to your leadership class you’re surprised to find the topic of discussion of the day is gender and leadership. Again, what if you found yourself on the receiving end of a conversation among classmates that questioned whether or not you should earn a wage greater than your spouse because of your gender? This day, a perfect storm of ideas coming together, sparked conversations among students and faculty about the “gender debate”. Is it still relevant? Does it exist in the same way it once did? Or are we having new conversations under an old idea? Simply, what is it about gender that we’re still discussing and how does it affect the way we see leaders?
Background

“We are surrounded by trailblazers who have broken through the glass ceiling. We are in a room full of firsts, and it’s depressing because we’re in the third millennium and we are still counting firsts for 50 percent of the Earth’s population. The absence of equality is obvious.” (pg. 13) (Eagly & Carli, 2007)

The theoretical framework that underpins this study is the Expectation Theory (ET). ET defines beliefs as “those that link greater social significance, general competence, as well as specific positive and negative skills, with one category of a social distinction, e.g., men, compared to another, e.g., women” (Berger, Fisek, Norman, & Zelditch, 1977)

As we have continued to move firmly into the 21st century, gender roles have shifted on their axis (Longman & Lafreniere, 2011). The number of women pursuing higher education has surpassed the number of men doing so (U.S. Department of Education, 2006). USDE (2010) goes further to explain the hard numbers, as of 2007-2008 women earned 57.3% of bachelor’s degrees, 60.6% of master’s degrees, and 51% of doctoral degrees. However, despite the numbers, the story remains that discrimination still exists.

In 2000, the Harvard Business Review found that “subtle and systemic forms of discrimination still linger” (pg.#). Myerson and Fletcher (2000), take the idea one step further to say that “It’s not the ceiling that’s holding women back; it’s the whole structure of the organizations in which we work: the foundation, the beams, the walls, the very air. The barriers to advancement are not just above women, they are all around them. . . . We must ferret out the hidden barriers to equity and effectiveness one by one. (p. 136)

Alice Eagly and Linda Carli, (2007) in the book Through the Labyrinth, describe how companies have given executive titles to women just to make it seem as though they embrace gender equality. Further the authors tell us:

“We gave vice president titles to women who were in corporate communications, publicity, and even the librarian and we congratulated ourselves on having women at the senior executive levels.” (p.21) (Eagly & Carli, 2007)

As a society we have started to eliminate the glass ceiling. In a 2005 Gallup Poll, 61 percent of men and 45 percent of women endorsed the idea that women have job opportunities that are equal to those of men. But these authors believe that we have yet to address the real issue. Women are still seen as disadvantaged by their gender whether it be because they are considered emotional, unfit, or because they choose to have a family; all of which play some role in a woman’s rise up the ladder. Is this due to the perceived notion that women are unable to do a job because of those preconceptions? Is it that our workplace are set up to discriminate as Myerson and Fletcher believe? Or is it something more buried?
The purpose of this study is to understand the way that young people, who are about to enter the work force, think about and understand gender. The authors hope that the outcome of these conversations will lead to understanding and to help guide and direct the course of leadership studies to promote gender equity before sending individuals out to the work world.

Method
This qualitative study will use short, semi structured interviews in order to understand and make meaning of how both male and female undergraduate students process issues of gender. A convenient purposive sample of undergraduate will be selected at [UNIVERSITY] and interviewed using questions determined by the research team focusing on gender perception and discrimination. The researchers, using a content analysis technique, will analyze the content of these interviews to understand what today’s young people are thinking about gender. 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).

Results to Date
The research team is working with the university’s Institutional Review Board to gain permission to start interviewing participants.

Conclusions or Implications
It is the hope of the researchers that regardless of outcome, this research will assist faculty in facilitating positive discussions regarding gender in their classrooms. Engaging students in open, and honest discussions is a tenant of the leadership classroom, and so being able to honestly confront issues of gender that may exist will only further a student’s education and competencies in dealing with “the hard issues” that inevitably await them upon graduation.

References


INNOVATIVE PRACTICE IN FULL
“Failure Is Not the End!” Implementing an Experiential Learning Project in an Agricultural Leadership Program

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Abstract
There is a growing need for innovative pedagogical methods in academia today (Murphy, 2013). Traditional, lecture-style classes are becoming less effective at educating students and developing leadership skills sought after by employers (Brooks et al., 2008). An agricultural leadership program created an Experiential Learning Project (ELP) to develop forestry data collection skills in high school students. Following the project, students completed a retrospective questionnaire assessing problem-solving, self-efficacy, teamwork, and communication skills. The ELP resulted in a mastery of forestry techniques, thereby developing resilience. Statistically significant growth was seen in all assessed skills. Other leadership programs should consider collaborating with other disciplines to develop leadership and life skills. Adoption of the ELP model could be a viable option in addition to current leadership curricula.

Introduction
According to Murphy (2013), academia should recognize that the successful educational systems of the past are no longer adequate to meet the needs of the students being prepared to address the challenges of the future, or even for the present. There is a growing need to shift the methods in which students are educated in order to impart on them the practical skills (i.e., technical and leadership) necessary to compete and be effective in the workforce. Murphy (2013) stated, “They [students] get jobs, as knowledge workers, and their work is specialized, compartmentalized, and abstracted. They do not understand the systems in which they work…” Furthermore, Brooks, Flanders, Jones, Kane, McKissick, & Shepherd (2008) found that instilling students with leadership skills is an area identified by industry as needing improvement. The need for a pedagogical shift can also be seen at the high school level, where students have become disinterested in school which has led to reduced retention of students (Finn & Rock, 1997).

The question to ask is, “how do leadership programs galvanize students to become engaged in education, develop resilience through hardships of their educational process, and gain the practical skills
needed to be effective in the workforce?” Some researchers feel a blended method of education is an essential innovation to attack these issues in education (Shinamoto, 2012; Murphy, 2013). This paper presents a model for developing practical skills and resilience characteristics in students which is based upon a citizen science experiential learning project.

**Background**

Resilience can be described as the attributes that help aid a person’s adaptation and operation, especially when facing risk factors (Finn & Rock, 1997; Cooper, Estes, & Allen, 2004). Morrison and Allen (2009, p. 162) go on to define *educational resilience* as “the heightened likelihood of success in school and other life accomplishments despite environmental adversities brought about by early traits, conditions, and experiences.” Specific qualities found in resilient youth include social, academic, problem-solving skills, along with the ability to work alone, and having a sense of purpose (Bernard, 1993; Cooper et al., 2004; Morrison & Allen, 2009). To help establish resiliency in students, teachers can create an environment where students are engaged in participation of class work and use experiential approaches to learning (Finn & Rock, 1997; Kolb & Kolb, 2005; Morrison & Allen, 2009). Kolb and Kolb (2005) describe the experiential learning theory (ELT) where they define learning as “...the process whereby knowledge is created through the transformation of experience. Knowledge results from the combination of grasping and transforming experience” (p. 41). The process within ELT is posited as a learning cycle where the learner goes through four stages (experiencing, reflecting, thinking, and acting) in a cyclical process that is influenced what is being learned (as shown in Fig. 1, Kolb & Kolb, 2005).

![Kolb & Kolb's Experiential Learning Cycle](image)

These concrete experiences provide the foundation for observations and then reflections, which are then aggregated and analyzed. From there, abstract concepts can be created, which then lead to new tests or “experiments,” which subsequently create new concrete experiences (Kolb & Kolb, 2005).
Citizen science is a collective term for projects that engage non-scientists and non-experts in the process of collecting, evaluating and/or computing various scientific data—from counting birds to classifying galaxies (Kostadinova, 2011). This process strengthens the interaction between scientists and non-scientists, introducing the larger public to opportunities to gain knowledge and skills and participate in an authentic research project (Evans, Abrams, Reitsma, Roux, Salmons, & Marra, 2005; Oberhauser, Prysby, Super, & Petersen, 2007; Silvertown, 2009; Kostadinova, 2011).

The purpose of this paper is to describe an experiential learning project (ELP), based on the citizen science model, which can be implemented into the curriculum of an agricultural leadership program. Educators should be able to:

- Obtain guidelines to constructing and implementing similar ELPs into their curriculum
- Identify pitfalls and resource needs of similar ELPs.

**Description of the Practice**

An experiential learning citizen science project was created to attract a larger, more diverse student body to forestry and agricultural leadership, education, and communication (ALEC) degree programs. To accomplish this, the program joined ALEC students and forestry students from two southern, land grant institutions collaborating to achieve its goals. Undergraduate and graduate students attended several mandatory trips as part of a USDA grant funded program to acquire skills in forestry data collection techniques. Trips to two state parks were used to provide opportunities for the undergraduates to transform high school students from urban settings into “citizen scientists.” This was accomplished through hands-on teaching of forestry data collection practices and utilizing nonformal teaching methods. High school students were coached by the undergraduate “teachers” and allowed to practice the data collection skills to a point at which they achieved mastery, thereby developing resilience. After this experience, high school students \( (n = 78) \) were asked to complete an online, retrospective questionnaire used to gauge leadership and life skills development, specifically problem solving, self-efficacy, teamwork, and communication.

**Foreseeable Implications**

Although the focus of the citizen science activity was data collection skill attainment, the impact of the activity also included improving the students’ life skills. The citizen scientist experience showed statistically significant growth in problem solving \( (t = 3.218, p = 0.002) \), self-efficacy \( (t = 3.441, p = 0.001) \), teamwork \( (t = 2.575, p = 0.012) \), and communication \( (t = 4.938, p = 0.000) \) skills among high school students. The growth in these skills aligns with the individual characteristics that can promote resiliency (Cooper et al., 2004). The use of an experiential learning project (ELP) can also provide the level of engagement necessary to generate resiliency characteristics in students (Finn & Rock, 1997) that can be theoretically supported by the ELT (Kolb & Kolb, 2005). Using this model, similar ELPs can be embedded into curriculum to allow students to develop not only tactile skills, but much needed leadership and life skills as well.
Recommended Next Steps

By allowing students to learn a skill until mastery is attained, the ELP is a viable teaching methodology that emphasizes resilience, and could effectively be utilized across disciplines to develop leadership and life skills in students. As leadership educators, we should collaborate with other disciplines and offer our expertise to help integrate leadership and life skills into wide range of curriculum. This methodology should be especially appealing to any discipline which requires hands-on skill acquisition or group projects that require a team approach.

References


A Classic Approach and a Fresh Perspective: 
Using Management By Objectives to Teach Servant Leadership

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Abstract
This practice session integrates the teaching of servant leadership with a classic approach to organizational goal setting—Management By Objectives (MBO). During this session, linkages will be made between constructs of servant leadership and MBO process whereby employees at all levels are asked to identify common goals, areas of responsibility and measures to ascertain goal progress. For leadership educators and practitioners, the practice described in this session provides a powerful tool to link a classic management technique with a modern, forward-thinking leadership approach. In many organizations, MBO is employed as a means to manage performance and create buy-in to individual and organizational goals. Since many organizations continue to utilize MBO, teaching leadership students to bridge the gap from the performance-based MBO paradigm to the service-based constructs of servant leadership, prepares leadership students to leverage MBO practices but with a more people-first, service-based approach identified with servant leadership.

Introduction
The study and practice of leadership is consistently changing. Many popular leadership models—such as transformational, transactional, and authentic—focus on leader behaviors. Followers are subordinate to the leader and are influenced and impacted by leader behaviors in an effort to invoke cooperation in accomplishing the organization’s goals and objectives (Kotter, 1996). Kellerman (2012) stated “followers across the board are disenchanted and disappointed.” Public and private organizations have employed various techniques to engage employees at all levels and to create buy-in to organizational and individual goals. However, many of these efforts have created the opposite effect—disengagement, lack of buy-in, employee anxiety (Golde, 1976). Despite good intentions, leaders have been criticized for continued use of top-down approaches to goal setting. However, research in the leadership field advocates for a shift in the paradigm of top-down approaches to a mindset of more mutual and reciprocal influence. The concept of servant leadership has led this movement in stressing the importance of leaders serving followers.

The purpose of this practice session is to examine and demonstrate the application of Drucker’s (1954) Management by Objectives (MBO) model to assist in teaching and practice of servant leadership.
Background
Greenleaf (1970) originally conceptualized servant leaders as those who displaced self-interest in lieu of prioritizing the needs of those being led. Servant leaders bring a service-oriented approach to leadership that enables followers to grow and develop. Servant leaders have been described as having an ability to invoke organizational wisdom, fold experience and knowledge into decision-making to make pro-social choices (Bierly, Kessler, & Christensen, 2000). Barbuto and Wheeler (2006) identified five behaviors of servant leadership: altruistic calling, emotional healing, wisdom, persuasive mapping, and organizational stewardship.
Drucker (1954) published the now classic Management by Objectives (MBO) framework. The MBO model stated that each individual manager in the organization should be involved in goal setting. The MBO model is participatory, forward looking and highlights the need for change. The key feature that assists our understanding of servant leadership is the area of mutual goal setting. The MBO mutual goal setting model utilizes a three step process delineated below.

Step 1: Goal setting at all levels of the organization. Top-level managers determine overall organizational goals and objectives. However, all levels of the organization down to first-level managers and employees jointly set goals that support the overall organizational objectives. While the objective setting begins at the top of the organization, all divisional and functional levels participate in setting their own goals.

Step 2: Mutual goal setting between managers and their direct reports. This step is a two-way conversation between managers and direct reports at all levels of the organization. Not only are organizational goals identified and discussed with all employees but individual goals and objectives are identified and discussed and a plan of action is developed. Managers have an opportunity to utilize servant leadership behaviors such as sensitivity to others’ needs, assisting the growth and empowerment of others.

Step 3: Periodic and final review. After goals and objectives are agreed upon, managers will periodically meet with their direct report to discuss progress. This step allows leaders to stay informed on progress at the individual and unit levels through continued conversations. These meetings also inform leaders of any potential problems or challenges that may prevent successful completion. If problems do arise, then leaders and direct reports have the ability to adjust goals as needed.

Description of the Practice
While MBO and servant leadership can be taught using many methodologies, this practice uses a combined role play and case study approach. In a classroom setting, students are given a scenario that describes a private business situation in which the corporate office recently announced plans to close underperforming stores. One student is asked to take the role of a store manager of a store with average sales that is being considered for closure. The student playing the store manager is given a series of metrics that must be met in order for the store to avoid closure. Other students are asked to take on other roles as employees in the organization. Using the MBO framework, the store manager must engage with each employee to determine goals at all levels of the individual store. Both the store manager and other manager role players will meet with those who are their direct reports to engage in
mutual goal setting. Finally, student role players will determine, perhaps speculatively, how and when goal reviews will occur. While this role play occurs, other students may serve as observers documenting servant leadership behaviors that occur during the role play. It is recommended that student observers are provided with a description of the Barbuto and Wheeler (2006) servant leadership behaviors (altruistic calling, emotional healing, wisdom, persuasive mapping, and organizational stewardship) and then specifically identify how and to what extent those behaviors were adopted by those in the role play. Students engaged in the role play should also be encouraged to document how they experienced servant leadership behaviors while in the role. A sampling of this role play will be demonstrated during the session.

**Foreseeable Implications**

This activity is designed to take a classic management technique, MBO, and integrate servant leadership behaviors. Even though MBO was originally designed to create opportunities for input at all levels of organizations, implementation of this technique is considered a top-down approach. As students are exposed to the constructs of servant leadership, students can gain insight as to how to more effectively integrate servant leadership behaviors and practices into commonly used management practices widely known and continually used in public and private organizations. Students will receive peer to peer feedback on their use or misuse of servant leadership behaviors which creates greater self-awareness and a broader leadership toolkit.

In both public and private organizations, management concepts and fads pervade organizations. For leadership educators, it is important not to dismiss or ignore commonly used management techniques. Instead, finding ways to marry leadership constructs with management practices enables wide-ranging learning opportunities. For upcoming leaders to be most effective, they must understand how to integrate leadership concepts and theories within existing organizational frameworks. This notion is the catalyst for this paper and it is our desire to invite leadership educators to discuss the integration of leadership theory with existing organizational and management practices. Doing so, allows leadership educators to more effectively connect with students across a wide range of work experiences. As leadership educators integrate leadership and management, while simultaneously holding those two separately, students are exposed to possibilities that exist by developing both leadership and management skills. In effect, leadership educators are better preparing students to tackle practical management challenges while utilizing the concepts of serviced-based, people-first leadership approaches. Therefore, the impact, from an educator’s viewpoint, is substantial.

**Recommended Next Steps**

During this session, attendees will be provided with the role play scenario, a rubric for students to utilize while observing behaviors and a description of the Barbuto and Wheeler servant leadership behaviors. These tools will allow session participants to implement this case study/role play activity in the classroom. We invite participants to attempt this or another methodology and report back on the results, which we would be happy to capture and share with ALE participants as appropriate. Another recommended next step is to invite leadership educators to explore and discuss other popular management techniques that may integrate with leadership theory. We expect that this demonstration will spark ideas for other management concepts and invite that discussion during and after the session.


Appendix A

*Note: This is an abbreviated sample of an MBO-Servant Leadership role play and rubric. This activity can be customized for depth of learning, length of time available, and additional leadership/management concepts.

An MBO/Servant Leadership Role Play Exercise:

The following exercise will illustrate the use of MBO to help teach Servant Leadership.

**Step 1. Preparation:** A short lecture on MBO and Servant Leadership is given beforehand. A question and answer session follows.

**Step 2. Volunteers** are sought to role play the situation. Other students will observe the role play and use the following rubric to assess servant leadership behaviors.

**Step 3: Situation:**

Sam Smith is a manager of Office Shop, a local electronics franchise that sells computers, cell phones, and other electronic devices. Recently, the corporate office announced a plan to close down under producing stores. Sam’s store has had over the last few years “average” sales. Sam feels in order for his store to survive he needs to increase sales by 10% this year, cut expenses by 5%, and that would place him in the above average range and help his franchise to survive. Sam’s franchise employs 10 full time and 20 part-time employees.

As part of the MBO process (step 2) Sam must meet with each employee to discuss future goals and objectives. Sam begins his conversation with Kaleb Jones. Kaleb is 28 years old, a native of California and has a bachelor’s degree in marketing. He has worked for Office Shop for almost 5 years and is one of the store’s top producing salespersons. Kaleb recently said something to Sam about wanting to begin an online MBA program and would like to have more responsibility with his position. Sam has observed some conflict between Kaleb and a few of the other store’s employees. Three new part time people were recently hired. They come to the store with little sales experience but with strong eagerness to work.
**Instructions:** Observe the role play in action. Take note of the use of the 5 servant leadership characteristics and communication skills. As you see these behaviors enacted or used ineffectively, note the specific behaviors that were used by “Sam”, the store manager.

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<td><strong>Emotional Healing</strong></td>
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<td>(Uses awareness and foresight to effective manage interactions)</td>
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<td><strong>Persuasive Mapping</strong></td>
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<td>(Offers compelling reasons to engage with team and org efforts)</td>
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<td><strong>Organizational Stewardship</strong></td>
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*Additional Observations of Note:*
A Teaching Model for Concept Learning and Changes in Critical Thinking

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Introduction
Some students struggle with leadership theory and its underpinnings connected to practice. Some new leadership educators struggle with developing effective instructional design approaches to teaching theory and augmenting conceptual learning. As leadership educators, we did too. Through experimentation with different instructional strategies over the years, we developed a practical method to teaching theory that expedites a deeper understanding of complex theoretical constructs in the social sciences. Our students have become increasingly adept at applying and synthesizing theory in relationship to real-world settings with this approach.

Students in our leadership courses are required to read a rigorous series of materials that primarily consist of theorists’ original writings introducing the constructs for consideration. The readings, at times, are challenging for students because they must not only comprehend but also master these complex concepts. To facilitate students’ mastery of the readings and to deepen their understanding of the concepts presented, we developed a teaching model that achieves our three goals of a) students’ mastery of the readings; b) students’ demonstration of appropriate applications of the concepts to real-world critical incidents; and, c) students’ active engagement in the discussion of the concepts and the applications.

Background
Concept Learning
Concepts are the fundamental building blocks for thought. We experience our world through a conceptual or categorical filter (Ausubel, 1968). Shumway, White, Wilson, and Brombacher (1983) concluded that all learning can be reduced to skill learning, problem solving, or concept learning. Concept learning is dependent upon the ability to abstract, generalize, categorize, and establish relationships between symbols and referents (Lovitt, 1989). When one of these abilities is underdeveloped, students struggle with applying new concepts to real-world settings.

Concept learning has been characterized as a mental construct that provides organized information concerning an element or class of elements and helps discriminate between that element or class of elements and others (Klausmeier, 1976). Types of concepts differ across a continuum of concreteness to abstractness. A concept has a unique set of attributes that distinguish it from other concepts. In addition, its number of attributes adds to its complexity (Tennyson & Cocchiarella, 1986).
**Adult Learning**

Andragogy is the techniques used to teach adults. Knowles (1968) first used this term to define adult learning. Later, Knowles, Holton, and Swanson (1998) described six assumptions about adult learning that have influenced the field of adult learning theory. Adults need to know why they should learn something. They prefer self-directed learning and learn best on a need to know basis. They are more task or problem-centered in their approaches to learning, and internal motivators drive their learning more than external motivators.

Adult education practitioner-based research literature consistently purports that adult learners have unique learning styles, and instructors should be mindful of these differences when designing instruction. However, we believe the majority of research studies do not convincingly support this assumption. Because of the number of variables that influence adult learning preferences, focusing on cognitive processing may be more appropriate when addressing adult learning. Placing more emphasis on how adults internally process information as opposed to the ways they prefer to learn when designing instruction seems to provide more stability to learning outcomes.

**Cognitive Processing**

In our leadership courses where we introduce leadership theories, we approach learning from a cognitive processing perspective rather than from adult learning theory. Four cognitive processing principles (Sternberg & Ben-Zeev, 2001) guide our instructional design. Our classrooms are learner focused; students construct meaning in learning; we provide mental frameworks to help students organize memory and guide thought; and social interaction is fundamental.

Our goal is to help students encode new learning in long-term memory by providing visual conceptual frameworks of leadership theories and by facilitating their discovery of interconnected relationships with new information. We make new learning meaningful through elaboration, visual imagery, and spatial visual imagery. Examples of these principles and steps we take to make learning meaningful are embedded in the model we offer for your consideration.

**Description of the Teaching Model**

**Conceptual Framework Introduction**

Before we begin to study leadership theories, we conduct extensive conversations around the idea of when a construct becomes a theory. In these discussions, we introduce Reichers and Schneider’s (1990) model as our conceptual framework of theory development, which serves us well in these discussions. We provide a visual representation by mapping the model, which represents a structure to the information to be learned and their connections (spatial visual imagery). We use analogies to further develop this framework for students, connecting this new information to what they already know.

Based on Kuhn’s (1970) ideas of scientific paradigm development, Reichers and Schneider (1990) suggested that construct development follows a pattern of idea evolution. In the first stage in a construct’s development, concept introduction and elaboration, a theorist attempts to legitimize a new or “newly borrowed” idea within their field of study. Articles are written to explain the new construct, to describe its relevance in the field of study, to provide operational definitions, and to prove the
construct accurately describes a phenomenon. If a construct is initially accepted by other theorists and survives, it moves onto the next stage.

In the second stage, concept evaluation and augmentation, reactions to the new construct begin to appear in the literature. Critics question or find fault in the construct’s conceptualization. Some may offer alternative ways of thinking about the construct. In response to the initial reactions, the theorist may posit additional explanations through new publications, leading to re-conceptualizing the innovative construct. A give and take of ideas around the construct appears in the literature, as theorists mesh out the new construct.

Acceptance of the construct materializes in the third stage, concept consolidation and accommodation. The construct appears in literature reviews and is treated as a valid concept. An increase in studies occurs in an attempt to support or reject its effect in the field.

**Initial Checking for Understanding**

Students’ first encounter with a new leadership theory is through assigned readings. We initiate a discussion by probing to determine if students grasped the readings on theory and what, if any, aspect of the new theory is unclear. We ask students to write on index cards their understanding of the theory; what ideas were most dominant about the theory; and what ideas were confusing or unclear. Checking for understanding in this way provides us a “map of emphasis” in our instructional plan. It also gives students an opportunity to think about their thinking (metacognition) and identify their personal gaps in understanding.

**Theory Deconstructed**

Next, we review the theory through a mini-lecture, deconstructing the theory to its simplest form and identifying its most critical attributes. Deconstructing and reconstructing the connections within the construct provides students with a “big picture” of the theory and all the inter-related components that make the theory what it is. In this way, we help students visualize a pictorial representation of the theory in their minds by providing critical attributes of the theory, along with multiple and varied examples and non-examples (visual imagery). All of these strategies give students structure to their learning.

We then encourage students to share professional and personal experiences that exemplify the theory in practice. This discussion helps solidify the idea that theory informs practice, and practice emulates and informs theory. At this point in the lesson, students begin to see the meaningful application of theory to the real world, where they make the connections or transfer old knowledge to new.

If students experience a deeper processing in learning, they create more intricate and sustaining memory traces and establish networks of associations. When students personally relate to new information, this processing makes the learning a more memorable experience.
Guided Practice
Students receive a brief critical incident that incorporates the new theory and its attributes. Through small group discussions, students identify how the theory plays out and influences the outcome. They get time to “play” with new information, verbalize their thinking, and take risks in their understanding.

Craik and Lockhart’s (1972) research supports this approach. In their seminal findings on memory research, the researchers proposed that learning memory was enhanced not by how long information was rehearsed, but by the depth the information was processed. They also contended if the rehearsal was done in a deep and meaningful way, the rehearsal’s effectiveness was also improved.

During this activity, students are encouraged to offer competing interpretations and defend their conclusions in small groups. They then re-convene for a class discussion and share their small group conclusions. At this point in the process, we dedicate class time to further develop student inferential thinking skills.

Through elaborative interrogation (Ozgungor & Guthrie, 2004), we ask students how they arrived at their collective conclusions with posing questions such as, “Why would that be true?” From those conversations around their responses, students come to recognize that they made inferences and filled in information not directly presented in the critical incident. We identify and categorize their inferences as either default inferences (automatic assumptions) or reasoned inferences (conclusions based on existing information) (Marzano, 2010). From here, rich discussions materialize, addressing the validity of their thinking and concluding that inferring information sometimes may be based on a faulty premise. During this segment of the learning process, students augment their understanding of the theory and hone inferential thinking skills, a foundation for higher-order thinking.

We go on to introduce additional theories, through readings and guided practice in developing student understanding of these theories. Our approach to new theories may vary but the structure of an introduction to the new construct, its deconstruction and re-construction, guided practice, and application remains the core of our instructional design in concept learning.

Applying theory to practice is imperative in any discipline if students are to succeed as successful professionals in their fields of study. In our field of developing leaders, we value the importance of providing students meaningful dress rehearsals (Craik & Lockhart, 1972) for real world decision making and leading. We do this with the cumulative activity of a case study.

Case Study as Synthesis
Students receive a case study with new learned theories embedded in the study. The case is typically multifaceted and focuses on an ill-defined problem or problems that need to be solved. Their task is to articulate and delineate the real problem even though it may be ill-defined; identify perceived root causes of the problem; and present a solution that addresses the identified issues, supporting all with theories learned.

Throughout their analysis of the case study, students are asked to synthesize theories previously learned and apply them appropriately to the context of the case study. What we look for in their responses is
the identification and application of the most suitable theories manifested within the critical incident and offer a solution or a number of solutions also grounded in learned theory. The key to their success is that they exhibit and defend connections between aspects of the critical incident and these theories.

**Formative and Summative Assessments**

We measure the success of the teaching model by a) reviewing the students’ index cards as a check for student understanding of the concepts; b) monitoring small group discussions of scenarios and the applications of the theories to real-world critical incidents; and c) reviewing the students’ analyses of the final case study. These artifacts provide evidence of student mastery of readings, their demonstration of applications to real-world critical incidents, and students’ active engagement in the discussions.

**References**


Capstone Courses and Experiences in Leadership Programs within Colleges of Agriculture: A Review of Literature and Proposal for Future Research

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Abstract
The purpose of this endeavor is to determine capstone expectations for undergraduate students, at land-grant institutions, in leadership programs within colleges of agriculture. As academic leadership programs become more common on campuses across the country, attention has been given to their scope, sequence, and theoretical underpinnings (Brungardt, Greenleaf, Brungardt & Arensdorf, 2006). Colleges of agriculture are no exception. Recently, Morgan, King, Rudd, and Kaufman (2013) consulted experts in the field to find out what leadership programs in colleges of agriculture should look like and why. While Morgan’s group is examining programs holistically, our research will address capstone courses and experiences specifically. This paper provides a review of literature and a proposal for future research. Additionally, the authors plan to carry out the proposed research and have preliminary findings available this summer.

Background
Leadership development has been an aim of higher education in the United States since its beginning (Greenwald, 2010; Bowen, 2007; Baxter Magolda & King, 2004). The strategies for achieving this goal have evolved from mostly implicit (leadership as a byproduct of other educational endeavors) to more explicit and intentional, both in the curricular and co-curricular aspects of higher education (Greenwald, 2010). The objectives of curricular undergraduate leadership education programs may vary by institution and department (Brungardt et al., 2006; Hackman, Kirlin & Tharp, 2004). With that in mind, some may wonder whether context matters—and, if it does, to what degree? Kaufman, Rateau, Carter and Strickland (2012) believe that context does matter. Furthermore, they posit that the challenges faced in today’s agricultural world demand explicit intentional preparation of professionals who will provide the leadership necessary for such challenges. “Leadership is a concept that has always been a major component of Colleges of Agriculture,” according to Connors, Valez and Swan (2006, p. 93), and students in those colleges have had a variety of opportunities to develop leadership both in and out of the classroom.

Posner (2009) emphasized the importance of experiential learning in leadership education and development. Posner maintained that teaching about leadership was important but not entirely sufficient. “(L)eadership requires doing and leadership development therefore requires action learning. . .” (Posner, 2009, p. 1). This idea resonates in colleges of agriculture, in particular, given the highly
applied and practical nature of the field.

Morgan, King, Rudd and Kaufman (2013) recently worked to identify objectives, courses, and job placements for graduates from leadership programs in colleges of agriculture. One of their strongest findings was the need for hands-on practical experiences that would provide students an opportunity to put their leadership learning into practice. This is consistent with other research on capstone experiences within colleges of agriculture. An investigation of agribusiness capstone experiences, for example, determined that students who had completed capstone experiences required less training once hired than did new employees who had not completed capstone experiences (Hall, Fairchild, Baker, Taylor & Litzenberg, 2003).

One of the most familiar experiential capstone experiences in colleges of agriculture is, perhaps, the student teacher experience which is the culmination of teacher preparation programs across the country. The student teaching capstone experience provides a platform for students who desire to become teachers an opportunity to put their teaching techniques into practice. This experiential capstone experiences is approximately 14 to 16 weeks where students have the opportunity to explore a variety of teaching techniques within a high school agricultural education program (Torres, Kitchel, and Ball, 2010). These types of experiences [and expectations] are fairly consistent among teacher preparation programs across the country.

Frequently, undergraduate leadership programs in colleges of agriculture are connected to the agricultural education major. Examples of this can be found at the University of Illinois, the University of Tennessee, and the University of Nebraska-Lincoln. Other times, leadership programs take the shape of stand-alone majors, minors, and/or certificate programs. The nature of the program will likely impact its overall objectives and requirements as well as the nature and expectations of any practical experiences that are part of the program (Brungardt et al., 2006).

**Discussion & Implications**

The need for practical experiences in leadership programs probably does not surprise most leadership educators. Many already include expectations for experiential learning in their programs, particularly related to capstone experience requirements. In that way, leadership programs share something in common with teacher preparation programs and other agricultural majors where students must apply their learning in a real world setting prior to graduation. Leadership programs may differ, however, in the flexibility of that requirement. For example, the University Florida requires an experiential capstone that has evolved over time based on the needs of the students involved (Gifford, Cannon, Stedman & Telg, 2011). It is also possible that the experiential component of a leadership program may not come in the shape of an internship, but may instead be service-learning, a collaborative group project, or something similar to what some teacher educators would identify as a practicum.

There are advantages to varied expectations and flexibility with experiential learning and capstones. Not the least of which is the ability to tailor those experiences to the learning outcomes of the specific program and the needs of the students. At the same time, it is necessary to consider possible
disadvantages that can come with such variation. While attention is being given holistically to leadership programs in colleges of agriculture (Morgan et al., 2013), it is also important to pay particular attention to the capstone courses and experiences in those programs. In general, it can be safely assumed that graduates of teacher preparation programs, as well as other common majors within colleges of agriculture, have achieved similar levels of learning and skill attainment from one institution to the next as a result of shared professional standards and common core curricula. It is not yet clear whether the same can be said of undergraduate leadership programs. We already know that “(L)eadership educators have not coalesced around a single best practice for a senior capstone course,” (Gifford, et al., 2011, p. 104-105). This lack of consensus has implications for both positive and negative outcomes.

**Future Directions: Proposed Research**

We are preparing to conduct a survey with leadership program coordinators in colleges of agriculture at land-grant institutions across the country to address the expectations for capstone courses and experiences. (See Appendix A for a sampling of survey questions.) While it is not necessarily our goal to create a one-size-fits-all prescription for leadership capstone courses, we believe that a clearer understanding of the capstone course expectations is needed. We hope to identify best practices, challenges, consistencies, and unique features of capstone course requirements. Preliminary findings will be available to share in summer 2013.

**References**


Greenwald, R. (Dec. 5, 2010). Today’s students need leadership training like never before [Electronic


Appendix A: Research & Survey Questions

The research questions driving this project, along with potential survey questions to be used during data collection, are provided here. Note that the survey questions are subject to revision as needed:

Research Questions:

1. What is the formal nature of the leadership program? (stand-alone major, option or area of specialization within a major, other)

2. Are students expected to complete a capstone course and/or experience in order to fulfill their degree requirements?

3. If so, what is the nature of the capstone course and/or experience? (student teaching, internship, practicum, special topics course, undergraduate research project, other)
4. What are the expectations of the capstone course and/or experience, and how are they determined?

5. What are the learning outcomes associated with the capstone course and/or experience, and how are they determined?

Potential Survey Questions:

1. Name and location of institution

2. Department where leadership program is housed

3. Is the leadership program a
   a. Stand-alone major
   b. Option or area of emphasis within a major (Which major?)
   c. Other (minor, certificate, endorsement, etc.)

4. Do students in the major complete a capstone course and/or experience?
   a. Course only
   b. Experience only
   c. Course & Experience

5. What is the purpose, either implicit or explicit, of the capstone course and/or experience?

Only answer Questions 6-11 if a capstone course is offered. If there is no capstone COURSE, go directly to Question 12.

6. At what point in the program does the student enroll in the capstone course?

7. What are the pre-requisites to the capstone course?

8. What is the title of the capstone course?
9. What topics are covered in the capstone course?

10. What are the stated learning outcomes of the capstone course?

11. In addition to the stated learning outcomes of the capstone course, what are the unstated or implicit outcomes desired?

12. At what point in the program does the student engage in the capstone experience?

13. What are the pre-requisites to the capstone experience?

14. Who is responsible for identifying the capstone experiences? (All that apply) a. Faculty  b. Staff  c. Students

15. What are the guidelines used for determining a suitable capstone experience?

16. What are the learning objectives of the capstone experience?

17. How are the learning objectives for the capstone experience determined?

18. Who is responsible for supervising a student’s capstone experience?

19. In what ways is a student asked to demonstrate learning in his/her capstone course and/or experience?

20. What artifacts, if any, result from the course and/or experience and can be used to provide evidence of student learning?

21. How is the student’s grade assessed in his/her capstone course? (if applicable)

22. How is the student’s grade assessed in his/her capstone experience? (if applicable)

23. Considering feedback from students, site supervisors, and other stakeholders, what changes (if any) would you like to consider in the next five years for the capstone course and/or experience in your leadership program?
Development of an Undergraduate, Interdisciplinary Leadership Studies Minor

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Abstract
Leadership Studies was approved as an undergraduate, interdisciplinary minor recently at [state] University; although undergraduate leadership courses have been taught on campus since the 1980’s. This session will focus on our experiences in developing the proposal and securing approval for the minor at [state] University. We will also identify and discuss issues and barriers encountered during the process of securing approval of the Leadership Studies minor.

Introduction and Background
Developing future leaders has been cited as one of the primary goals of higher education institutions (Cress, Astin, Zimmerman, & Burkhardt, 2001; White, 2006; Scroggs, Sattler, & McMillan, 2009). Although many colleges and universities have devoted resources to student leadership development, the resources often tend to be directed toward a select few students. Leadership development programs often involve short duration workshops or weekend retreats that engage student leaders in developmental activities that may include elements of self-reflection. Although individual leadership skills may be improved through such experiences; academic leadership courses tend to focus more on teaching leadership theories, concepts, and principles which distinguishes leadership education from leadership development (Scroggs, Sattler, & McMillan, 2009). The American College Personnel Association (ACPA, 1994) suggests that the goals of leadership education are to improve: (a) cognitive knowledge of leadership theories, (b) leadership skills such as conflict resolution and interpersonal communication, and (c) clarification of personal values. These learning goals are consistent with the ACPA Student Learning Imperative which is based upon the assumption that learning, personal development, and student development are inextricably intertwined and that hallmarks of a college-educated person include their cognitive skills, practical competence, the ability to apply knowledge, an appreciation for human differences, and a coherent sense of self within a societal context (ACPA, 1994).
Leadership is viewed as an on-going, developmental process, and leadership education programs in higher education have emerged to prepare students for the life-long process of developing their leadership skills with the goal of continuous self-improvement (Eich, 2008). [state ]University recently approved a proposal to establish an interdisciplinary, undergraduate minor in Leadership Studies for students seeking to improve their leadership knowledge and skills through education, experience, and reflection (Brungardt, et al., 2006). Cress, et al. (2001) acknowledged that there was “a strong indication that leadership potential exists within every student and that colleges and universities can develop this potential through leadership programs and activities” (p. 23).

Komives, Lucas, and McMahon (2007, p. 5-6) emphasized the importance of the interpersonal dimension of leadership based on three basic principles: (a) knowing yourself, how change occurs, and why others may view things differently; (b) being ethical, principled, open, caring, and inclusive; and (c) doing acts that reflect socially responsible behavior, participating in a community, and acting consistently and congruently on commitments and passions.

**Description of the Practice**

Undergraduate students at [state] University who had expressed an interest in leadership were surveyed to assess their potential interest in enrolling in an academic leadership minor. An electronic survey was used to collect data from 278 undergraduate students representing a variety of department, college, and university leadership programs throughout the campus to assess student interest in a leadership minor. Leadership topics of greatest interest focused on areas of personal leadership including self-management, assessing personal strengths, group problem solving, developing a personal leadership philosophy, and team building through service learning. Leadership topics of least interest to the respondents were those that were theoretical in nature. Overall, three-fourths (n = 170) of the respondents reported an interest in an undergraduate leadership minor, with the greatest number of students from career fields in the health sciences, business, and education. The results from the student interest survey were incorporated into the rationale and justification sections of the proposal for an undergraduate, interdisciplinary minor in Leadership Studies at [state] University.

Prior to the development of the Leadership Studies minor proposal, a faculty development leave was used to collect information about leadership education programs at several peer universities including Florida, Virginia Tech, Texas A&M, Missouri, and Nebraska. After summarizing and reviewing program documents collected during the site visits, a draft proposal for the leadership studies minor was developed. Faculty colleagues from two colleges at [state] University were primary authors of the proposal; although several other faculty, staff, and student stakeholders provided input throughout the proposal development process. Personal interviews with department chairs and college deans were conducted after disseminating draft copies of the leadership studies minor proposal to identify issues and to gauge support for the proposal.

After numerous iterations and revisions, the interdisciplinary Leadership Studies minor proposal was submitted to the College of Arts & Sciences Committee on Curriculum and Instruction (CCI) and the [state] University Council on Academic Affairs (CAA) for concurrent review. The CCI endorsed the
Leadership Studies minor proposal which, in turn, allowed the CAA to approve the proposal. However, the CCI voted not to approve the Leadership Studies minor for students majoring in Arts & Sciences (Sowcil, 2012), based upon issues and concerns expressed by individual members of the Arts & Science CCI.

The [state] University Council on Academic Affairs voted to approve the Leadership Studies minor in April, 2010. There are 32 students who have officially enrolled in the minor; although several other students have enrolled in leadership courses in anticipation of officially declaring the minor at some point in the future (Note: students often delay enrolling in a minor until most of the minor requirements are completed.) If and when the College of Arts & Sciences approves the minor for their students, we plan to conduct a promotional campaign to publicize the availability of the Leadership Studies minor targeting students, faculty, and advisors.

Implications & Recommendations
This practice session will explain the steps we followed in proposal development and while securing approval for the Leadership Studies minor at [state] University. In addition, we will discuss the following topics as they pertain to the development of the Leadership Studies minor:

- Involvement of non-tenure track faculty, students, and staff in proposal development
- Curriculum components included in the Leadership Studies minor
- Use of the term leadership “practicum” for the integrating capstone component
- Structure of Leadership Studies minor advisory committee
- Expectation of faculty in home department to supervise the leadership practicum
- Including public speaking (and other skill development courses) in the minor
- Including Arts & Science courses (e.g. Art Education) in the minor
- Smucker Leaders Scholarship Fund endowment ($250,000) for Leadership Studies minor students

References


Examing Self-Regulated Learning and Problem Solving Style in Adult Leadership Programs

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Abstract
Agricultural leadership programs increase understanding of issues confronting agriculture and natural resources through a variety of teaching and learning strategies. The purpose of this practice paper is to provide agricultural leadership program facilitators with the description of assessing self-regulated learning and problem solving style using Kirton’s Adaption- Innovation and a modified version of the Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire. As participants identify themselves as leaders, they can better understand their personal preferences by assessing their cognitive styles. Through this knowledge, facilitators can then better equip leaders to assume leadership roles.

Introduction
In agricultural leadership programs, adult learners are challenged with issues facing their industries and are given the opportunity to prepare themselves for leadership roles (Abington-Cooper, 2005; Kaufman & Carter, 2005). These programs aim to increase understanding of economic, political, and social issues confronting agriculture and natural resources (Miller, 1976). To fulfill this purpose, programs have been established in 39 states, provinces, and countries around the world (Lindquist, 2010). As participants develop skills to become leaders, self-regulated learning and problem solving styles are two areas that can be examined in the context of adult learning.

Background
The complexities of adult learning can relate back to an adult learner’s experiences (Newton, 1977). Based on their experience, adult learners bring more knowledge to the problem at hand (Sternberg and Horvath, 1995). More experienced learners are able to solve problems faster and in a more economical way, have stronger self-monitoring skills, and are able to view and solve problems at a deeper level (Merriam, Caffarella, & Baumgartner, 2007).

Adults are motivated by different factors than younger learners in that they are motivated to learn how to solve problems resulting in internal payoffs (Knowles, Holton, & Swanson, 2005). The theory of self-regulated learning has been built upon the construct of motivation (Pintrich, 2003). Self-regulated
learners manage their learning by regulating their behavior, motivation, and cognition. They seek out information and take the necessary steps to master obtained knowledge, using strategies of evaluation, organization, goal setting, accountability, and reviewing (Zimmerman, 1990). This type of learning is based on developing time management, learning strategies, self-evaluation, self-attribute, and self-efficacy (Zimmerman, 2002). Self-regulation of learning involves more than the knowledge of a skill, but also the self-awareness and motivation to implement what is learned correctly.

In addition to different motivational factors, adults prefer a problem-solving orientation to learning rather than subject-centered learning (Knowles, Holton, and Swanson, 2005). Kirton (2003) defined problem solving as an ability to “solve critical, complex problems in challenging environments” (p. 1), and in his theory of Adaption-Innovation, he explored the interaction between two problem solving styles, adaption and innovation (Kirton, 1976). Innovators are comfortable with exceeding the boundaries of the established order and changing structures whereas, adaptors adhere to the rules and codes associated with the issue at hand (Samms, 2010).

Problem solving styles have been assessed within one agricultural leadership program (Carter & Lamm, 2012); however, self-regulated learning has not been studied in this context. Self-regulated learning within adults has mainly been studied on individuals in college (Pintrich, 2003). The lack of examination of these two cognitive styles provides opportunity to develop new frameworks for agricultural leadership programs.

The practice of assessing two different types of cognitive styles provides agricultural leadership program facilitators with the opportunity to assess problem solving styles and motivation within agricultural leadership programs using Kirton’s Adaption- Innovation instrument (1976) (KAI) and a modified version of the Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (Pintrich & DeGroot, 1990) (MSLQ). The objective for this paper is to provide leadership program facilitators with instruction on assessing cognitive styles of participants using both instruments.

**Description of the Practice**

Program facilitators can assess two types of cognitive styles by administering the MSLQ and the KAI. The MSLQ can be administered in the first seminar to coincide with a theme of personal development. The instrument was modified by a panel of experts at the [UNIVERSITY] for adults participating in a leadership program with personal leadership development being the focus of the questions. The instrument measured self-efficacy, intrinsic value, cognitive strategy use and self-regulation (Pintrich & DeGroot, 1990). The instrument had 32 items on a 7-point likert scale. Reliability of the assessment was reported using Cronbach’s alpha of $\alpha=.84$. At the mid-point of the two year program, participants will fill out the KAI. The 32-item instrument has a score range from 32-160. Class members scoring below 95 points are considered adaptors and class members scoring above 95 points are considered innovators. The KAI has a level of reliability reporting a Cronbach’s alpha of $\alpha=.80 – .90$ (Taylor, 1989).
**Results to date**

Recently facilitators of an agricultural leadership program in a southern state administered both instruments during a two-year leadership class. In the inaugural seminar of the class, participants completed a modified version of the MSLQ. At the mid-point of the two-year program, participants filled out the KAI. Program staff facilitated both assessments and analyzed results.

### Self-Regulated Learning Scores

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<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
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<tr>
<td>Self-Regulated Learning</td>
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<td>15.55</td>
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### Problem Solving Styles Scores

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<td>Sufficiency of Originality</td>
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<td>Efficiency</td>
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<tr>
<td>Rule-Group Conformity</td>
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<td>7.19</td>
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**Foreseeable Implications**

Both the MSLQ and KAI are useful in providing information to the facilitator and participant in two different areas of cognition. Research shows adults are motivated to learn by solving problems they confront within their own experience. Programs are providing experience, issue awareness, and skill development to serve as a knowledge base for addressing current issues. The agricultural industry can benefit from those who choose to self-regulate their learning since they are motivated to take charge of their learning about issues and their own development as a leader within this context. Additionally, leaders with a knowledge of their own problem solving style and the problem solving style of those they work with can effectively move toward positively working together to obtain greater opportunities for their industries and communities. As participants discuss current issues affecting agriculture and natural resources, they can build an agenda that includes a solution derived from multiple viewpoints or opinions. According to Basadur and Head (2001) there is a benefit present by working in diverse teams because a range in problem solving styles leads to more creative and effective solutions than homogeneous teams.

According to Howell, Weir and Cook (1982) participants of agricultural leadership programs can increase their leadership skills and learn new behaviors that could assist them in their participation in public affairs. Knowing this, facilitators of these programs should understand how participants learn these new skills and how better to implement skills such as self-regulated learning and effective problem solving in the learning process. Through understanding how adults manage their own learning and how they resolve problems, programs can better equip them to assume roles effectively in their communities and industries.
**Recommended Next Steps**

Future plans included implementing this activity in future classes of the agricultural leadership program. Through administering both the KAI and the MSLQ, program facilitators will be able to understand how participants self-regulate their learning and their orientation toward solving problems impacting agriculture and natural resources. They will also be given an indication of how cognitive styles can influence leadership involvement.

Opportunities for future research include comparing learning and problem solving styles to other assessments including personality and critical thinking inventories. Additionally, using these assessments with a larger population of participants can make a stronger contribution to the understanding of the benefit of using assessments within adult learning and leadership development environments.
References


Fostering Student Leaders to Affect Positive Change through an Inter-State Collaboration

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Abstract
This session will discuss a collaborative leadership program, between two universities, designed to expand students’ global mindsets and educate students about issues facing young leaders today. Attendees will learn how this collaboration was created and consider ways professionals can inspire student leaders to affect positive change at their home campuses.

Introduction
With the onset of major economic, societal, and environmental issues, increased pressures have been placed on colleges and universities to prepare students to think critically about the problems that plague our global society (Cress, Astin, Zimmerman-Oster, & Burkhardt, 2001; Posner, 2004). As a result, post-secondary education is being held accountable to develop students in becoming ethical citizens and future leaders (Astin & Astin, 2000). However, while this expectation exists, 40% of Americans view college campuses as uncivil (Weber Shandwick, Powell Tate, & KRC Research, 2010, p. 2). In order to foster civility both on and off campus, leadership development programs have been established at many institutions and serve as an essential element in nurturing the civic mind of students around the nation. Reaffirming the necessity of such leadership development initiatives, these programs have resulted in an array of outcomes including increased multicultural awareness, civic responsibility, and personal and societal awareness (Cress, Astin, Zimmerman-Oster, & Burkhardt, 2001; Posner, 2004).

Realizing the need for student leaders to reflect on current injustices, explore worldviews, and develop the confidence to be change agents in their local communities, professionals at Washburn University and the University of New Orleans established an inter-state collaboration, called the Leadership Exchange. This three day program allowed student leaders to interact with students from a different culture and engage in conversations with these peers about campus issues, social challenges, and a leader’s role in creating resiliency and affecting positive change. Through this program, students’ global mindsets were expanded, preparing them to be responsible student leaders and engaged citizens.

Background
This program was mirrored around learning outcomes based on student development and leadership
education theories and best practices, including the Social Change Model (Astin & Astin, 2000; Komives, Wagner, & Associates, 2009) and CAS Standards (2012). Specifically, the collaboration was founded on the CAS Standards for Student Leadership Programs, which identify the areas of intellectual growth, collaboration, social responsibility, clarified values, diversity, and leadership as being critical components to collegiate leadership development programs. Furthermore, the Seven C’s of the Social Change Model (Consciousness of Self, Congruence, Commitment, Collaboration, Common Purpose, Controversy with Civility, and Citizenship) were taught and applied through workshops, activities, service opportunities, and discussions pertaining to social injustices. Through these theories and practices, the program engaged students around issues of diversity and difference, while intentionally creating learning opportunities that fostered a sense of shared community in the increasingly global environment.

Through this session, the presenters will provide an overview of the importance of such programs, founded in research and theory. In particular, presenters will share details concerning the program’s learning outcomes and assessment tools utilized. The speakers will motivate other professionals to implement leadership development programs based on research and best practices. Most importantly, participants will gain insight on how to plan and implement similar programs. At the conclusion of the program, participants will have the opportunity to brainstorm similar programs and connect with other institutions.

**Description of the Practice**

This “exchange” experience was established to give students the opportunity to travel to a distinct part of the country and interact with other college students sharing an interest in and passion for leadership. Student leaders from Washburn University in Topeka, Kansas, traveled over 900 miles to the University of New Orleans. The geographic regions (the South/Urban and the Midwest/Rural, respectively) were utilized to enhance students’ intercultural mindfulness. The goal of this collaboration was to empower students by nurturing skills central to leadership and citizenship and aid students in becoming social change agents. This was achieved through: activities focused on the social change model, peer-led workshop sessions, cultural immersion tours, volunteer initiatives, team-building exercises, and meaningful roundtable conversations about topics affecting young leaders and social justice issues.

The first day of this three day program consisted of a Leadership Lab. A leadership lab is designed to provide students with the opportunity to see leadership in action in a unique organizational environment. A lab requires students to be excellent observers of leadership and be able to notice certain organizational and operating processes that require a specific leadership style in order to be successful. During this time, students explored various cultural dimensions, including a discovery of New Orleans’ vivid history, an exploration of the city’s distinct historical and artistic influences, and a special educational component about leadership in response to Hurricane Katrina. Thus, from the very first day, the program aimed at fostering “intercultural awareness, understanding, and acceptance” (Zimmerman-Oster and Burkhardt, 2000, p.13).

During the second day of the program, the Social Change Model was formally introduced to the students through an interactive workshop. Next, the students broke out into peer-led presentations. These
presentation topics included: Vision Development, Developing Cultural Intelligence, Leadership and Mentoring, Attitudes in Conflict and Synergy, Youth Empowerment, and Combating Apathy. Through these peer-led workshops, participants were able to share their own unique thoughts, perspectives, and experiences about leadership. The day concluded with roundtable discussions where students were given questions to reflect upon as a group. Questions included:

- Living in a borderless global world, how do you see yourself fitting in as a student leader?
- What social injustices do you see at your school and in your community? How can you address these issues?
- As a young leader, what does social responsibility mean to you? How can student leaders initiate change? The roundtable discussions were a key element in initiating open dialogue about issues affecting young leaders today. In addition, this discussion was geared toward challenging students to expand their global mindset beyond their home institution and known culture. The third day focused on putting leadership principles into action. Here, participants came together to volunteer at a local charter school. The students learned about the state of public schools prior to Hurricane Katrina and how the devastation of Katrina resulted in community leaders coming together to reform education in the city. Through this activity, students were able to witness how communities can overcome adversity and, through collaboration, can impact positive change. Thus, over three days, students were able to engage in conversations across difference, which is noted to be the single strongest environmental predictor of leadership outcomes (Dugan & Komives, 2007). Foreseeable Implications and Recommended Next Steps  Through this practice session, the presenters will empower leadership educators to create programs that challenge students to 1) nurture skills central to leadership, citizenship, and civility; 2) become social change agents; and 3) engage with others in shared communities. In addition, presenters will share the learning outcomes of the program and discuss assessment strategies. Most importantly, the presenters will aid participants in brainstorming similar leadership programs that can nurture students’ cultural competency, global perspective, and concepts of citizenship. By sharing this information, the presenters hope that session participants will be inspired to create similar initiatives with other institutions across the country to enrich and enhance leadership development programming for students.

References


Hear All About It: The New York Times In Leadership Project

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Abstract
A common thread throughout the leadership education literature is the importance of connecting theory and practical application. The New York Times in leadership project was designed to give professors, scholars, practitioners, and students opportunities to connect leadership concepts to real-world examples. Through news articles, discussion questions, reading lists, and video conferences, students have the opportunity to expand their understanding of the practical application of leadership in the 21st century. This session will go into detail about The New York Times in Leadership project and how this resource is being used in and out of the classroom to facilitate a dialogue around leadership application. Session participants will have a chance to explore the different New York Times in Leadership resources and student/faculty data will be presented to discuss the impact of the project.

Introduction
A common thread throughout the leadership education literature is the importance of connecting theory and practical application. The New York Times in leadership project was designed to give professors, scholars, practitioners, and students opportunities to connect leadership concepts to real-world examples. Through news articles, discussion questions, reading lists, and video conferences, students have the opportunity to expand their understanding of the practical application of leadership in the 21st century. Every day, leaders and followers engage in a variety of activities in many different settings – business, nonprofit organizations, political institutions. They face local, as well as global, leadership challenges. Their responses to these challenges provide students with valuable insights that will become powerful classroom discussion topics.

Background
Over the past two decades, research in leadership studies points to a number of different ways to deliver information and develop students’ leadership competencies (Avolio, 1999; Bridgeforth, 2005; Curtin, 2002; Hackman, Kirlin, & Tharp, 2004; Sowcik, 2012). However, a common pattern has emerged throughout the research which has drawn attention to the similarities between the process of teaching and leadership (Swatez, 1995; Hickman, 1994; James, 1997; Sowcik, 2012). Similar to leadership, teaching requires the setting of goals, the ability to influence, motivate, enlighten, transform and ultimately empower others to become capable of teaching/leading themselves (James, 1997; Sowcik, 2012).
Different than other academic discipline, effective teaching in leadership studies and the process of empowering students participating in leadership courses, does not just happen by lecturing about leaders and leadership (Swatez, 1995, p. 76). “As an academic discipline, leadership studies does not have the luxury of simply being memorized or passively absorbed” (Sowcik, 2012). Instead instructors need to present different learning opportunities to empower students and provide them the context to achieve their own goals and actively understand the process of leadership. The practice of active learning, the use of multiple teaching methodologies, and opportunities for students to engage fully in the learning process is a natural outcome once an instructor makes the choice to empower students. Once a student feels empowered, “they are more likely to engage in dialogue around leadership and be able to deal with the ambiguity associated with the discipline” (Sowcik, 2012).

However, one of the challenges leadership educators face when trying to empower students to engage in dialogue for and about leadership, is the application of in-class learning to everyday leadership examples. As the student population within academia continues to change and become more diverse and the demands on faculty/staff continue to grow, less time is available to develop well thought through examples for different leadership studies subject areas (Keeling, 2004, p. 6). The New York Times in Leadership project draws on the different contexts and practical examples presented in The New York Times to provide faculty and students with a common experience in which they can discuss leadership.

Description of the Practice or Discussion/Interaction
This session will go into detail about The New York Times in Leadership project and how this resource is being used in and out of the classroom to facilitate a dialogue that focuses on leadership application. Session participants will have a chance to explore the different New York Times in Leadership resources and student/faculty data will be presented to discuss the impact of the project. An outline of the practice session includes:

A. Introduction
B. Experiential Activity Utilizing the Daily Article
C. Different Resources Discussed
D. Presenting Student/Faculty Data
E. Conclusion/Questions

Foreseeable Implications
At the conclusion of the practice session, participants will have an understanding of: (1) the history of the New York Times in Leadership project; (2) the resources associated with the project; (3) application of the resources in the classroom; and (4) data on the impact of the program. Ultimately, the overarching goal for the practice session is to provide information on the New York Times in Leadership project, provide an environment for session participants to use the resources, and present both quantitative and qualitative data on the project’s impact.
**Recommended Next Steps**

Session participants will be provided with a free trial of The New York Times in Leadership and encouraged to review the resources to see if they would be applicable to their particular courses. For those participants interested in The New York Times in Leadership, additional resources will be made available to them. Additionally, as session participants become more involved with The New York Times in Leadership, more opportunities to connect and discuss resources will become available.

**References**


How do You Roll?
Innovative Practice for Using the Individual Factors Leadership Inventory Wheel

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Abstract
The search for a versatile leadership assessment that yields quick and applicable feedback led researchers at three universities to develop the Individual Leadership Factors Inventory Wheel (ILFIW). The ILFIW’s innovative process has participants score their leadership skills through a one-page questionnaire, summate their scores based on established leadership constructs and plot their results creating their own leadership wheel. Wheels can then be analyzed, discussed and utilized for personal leadership growth. This innovative leadership assessment is ready to be utilized in various settings where leadership development is/could be emphasized including: classrooms, clubs, faculty groups and conferences. Presenters will showcase the ILFIW through a practical seminar that will have participants learn about the development of the ILFIW, create their own wheel, discuss the meaning of “flats” and “bubbles”, discuss possible applications and leave ready to implement this innovative leadership assessment in their own leadership development programs.

Introduction
While there are many different leadership assessments available, sometimes they prove a bit cumbersome. They often lack immediate practical application to those who take them, are costly, too long, need statistical knowledge or programs to score and are difficult to interpret. Three years ago the authors set out to develop a practical leadership assessment that could be used in a group setting (classroom, small group, training session, etc.), low cost, and could provide immediate, useful information to participants. The result was a 40 question, easy to score, leadership assessment that participants could use to graphically depict their score in eight key leadership factors. After four pilot tests, two factor analyses, use in seven institutions and over 900 participants, the authors developed the Individual Leadership Factors Inventory Wheel (ILFIW).
Background

The ILFIW focuses on eight key leadership factors that have been identified by research as critical leadership factors these factors include: decision-making, impact, empowerment efficacy, communication, empathy, integrity, determination and confidence. Originally, the authors developed the instrument around six key leadership factors synthesized by Northouse (2010) from a review of extant literature. Northouse identified intelligence, confidence, charisma, determination, integrity, and sociability (Northouse, 2010). In addition, the authors added leadership efficacy and decision-making efficacy based on works from Northouse (2010), Avolio (2010), and Bass (1990). After 4 pilot tests and 2 factor analyses, the resulting factors shifted slightly to the aforementioned factors. The ILFIW factors strive to capture a comprehensive leadership glimpse into an individual. Empowerment efficacy is defined as an individual’s efficacy relating to their perceived capability to empower others. Empathy is a measure of an individual’s perceived ability to vicariously relate with the feelings, thoughts and attitudes of others. Decision-making is defined as an individual’s ability to make decisions and impact is an individual’s perceived ability to take charge. Communication is a measure of an individual’s perceived comfort in talking and sharing with others, and determination is a measure of an individual’s persistence and focus. Confidence is a measure of the strength of an individual’s certainty related to competencies and skills and integrity is a measure of the ethics and moral certitude of the individual.

The ILFIW asks participants to provide their self-perceptions of their abilities using a one-page 40 question assessment. After completing the instrument, participants record their own scores and develop a mean score for each leadership factor. They are then asked to plot these means on a wheel to develop a visual representation of their leadership factors. Participant results commonly display a wide variety of wheel-like shapes, depending on their scores. In use with classes, the authors typical see some wheel-like shapes with flats (sections of the wheel that are noticeably low) and some bubbles (sections where the participants score noticeably higher on the leadership factors). These flats and bubbles provide excellent opportunities to engage in discussions around the importance of the factors, the results and action items/plans to develop the factors.

The purpose of this session is to introduce participants to the ILFIW, allow them to use it, provide time for them to actively discuss in a think-pair-share format and model to the participants how the authors use this tool in a classroom or group setting.

Description of the Practice

This session will be organized in the following manner.

Introduction of the tool

The authors will spend 5 minutes detailing the creation of the tool. They will discuss the identification of the eight factors, the factorial validity and reliability of the factors, development of the tool and the use of the wheel. The authors will highlight the terms “flat” and “bubble” as descriptive terms they use in class settings to describe the individual differences in the shape of the wheel.
**Participant practice**
The participants will then be given 10 minutes to complete the leadership assessment and begin analyzing their own abilities in the eight factors. In 10 minutes, the participants will take and score their own instrument along with creating a personalized graphical depiction of the leadership factors.

**Participant discussion**
After each participant has completed the assessment, generated scores and completed their wheel, they will conduct a 5 minute think-pair-share with another audience member. They will be asked to examine their wheel for any flats or bubbles. Once they identify these areas they will be asked to share with their partner why they think they have a flat or bubble, how this is evident in their leadership and how they might work on or capitalize on a flat or bubble.

**Authors’ suggestions & Comments/Questions/Practical uses**
The authors will then highlight how they use the ILFIW in group settings, with whom they have used it and identify benefits and potential challenges associated with using the wheel. The authors will then allow for a 5 minute group discussion and the sharing of ideas relating to the tool. Considerations will be given to suggestions for improving the instrument, improving the delivery in a small group and practical ideas for using the tool. Upon completion, the audience will have gone through the whole instrument, developed a personal wheel, analyzed the wheel and be positioned to share ideas in relation to the process.

**Projected time length**
To do an adequate job with the delivery of this innovate practice session, the authors are requesting a 30 minute session. A 30 minute session will allow the participants to participate, engage, reflect, and refine.

**Foreseeable Implications**
Participants will leave this session with a potential tool they could implement in classrooms or small group meetings. They will be familiar with the tool, will have used it, will have the chance to interact with other participants and ask questions of the authors of the instrument. Due to the practicality of the assessment and the wide-variety of uses, the participants will gain a useful tool to foster leadership awareness and leadership growth in others.

**Recommended Next Steps**
The authors will ask the participants to consider using the instrument in small group settings. They will however ask that if it is used, the ALE participant send a brief summary of the use and include any suggestions for improvement. The authors will compile suggestions for improvement, refine the use of the tool and present the refined steps via a 2014 ALE poster (pending development and acceptance). As a result of this process, the practical use of the ILFIW will be improved.
References


Exploring the Congruence in Values between Individuals and Organizations

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Abstract
Leadership educators prepare students for future careers with various organizations. Facilitating students’ understanding of congruence between their individual values and organizational values is important to the long-term success of their career. Examples of assignments designed to help students understand the congruence of individual and organizational values will be shared with participants.

Introduction
Congruence in values among organizations and individuals has been found to lead to significant payoffs for both the individual and the organization. Shared values can result in significant differences in work attitudes and performance including: encouraging ethical behavior, reducing levels of job stress and tension, facilitating understanding of job expectations, and fostering teamwork and esprit de corps (Kouzes & Posner, 1997). Some organizations like Zappos actually hire and fire employees based on how well they share the same values as the organization (Fass, 2012). Zappos founder, Tony Hsieh asserts that the company has passed on employees who are really smart and talented who they knew would make an immediate impact, but that would not be good for the culture of their business. Performance evaluations are also based in part on how well employees are inspiring the Zappos culture in others.

Individuals should be prepared to make choices about organizations and the fit between their values and those of the organization. Researchers have found strong support in value congruence. Leaders have positive attitudes about their work environment and practices of their organization if they believe the fit between the organization and their individual self-image is aligned (Posner & Schmidt, 1993). Adkins, Ravlin, and Meglino (1996) found that value congruence was positively related to work habits and personal characteristics such as dependability, punctuality, and cooperation with other organizational members. Likewise, employees are more satisfied and committed to the organization if they share similar values (Ostroff, Shin, & Kinicki, 2005). According to Kouzes and Posner (1997, p. 219), “better to explore early the fit between person and organization than to have members find out late some sleepless night that they’re in violent disagreement over matters of principle.”
Background
As leadership educators, we should help students understand the significance of shared values. Students taking leadership courses hopefully have the intention of being in a leadership position one day. Even if they do not go directly into a leadership position after graduation, they will be in a followership role and work for an organization. Researching the values of the organization they may be leading or working for will be critical for their success. Fostering an understanding and appreciation of an organization’s values can enable them to make smart career decisions.

All leadership students should evaluate the degree of congruence between self and organization. The Value Congruence Model (Liedtka, 1989) may be used to measure the level of congruence in values between an individual and a given organization. In making decisions, the level of consonance or contention between value systems has the potential to cause harmony or conflict. Liedtka’s (1989) model is a four quadrant representation that projects a variety of scenarios in decision-making (Figure 1).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Individual Values</th>
<th>Organizational Values</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Contending</td>
<td>Consonant</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I Personal Conflict</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consonant</td>
<td>II Personal Conflict</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Organization Uncertainty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>III Absence of Conflict</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>IV Organizational Uncertainty</td>
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*Figure 1. The Value Congruence Model. (Liedtka, 1989)*

Quadrant I is characterized by conflicting personal values of individuals. In quadrant II, individuals experience internal value conflict and the organization is experiencing value uncertainty. Quadrant III represents a state of equilibrium: individual and organizational values are stable but they may be competing. In quadrant IV, the organization is experiencing value conflict. When an individual is in a state of contention, they are experiencing internal struggles with their espoused values and values in action. When an organization is uncertain of its values, mixed messages are sent to members regarding the culture and behavior of the organization. Ideally, congruence between individual values and organizational values is found in Quadrant III. Congruence leads to higher member performance and commitment to overall organizational purpose.

Students must be able to interpret the values of an organization and understand how their espoused values are put into practice. They must know how the organization’s values influence their specific job role and how they ultimately contribute to the success of the organization (Kouzes & Posner, 1997). In an introductory course, students are making decisions about their future career. As they begin to envision and work toward their future career, being able to assess the values of organizations they may one day work for may determine the success of their long-term career.
Description of the Practice or Discussion/Interaction

In an introductory leadership course at [university], students have the opportunity to evaluate and illustrate an organization’s values and analyze whether or not the organization might be a good fit for them. In this session, the presenters will provide descriptions of two alternative course assignments designed to facilitate students’ understanding of an organization’s values. Through these assignments, students explore the values in an organization, evaluate those values, and illustrate the organization’s values.

The first assignment is designed to help students reflect on the values of their university and how the university purposefully exhibits these values. Students spend one class period at a location where the values are explicitly defined reflecting on four questions. Following reflection, students evaluate their university’s values and rank them in order of importance.

A second assignment is intended for students to evaluate the congruence between their personal values and the values of an organization/company where they aspire to work. Students research an organization’s value statements, make the comparison to their own principles, and then evaluate the importance of each individual organizational value as it relates to the purpose of the organization. Through analysis and evaluation, students also evaluate the organization’s behaviors and determine their continued aspiration to become a member in the organization.

Foreseeable Implications

Participants will leave the session with an activity designed to facilitate student reflection of shared values. Presenters will share examples of the products students have created using the structure of these assignments. By attending this session, leadership educators will be able to better facilitate activities on examining individual and organizational values and determining the level of congruence between values.

Recommended Next Steps

These assignments are intended for students in introductory leadership courses. The study of values is often linked to different courses including personal leadership, organizational leadership, and ethics. How can these assignments be further developed to help students integrate their learning of values content? If time permits in session, participants may brainstorm ways to add to these assignments to make them applicable to other courses students will take as they progress in their leadership coursework.

References


Infusing Leadership Insight and Development into Business Economics

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Abstract
The purpose of this research is to assess the effect of infusing leadership principles into business economics, a core undergraduate course commonly found in undergraduate business curricula. The textbooks for this course typically take one of two different approaches; optimal managerial decision making using either quantitative methods or an industrial organizational approach. Infusing elements of leadership into a quantitative-oriented course allows the marriage of the hard skills related to effective managerial decision making with the softer leadership skills that are necessary to realize an organization’s broader goals. Using a self-assessment inventory, the objective of this pedagogical project was to determine if the inclusion of leadership elements throughout the course produced significant changes in students’ perceptions of their own leadership orientation and skill development. More specifically, our interest is on students’ growth in the areas of authentic leadership, courageous leadership, and ethical leadership. This practice session will discuss the tools and methods used in the leadership infusion, as well as pre- and post-test results. In addition, participants will be offered the chance to complete the leadership self-assessment inventory.

Introduction
Business Economics is common to almost every undergraduate business core curriculum and is generally taught using one of two approaches. The first approach can generally be described as a quantitative approach towards optimal managerial decision making; for example, using revenue and cost functions to determine the optimal amount of labor to hire, the optimal price to charge, and the optimal amount to produce. The second, but less common approach is to consider the optimal managerial decision making from more of an industrial organizational approach. Textbooks rarely attempt to merge these two schools of thought. In this study, we explore the effect of infusing leadership into a business economics course taught from the quantitative perspective. Incorporating the leadership theme in the course allows one to marry the hard skills of effective managerial decision making with the softer leadership skills that are necessary to realize an organization’s broader goals. In other words, the quantitative approach generally assumes that there are expert incentive structures within the firm; employees are motivated to work to their fullest potential, and so on. Incorporating leadership into this course requires students to explore this much more deeply and develop an understanding of the
broader managerial skill set needed to establish such a working environment from a leadership perspective.

Given the modification to the course and different pedagogical approach, the objective is to determine if there are significant changes in students’ perceptions of their own leadership skill development. Included in this new teaching approach are course readings that address leadership issues such as ethics, attending to follower and stakeholder needs, and adopting a higher level of societal responsibility; and quantitative homework assignments that reinforce these concepts through problem-solving exercises. More specifically, our interest is whether exposure to and engagement with these infusions is accompanied by students’ growth in the areas of authentic leadership, courageous leadership, and ethical leadership. In an effort to quantify and capture this potential growth, we have development a self-assessment inventory that will be given to students as a ‘pre-test’ before introducing them to the leadership related themes and assignments. At the conclusion of the course the students will be asked to complete the same self-assessment as a ‘post-test’ to identify any changes or growth in their leadership skills.

Background

Leadership, or the process of influencing others towards the attainment of some common purpose or goal, is typically studied in one of three general organizational contexts. At the macro-level, the foci of leadership are activities that have broad scale impact across the organization, such as establishing mission and vision, articulating strategy, fostering a particular organizational culture. Generally speaking, at the mezzo-level, leadership typically entails more face-to-face interpersonal activities such as motivating and inspiring, managing conflict, and providing coaching and development. While the macro and mezzo levels by definition include leadership in the context of others, the micro level squarely focuses on the leader him or herself as the unit of analysis. At the heart of a micro-level of analysis are a leader’s core values, philosophy, and general orientation towards leadership. One such particularly popular construct is authentic leadership, which essentially refers to a form of leadership that is predicated on deep and accurate self awareness and geared towards promoting the best interests of others (Avolio et al., 2007). Related but distinct micro-level constructs are ethics, or doing what is morally right (Brown et al., 2005), and moral courage, a willingness to do what is morally right in the face of opposition or conflict (Daft, 2005). These three constructs, are particularly important because they essentially form the foundation of and fundamental orientation towards leadership at the mezzo- and macro-levels. As the goal of undergraduate educators is not only to prepare their students for successful post-graduate success but to also ensure that the latter engage in their careers with a mindset that promotes responsibility and orientation towards the broader societal good, infusion of these elements into core courses offers itself as a potentially powerful pedagogical intervention.

Description of the Practice or Discussion/Interaction

The proposed session will provide an overview of the study and share the assessment results, with a focus on any changes in student growth in the three areas of leadership considered; authentic, courageous, and ethical leadership. During the session, the pedagogical approaches to infusing
leadership into the course will be shared in addition to the specific leadership assignments. More in-depth explanations of the ethical leadership, moral courage, and authentic leadership constructs will be provided, as will an invitation for session participants to take the leadership self-assessment inventory for their own self insights.

**Foreseeable Implications**
This session can offer a few different benefits to the session participants. First, by taking the leadership self-assessment inventory, participants can gain insight into his/her leadership orientation and skills in the areas of authentic, courageous, and ethical leadership. Second, by learning how leadership was infused into a course that traditionally did not include this focus, session participants may consider other courses in their departments in which leadership could be infused. By sharing the leadership-related assignments used in the course, it is our hope that some participants will be able to modify these assignments to fit into other courses that do not have a leadership focus or theme. From a broad perspective, this is a different approach to teaching business economics and if we are successful in marrying the hard skills with the soft skills of effective management, we can offer an improved pedagogical approach to this course.

**Recommended Next Steps**
As the current study provides preliminary evidence for the viability and effectiveness of infusing leadership in an otherwise nonleadership-based course, future steps in this research will involve increasing the sample size of students and in a variety of different courses. Participants will be invited to use the survey materials created in this study, as a means of pooling data for further analyses.

Although it may require some creativity, there are opportunities to infuse elements of leadership (macro, mezzo as well as micro) into any academic course. Participants will be encouraged to think about how they might be able to infuse elements in their own courses that dovetail with the natural course content; such a pedagogical approach not only brings leadership awareness into ‘regular’ courses, but also highlights how many leadership principles are naturally intertwined with the subject material to begin with. As such, students will be in a better position to not only go forward with course content knowledge, but also better prepared for applying whether they are in formal or informal leadership roles.
References


Leadership That Settled the Frontier

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Abstract
This practice session explores the leadership lessons displayed by the characters of Louis L’Amour’s western novels. Western fiction can be a powerful tool to engage students and demonstrate many leadership theories and models. Participants will receive a paperback edition of one of L’Amour’s novels to use as we immerse ourselves in a character of the old west and examine his/her values, personal vision, and moral development as demonstrated through his/her actions. Participants will leave with an appreciation of western literature and a tool that can help students see leadership in a new light.

Background
The use of popular media as a leadership education and development tool is well documented (Abbott, 2010; Bogarosh & Andenoro, 2009; Graham, Ackermann, & Maxwell, 2004; Hall, 2010; Loughman & Finley, 2010). Leadership instructors often use movies and television shows, as well as music to illustrate leadership theories and concepts in action. Loughman and Finley (2010) even suggest that literature, such as Beowulf, can yield valuable leadership lessons.

Bennis and O’Toole (2005) argue that business schools have lost their way. They foster the idea that students can learn a great deal about leadership through literary fiction. Some business schools have successfully adopted this concept. In his management text, Badaracco (2006) addresses complex issues that leaders face, such as the soundness of their vision, their readiness to take on responsibility, the depth of their compassion, and their ability to manage success, all through the analysis of characters from popular literature. Can the characters in works of fiction also serve as role models for budding leaders?

Author Louis L’Amour published more than 125 works of western fiction. His most notable books follow the Sackett family as they emigrate from Europe to settle the American continent. His tales follow the Sackett family as each generation moves further west, opening our growing country. His characters possessed those traits necessary to settle the American frontier. They were the leaders of their era. What if today’s leaders were from Louis L’Amour westerns? What leadership traits/characteristics would they have?

Description of the Practice
I first realized the value of L’Amour’s western novels as I described an ethics assignment to my students. They were to identify an artifact that is used to teach or reinforce moral behavior (Boyd & Williams, 2012). Examples of ethical artifacts include children’s books, family stories,
sports, fables, or even fortune cookies. Having read more than 125 of L’Amour’s novels (most of them multiple times), it dawned on me that many of my leadership behaviors and beliefs could be traced back to the characters of his novels. Repetitive reading of his novels had ingrained in me the attitude that hard work leads to success, treat everyone with respect, a sense of duty to my community, the importance of family, and standing for your values. L’Amour’s novels were the artifact that reinforced the values taught to me by my family and community.

L’Amour’s characters exhibit many traits of effective leaders. They have a clear vision for their communities, are authentic, and act in a transformational way towards their followers. Listed below are several leadership topics and one or more of L’Amour’s characters that serve as examples for leadership students.

Education/Learning
Most of L’Amour’s characters had no formal education, yet all hungered for knowledge. Western men hungered for education, reading whatever they could find. Common reading in the west included the Bible, Blackstone’s Commentaries on Law, and classics such as Shakespeare (L’Amour, 1961). Since books were rare (and heavy to transport), those that could be read over and over were preferred. Tennyson, Ivanhoe, and Robinson Crusoe were staples (L’Amour, 1982). Most of L’Amour’s characters were self-educated.

Appreciation of Diversity
L’Amour’s characters embraced other cultures. His characters hunted with and lived among the Cherokee and other tribes, borrowing from their culture and learning the skills needed to survive the harsh conditions of the frontier. His characters consistently judged others based on their character and not the color of their skin or country of origin.

In Over on the Dry Side, young Doby makes a generalization about Indians. Borden Chantry instructs him, “You can’t talk about all Indians the same way, boy. Anytime a man comes along and says ‘Indians’ or ‘Mexicans’ or ‘Englishmen’ he’s bound to be wrong. Each man is a person unto himself, and you’ll find good, bad, and indifferent wherever you go” (L’Amour, 1975, p. 24).

Strong/Independent Women (Heroines)
The women of L’Amour’s novels are strong leadership role models. They break from the traditional roles of women of the era. They are independent and resourceful, struggling to be successful in a man’s world. In The Cherokee Trail (L’Amour, 1982), Mary Breydon takes over the management of a remote stage station. She not only has to deal with Indians and thieves who try to steal her livestock, but also the discriminatory attitude of the regional manager of the stage company. She has to be able to do everything a man can do, but do it better to be accepted.

While skulking through the mountains looking for the Apache rancheria where his nephew was being held, Tell Sackett (The Lonely Men) encountered Dorset, a young girl who was hunting her
little sister, also a captive of the Apaches. Dorset could move through the country as quietly as any Apache – she had learned how to survive in the harsh west (L’Amour, 1969).

**Authenticity**
L’Amour’s characters were builders, not destroyers. They were rarely religious, but maintained moral values. They lived by a moral code that included never harming women, giving a full day’s work for your wages, being self-reliant, and keeping your word. Trevallion, in *Comstock Lode*, delivered a mule-train of gold despite being severely wounded by Indians and being overdue by a month (L’Amour, 1981). Not an ounce of gold was missing. In *Sackett’s Land*, Flanigan and Galloway Sackett were building new lives in the West. When their father died, they returned home to Tennessee to pay his debt to a local store owner. Upon paying the debt, they turned around and headed back out West to continue building a better life. There father’s debt was a Sackett debt and had to be repaid.

**Valued Family**
L’Amour’s characters had a strong sense of the importance of family. This was exhibited the most with the Sackett family. If a Sackett needed help, all other Sacketts came running. Family members need not have ever met each other to come to each other’s aid. This value extended to neighbors as well. If someone had ever done a kindness to a Sackett, they could expect the kindness to be repaid if they were ever in need.

When Tell Sackett was in trouble (*Sackett’s Brand*), family members came from across the country to help him. When Orlando Sackett heard that a Sackett was in trouble, he left immediately – from El Paso to Arizona (L’Amour, 1965). Nolan Sackett wore out three horses going to help Tell (L’Amour, 1965). All Sacketts came running.

**Perseverance**
Many of L’Amour’s characters left their homes to start over in new lands – even though they knew it would be hard. They had a strong work ethic. Tell Sackett states emphatically, “...I’ll not quit. It ain’t because I’ve got more nerve than the next man, it’s just that I’m not very smart. Nobody ever taught me when was the time to quit” (L’Amour, 1965, p. 99). Borden Chantry’s mother was a Sackett. He proudly states, “We Chantrys have a failing, we like to finish what we start. I know the history of my family for 200 years the way you know the trail to Santa Fe. And we’ve always finished what we started, or died in the trying” (L’Amour, 1975, p. 60).

**Recommendation**
Western fiction has the potential to engage students who may not see the relevance of many leadership theories or models. L’Amour’s characters exhibit many leadership traits, behaviors, and skills that were just as essential in building our nation as they are in today’s boardroom. L’Amour’s novels have sparked an interest in reading for many students in directed studies projects that, in turn, led them to read other generas and reflect on the leadership lessons
contained within. I invite leadership educators, as well as leadership students, to delve into the world of Louis L’Amour and explore the leadership lessons his characters have to offer.

References


Learning the Five Dysfunctions of a Team with Cool Runnings

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Abstract

Teams are often subjected to a plethora of potential dysfunctions that could derail individuals from achieving success. Leadership skills can be gained and improved from reflection on prior experience. However, some students do not have a personal experience to reflect upon. The in-class assignment (analyzing the film Cool Runnings) guides students through an experience that highlights the five dysfunctions of a team. Furthermore, students are required to answer questions related to each dysfunction area. Once the film is viewed, the facilitator engages students in reflective questioning and builds an understanding of content knowledge of dysfunctions related to team productivity.

Introduction and Background

Students enter an organized, educational environment and are encouraged to entertain the concept of teamwork. While constantly being forced to utilize teamwork, there is often an absence of clear instruction as to how teams should function and potential pitfalls to avoid. In addition, a negative attitude can be formed toward the idea of teamwork because of the lack of understanding of team dynamics that are a basic outcome of human interaction (Levi, 2011). Since teams are created to accomplish tasks that individuals cannot accomplish alone, teams need to be able to function properly to obtain the desired outcome of the work assigned to the team. Lencioni (2005) argues that teamwork are a competitive advantage that is still misunderstood and untapped in industry simply because teamwork is much harder to understand. Additionally, Lencioni’s (2005) approach suggests that team leadership learning can occur from not just the pursuit of the proper functions but also by learning to avoid the dysfunctions of team leadership.

Learning to lead in a team setting can be challenging but one activity that makes team leadership learning effective is for a student to reflect on team leadership experience. It is often hard for students to completely remove themselves from their personal experiences in order to properly reflect and not all students come to the classroom with equal experiences for reflection. In order to provide students an opportunity to properly reflect on team leadership dysfunctions, a film is provided that aligns with each of the five dysfunctions. Additionally, the film (Cool Runnings) provides students a way to gain access to the same information presented via lecture in the classroom through another medium (Neilson, Pillai, & Watson, 2003). Students have an opportunity to view and learn about abstract leadership type behaviors and concepts through observable characters and scenes. In addition, the instructor is able to extend the same information to those with different learning styles and even use humor and
entertainment to reach learners (Neilson, Pillai, & Watson, 2003). Reaching students who have different learning styles with a creative approach to teaching is crucial for learning and understanding (R. Sims & S. Sims, 1995). Students often overlook their own experiences when asked for leadership reflection. This film analysis gives them the opportunity to view and reflect on leadership actions. Neilson, Pillai, & Watson (2003) even suggest that using film can increase overall student interest in the course material and appeal to a variety of senses that classroom experiences often omit.

The purpose of this session is to help other leadership educators find a unique way to teach, Overcoming the Five Dysfunctions of a Team utilizing the film Cool Runnings. This could be used in an introduction to leadership course, team leadership course or even an advanced leadership theory course. The specific objectives of this session are to: 1) provide participants with an understanding of using text and film to compliment one another in a leadership education classroom (specifically the given text and film); 2) provide participants with all materials needed to recreate this leadership activity in their classroom or setting; and 3) discuss ways to alter the activity to fit participant needs or improve the overall outcome of helping participants learn components of team leadership.

Description of the Practice or Discussion/Interaction
Agricultural Leadership, Education and Communications (ALEC) 103 course focuses on leadership interactions in groups and teams. Students function as small teams the entire semester and one of the most favorite leadership activities in the course via students’ responses is analyzing the film Cool Runnings. Participants in this session will gain knowledge of how to implement this practice into a classroom as a team leadership training experience. For ease of discussion, participants will be provided with copies of the guiding questions for each section of the Overcoming the Five Dysfunctions of a Team text. In addition, timestamps for the film sections that align with the proper dysfunction will also be provided.

Foreseeable Implications
Expectations of the course activity are to help students understand and avoid basic pitfalls of team leadership. Session participants can directly benefit by taking away an instantly implementable leadership learning activity applicable for most leadership classrooms. Additionally, participants will have a better understanding of the Overcoming the Five Dysfunctions of a Team text and how to implement film as a learning activity in the classroom.

Recommended Next Steps
Post discussion, session participants will have a clear concept of how to implement the learning experience. During the session, participants will be provided with all materials (excluding the text and film) needed to implement the learning experience into their syllabus and/or classroom. Discussion will be encouraged in order to improve the activity based on similar experiences from session participants. Discussion leader’s contact information will be provided should any participant choose to implement the activity and need assistance. Additionally, session participants who implement the activity will be asked to provide feedback to the discussion leader as to how the activity worked in their given classrooms or setting.
References


Appendix A: Practice Session Proposal Review Form

Indicate your evaluation by marking an X in the appropriate box (SA-strongly agree, A-agree, D-disagree, SD-strongly disagree). Please include comments providing objective remarks and/or suggestions for improvement.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Submission Evaluation</th>
<th>SA</th>
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<th>Comments</th>
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<tr>
<td>1. The content of the proposal will have practical or research applications that would be of interest to ALE members.</td>
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<td>2. The proposal adds to the body of knowledge in leadership education and provokes thought among ALE conference participants.</td>
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<td>3. The problem/idea proposed is clear and concise.</td>
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<td>4. The author links the proposal to existing literature/discussion in the field of leadership education.</td>
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<td>5. The discussion is sufficiently developed and relevant.</td>
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<td>6. The author’s findings, conclusions and/or recommendations are sufficiently justified, linked to the review of literature, and presented concisely.</td>
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<td>7. The proposal is written clearly (grammar, organization, flow)</td>
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Overall Evaluation  
Accept and nominate for outstanding proposal  
Accept for presentation  
Accept with minor revisions  
Not acceptable for presentation  

Reviewer Rating  
Comments  

Resilient Leader-Teachers: The Influence of Adaptive Leadership and Case-in-Point Methodology on Faculty Culture and Community

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Abstract
This practice paper reframes teaching as exercising leadership and teachers as leaders. Specifically, we focus on Kansas State University’s experiences integrating adaptive leadership (Heifetz, Grashow, & Linsky, 2009) into a leadership minor curriculum. Adaptive leadership theory lends itself to the use of case-in-point strategy (Parks, 2005), in which the classroom becomes a learning laboratory where students and teachers “do” leadership. The faculty teaching team has been challenged to exercise adaptive leadership practices as they seek to make progress not only on the courses they are teaching, but also through their various roles and responsibilities within their school and across campus. This session will unpack the culture-shaping effects of the case-in-point method on not only teacher resiliency, but also on a teacher's adaptive professional growth.

Introduction
Posner (2009) asserts that learning leadership should not be restricted to a classroom. Rather, educators must design learning experiences that allow students the opportunity to “do” leadership (p. 8). Middlebrooks and Allen (2009) highlight the unique challenges for leadership educators, one of which is the “highly overlapping connections between theory and practice (p. ix). How do we teach students about leadership while offering them opportunities to exercise leadership? We believe to answer this question we must also explore the overlapping connections between theory and teaching pedagogy. Do our educational practices - both in and out of the classroom - embody the theories of leadership we are teaching to students? Are we (faculty) exercising the practices of leadership that we desire to develop in students?

This practice paper reframes teaching as exercising leadership and teachers as leaders. Specifically, we focus in on Kansas State University’s experiences integrating the text, The Practice of Adaptive
Leadership (Heifetz, Grashow, & Linsky, 2009) into a leadership minor curriculum. Adaptive leadership theory is directly modeled through case-in point strategy (Parks, 2005), which challenges traditional perspectives of authority in the classroom. As a result, the faculty teaching team has been challenged to exercise adaptive leadership practices as they seek to make progress not only on the course they are teaching, but within their larger community of practice.

Background

“Case-in-point ... provides a teaching method that more realistically prepares people to have stamina, resilience and a willingness to work with others in the heat of change in order to adapt, because ‘to lead is to live dangerously.’” (Johnstone & Fern, 2010, p. 98)

It’s widely understood that our world needs resilient leaders who can adapt to ever changing social, political, environmental, and economic contexts. Adaptive leadership theory frames leadership as the activity of making progress on adaptive challenges, which are tough issues that are too complex to be solved through technical solutions alone (Heifetz et al., 2009). The practice of adaptive leadership involves an overlapping set of concepts and strategies for mobilizing people toward collective purposes (2009). Case-in-point is a method of experiential learning through which these strategies are modeled and practiced inside the classroom.

Parks (2005) outlined the “case-in-point” (CIP) methodology as developed by Ronald Heifetz and colleagues at the Harvard Kennedy School. In this approach to learning adaptive leadership, the students’ own experiences, including the classroom itself, become a leadership laboratory (Parks, 2009). Green (2011) suggested that, “Leadership, although difficult to teach, can be learned in a dynamic classroom setting when participants experience, in the moment, some of the very conditions that make exercising leadership so challenging ... in the public sphere” (p. 8). Characterized as both taxing and transforming (Green, 2011), CIP methodology also helps educators to “generate a heightened awareness of themselves, their impact, and the systems they are a part of” (Johnstone & Fern, 2010, p. 98).

Integrating adaptive leadership theory to enhance the Kansas State School of Leadership Studies mission of “Developing knowledgeable, ethical, caring, and inclusive leaders for a diverse and changing world” has been significant in guiding our work for the past four years. The School adopted the text, The Practice of Adaptive Leadership (Heifetz, et al., 2009), as the focus of LEAD 405: Leadership in Practice - a core course within our undergraduate leadership minor offered to more than 200 junior and senior level students annually. The integration of case-in-point as the method of instruction has challenged the way we traditionally viewed leadership education, moving from discussing leadership as a principle or responding authoritatively to examining what it means to truly exercise leadership.

Our LEAD 405 faculty teaching team has certainly experienced a heightened awareness of our own beliefs about authority and leadership in the context of the academic classroom. Giving up control in order to allow students to exercise leadership by “working the issues in the room” is a fundamental
intervention in CIP teaching (Green, 2011, p. 10). Adaptive principles such as “giving the work back”, “holding steady”, “acknowledging casualties”, and “raising the heat” are modeled through classroom practices that allow students to “make progress” on important challenges they face individually and collectively. This can be disorienting to students and teachers who are used to the teacher-authority providing “protection, direction, and order” (Green, 2011). Instead, teacher-leaders are challenged to resist the urge to provide answers or closure. They must “manage self” in the authority role, while creating a community of learning and challenging students to get into and stay in the “productive zone of disequilibrium” (Green, 2011). Instructors have found they must now navigate issues of ethics and “loss” more frequently than in traditional classroom settings.

The purpose of this practice session is to describe and dialogue on the adaptive challenge of using case-in-point methodology, with a specific focus on lessons learned related to faculty professional development and organizational culture.

**Description of Practice**
What has this new learning meant for our faculty and our school? Important to the process was not only learning about the content and method, but practicing it in our own communities. We have observed that adaptive leadership and CIP practices have emerged from our faculty team meetings and permeated into our school’s culture by shaping our language, our interactions, and our approach to identifying challenges and making progress on tough issues. In this practice session we will:

1. Provide a brief overview of adaptive leadership terminology and case-in-point methodology, highlighting the overlapping nature of theory and practice;
2. Highlight several observations and interpretations from the classroom and individual student coaching that have resulted in our own experimentation as adaptive leader-teachers;
3. Generate dialogue around the professional development needs of our teaching team, and describe how case-in-point is used for one-on-one debriefs, in team meetings, or even around the proverbial “water cooler”; and,
4. Describe how adaptive leadership has shaped our faculty culture, and provided us with a broader philosophy on “making progress” on tough challenges within our teaching team, in our course, and for our school.

**Implications & Recommendations**
We believe this session will offer insights on faculty learning, problem solving, and practice related to teaching an adaptive leadership course, as well as illustrate how educators can make progress as leaders in our various roles in departments, campuses, and communities. We believe that to truly “teach” adaptive leadership - or help students “learn it” - you have to live it. That’s what is exciting about utilizing case-in-point methodology. It’s more than just teaching a class - it’s embracing a mindset and embodying a language and set of adaptive leadership practices that challenge us to expand our beliefs.
about what a teacher of leadership does. This often involves risk, some discomfort and expanding personal bandwidth as the leader-teacher.

Whether you are a lone teacher in a department who champions this theory, or like us - a team of teachers who work together - we believe there is an opportunity to practice adaptive leadership in the classroom, in work, in personal lives, and in relationships. As it becomes a more authentic part of who we are as educators, we are better able to model the practices in such a way that students are challenged to experience leadership in the classroom. Our experiences prompt further exploration of the overlapping nature of leadership theory and practice, which has the potential to contribute to what we know about student leadership development, but also surfaces a gap in the literature related to leadership educator identity and professional development needs.

References


Resiliently Complex: Deconstructing Complexity Leadership Theory through Experiential Pedagogies

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Amanda B. Cutchens, Ph.D.
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Abstract
This practice session showcases innovative active learning and experiential instructional strategies to introduce Complexity Leadership Theory and Complex Adaptive Systems to leadership studies students. In this session, experienced leadership educators will simplify this dynamic theory and demonstrate experiential activities for delivering this content to leadership studies students. Specifically, facilitators will demonstrate two brief, interactive classroom-based role-play activities designed to activate the connection between these complex leadership theories and practice. Then, facilitators will highlight best practices and lead participants in a focused discussion and debrief. Participants should expect a fun, boisterous, and lighthearted atmosphere and be ready to get involved in the action.

Introduction
Complexity Leadership Theory (CLT) is now more commonplace in the leadership literature (e.g., Darling, 2012; Uhl-Bien & Marion, 2009; Uhl-Bien, Marion, & McKelvey, 2007). As a result, leadership textbooks are including this complex phenomenon (i.e., DuBrin, 2013); and practitioners, scholars, and students are coming to terms with CLT’s pragmatics. Yet, CLT is not just a “clever name.” The constructs of CLT are difficult to approach and creating a classroom atmosphere conducive to unpacking its usefulness is a challenging endeavor. The purpose of this session is to simplify CLT for leadership educators through the demonstration of experiential pedagogies participants can use in their classrooms and highlight the value of CLT as a framework for studying emergent leadership dynamics in relationship to bureaucratic superstructures.

Background
Experiential pedagogies—processes through which learners construct knowledge, skill, and value from experience (Luckman, 1996)—are widely used in leadership education (Eich, 2012; Jenkins, 2012a). And, perhaps, rightly so. Jenkins (2012b) supports this trend and argues that leadership educators focus more attention on the application of leadership (e.g., identifying uses of leadership models, theories, or approaches in other contexts) than on the foundational
knowledge of leadership (e.g., history and development of leadership models). As a result, it is imperative that leadership educators can effectively facilitate application-based experiential and active learning environments in their classrooms.

This session focuses on CLT and its inherent Complex Adaptive Systems (CAS). The premise of CLT is simple: Under conditions of knowledge production, managers should enable, rather than suppress or align, informal network dynamics (Uhl-Bien, et al., 2007). CLT exists in what Rost (1993 & 2000) referred to as a postindustrial leadership era. Uhl-Bien et al. (2007) and others (i.e., Stacey, Griffin, & Shaw, 2000; Streatfield, 2001) refer to this same era as the Knowledge Era. As such, the unit of analysis for CLT is the CAS—an open system—different from systems that are merely complicated. For example, if a system can be described in terms of its individual constituents (even if there are many), it is merely complicated; if the interactions among the constituents of the system, and the interaction between the system and its environment, are of such a nature that the system as a whole cannot be fully understood simply by analyzing its components, it is complex (e.g., a jumbo jet is complicated, but mayonnaise is complex, Cilliers, 1998).

To describe further, think of a CAS as an organic aggregate of interacting agents that behave/evolve according to three key principles: (a) order is emergent as opposed to predetermined; (b) the system’s history is irreversible (one cannot return a system to a previous state and rerun its trajectory); and (c) the system’s future is often unpredictable (Dooley, 1996). Here, the leader and the system are profoundly interdependent (Darling, 2012). As a result, these systems are able to adapt rapidly and creatively to environmental changes (Uhl-Bien et al., 2007).

How then can organizations capitalize on the benefits of administrative coordination and of complex adaptive dynamics? CLT suggests that the role of managers should not be limited to aligning worker preferences with organizational goals. Rather, managers, particularly under conditions of knowledge production, should act to enable informal emergence and coordinate the contexts within which it occurs. Accordingly, the framework for CLT envisions three leadership functions: (a) adaptive, where leaders act in emergent ways that influence interactive dynamics—and their leadership is recognized as having significance and impact—where significance is the potential usefulness of new, creative knowledge or adaptive ideas and impact refers to the degree to which other agents external to the generative set embrace and use the new knowledge or idea through significance and impact; (b) administrative, where leadership is grounded in traditional, bureaucratic notions of hierarchy, alignment, and control and thus leaders possess the power to make decisions for the organization as well as exercise their authority with consideration of the organization’s need for creativity, learning, and adaptability; and (c) enabling, where leadership structures and enables conditions that optimally address creative problem solving, adaptability, and learning (Uhl-Bien et al., 2007).
In CLT, adaptive, administrative, and enabling leadership functions are intertwined in a manner referred to as “entanglement” (Kontopoulos, 1993). Entanglement describes a dynamic relationship between the formal top-down, administrative forces (i.e., bureaucracy) and the informal, complexly adaptive emergent forces (i.e., CAS) of social systems. Uhl-Bien et al. (2007) suggest that in organizations, administrative and adaptive leadership interact and may help or oppose one another. Administrative leadership can function collaboratively with adaptive leadership or can thwart it with overly authoritarian or bureaucratic control structures. Adaptive leadership can work to augment the strategic needs of administrative leadership, it can rebel against it, or it can act independently. Accordingly, adaptive leaders are adept at recognizing (i.e., “reading”) and engaging with the complex interactive dynamic in which they operate (Uhl-Bien & Marion, 2009, p. 639). The enabling leadership function helps to ameliorate these problems; it serves primarily to enable effective adaptive leadership, but to accomplish this it must tailor the behaviors of administrative and adaptive leadership so they function together.

To illustrate this, Cusumano (2001) suggests the model utilized by Microsoft™ to develop software. Built on interactive workgroups and rule-enabled interdependencies, programmers operate independently and in small groups, but are periodically required to run their code against the code of other programmers. If there are problems, the team must repair the incompatibility before moving on. Microsoft calls this “sync-and-stabilize.” The process imposes interdependency that can create cascading changes and elaboration in Microsoft's software. Microsoft gains the benefit of flexibility, adaptability, speed, and innovation while maintaining coordinated action.

And while the Microsoft model is exemplar, CLT has its own concerns. On the one hand, emergence is the product of informal adaptive behavior that would be hampered by top-down restrictions (Krause, 2004). On the other hand, the need to focus creative behaviors is legitimate; indeed unrestrained adaptive behavior would be expensive to support and could compromise rather than enhance the organization's strategic mission. Nonetheless, enabling leadership should effectively manage conditions consistent with the strategy and mission of the organization by articulating the mission of a project (e.g., Kennedy's mission to put Americans on the moon by 1970; Jaussi & Dionne, 2003). CLT adds (as does Mumford, Bedell-Avers, & Hunter, 2008), however, that such missions should not be so specific that they restrict the creative process. Instead, they should be sufficiently flexible to change with changing conditions.

**Description of the Practice or Discussion/Interaction**

Please see appendices for a complete lesson plan, practice session outline, and learning outcomes.
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 CLT—with practice. Moreover, leadership educators can use role-play activities to facilitate higher participant motivation and satisfaction (Allen & Hartman, 2009), even with complex topics. 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).
References


Appendices
Appendix A. Role-Play Activity

Activity: CAS versus Structured Administrative Groups – How Well Do They Work?

Objectives
The objective of this activity is to understand the experienced differences and dynamics of interdependence between complex adaptive systems (CAS) and structured administrative systems. Additionally, participants will explore group dynamics related to each introduced leadership approach. At the conclusion of the activity, participants should be able to identify administrative, adaptive, and enabling leadership functions as envisioned by the Complexity Leadership Theory (CLT) framework.

Time
Approximately 30 minutes. Time will vary depending on size of group.

Materials
Scrap paper
Markers or pens
Nametags
Handouts 1 & 2

Instructions
Divide the students into small groups of four. Give each group a few sheets of scrap paper and markers or pens. Explain that each group will have a leader, selected by the group, who will communicate a specific assigned task. The group will then have 10 minutes to complete the task. Once the group has selected their leader, evenly distribute Handouts 1 or 2 to each group. Ask the leader to share only the assigned task with the group and then get to work.

Activity Discussion Questions

Ask each group:

1) What was the goal or task assigned to your group?
2) What was your original idea?
3) What was the final product?
4) How did communication play a role in this activity? How does it play a role in leadership?
5) What were some differences between your group members? What group dynamics did you observe?
6) What were the constraints on the group? On the leader?

Ask the larger group:
1) In what ways did your group differ from the others?
2) What did you appreciate about your group or leader? What did you not like?
3) How did the leader’s style impact your ability to reach your goal or complete the task?
4) What were some differences between the groups? Which would you rather be a part of? Why?
5) How is this exercise relevant to leadership?
Instructions:
You are part of a group in the midst of planning a conference. In a prior meeting your group decided on a Mardi Gras theme. Your goal for this ten minute meeting is to make decisions on the following:

1. Food and beverage
2. Decorations
3. One icebreaker within the theme

Each group member will be provided with a role to play in this group. As the leader, you may share only the task and the roles sheets with the group.

You have been elected Conference Chairperson in this structured administrative group. Your leadership style should be authoritarian. Your role is to make sure your group members follow the proper communication protocol in completing this task. You are to exercise efficiency in completing this task because you are on a strict deadline. You must complete this task in 10 minutes.

Roles:

**Food & Drink Chair**: This group member is responsible for ordering enough food and beverages for all conference attendees, communicating with the vendors and site concessions, and keeping all goodies in sync with the conference theme.
- He or she must get approval from you before making a final decision.

**Decorations Chair**: This group member is responsible for designing an atmosphere for the conference that represents its main theme. He or she must choose and purchase all decorations within a very conservative budget.
- He or she must get approval from you for all decoration decisions.

**Activities Director**: This group member is responsible for planning and facilitating activities such as icebreakers and informal workshops for conference attendees. However, their role does not include the coordination of workshops or sessions put on by conference attendees.
- He or she must get approval from you prior to making a final decision on the icebreaker.
Instructions:
You are part of a group in the midst of planning a conference. In a prior meeting your group decided on a Mardi Gras theme. Your goal for this ten minute meeting is to make decisions on the following:

1. Food and beverage
2. Decorations
3. One icebreaker within the theme

Each group member will be provided with a role to play in this group. As the leader, you may share only the task and the roles sheets with the group.

You have been elected Conference Chairperson in this complex adaptive system (CAS). Your leadership style should be participative. You are interdependent from the group and it is vital that you empower the interdependence amongst your group members as well. Your role is to facilitate the group’s progress in completing this task. You should welcome new ideas, creativity, and foster interaction and motivation among group members. To the best of your ability, you should be adaptive, enabling, and encouraging, but you also need to ensure the group stays on task. Try to complete this task in 10 minutes.

Throughout the group’s progress, you should introduce some obstacles in order to challenge their creativity. You may use some of the following examples:

- **Food and Drink**
  - The venue just emailed and notified us that there is no alcohol allowed.

- **Decorations**
  - A conference presenter just emailed to say she suffers from a condition called Maskaphobia, a fear of masks. Please do not use masks in the decorations.
  - The venue just called and only approved the use of green and gold; purple and yellow are not permitted due to marketing issues.

- **Activities**
  - The venue just emailed and notified us that there is a restrain on space, chairs, and amplification. Please consider this in your activity.
Roles:

**Food & Drink Chair:** This group member is responsible for ordering enough food and beverages for all conference attendees, communicating with the vendors and site concessions, and keeping all goodies in sync with the conference theme.

  - He or she is encouraged to bounce ideas off other members of the team, engage in collaborative creative discussion, and the final decision is his or hers.

**Decorations Chair:** This group member is responsible for designing an atmosphere for the conference that represents its main theme. They must choose and purchase all decorations within a very conservative budget.

  - He or she has been given the freedom to choose how to apply the Mardi Gras theme in each setting of the conference. He or she is welcome to collaborate with both the Food and Drink Chair and the Activities Director for ideas, as well as how their ideas fit into your overall vision for the conference theme.

**Activities Director:** This group member is responsible for planning and facilitating activities such as icebreakers and informal workshops for conference attendees. However, their role does not include the coordination of workshops or sessions put on by conference attendees.

  - His or her approach is to be as creative as he or she wishes as long as the activities relate to the overall theme of the conference. Like the Food & Drink Chair, he or she is encouraged to bounce ideas off other members of the team, engage in collaborative creative discussion, and the final decision is his or hers.
ADMINISTRATIVE GROUP ROLES

Food & Drink Chair: You are responsible for ordering enough food and beverages for all conference attendees, communicating with the vendors and site concessions, and keeping all goodies in sync with the conference theme.

Restrictions (please do NOT share these with your group members):

  o  You must get approval from the Conference Chairperson before making a final decision.
  o  Make sure your ideas do not conflict with those of your other group members’.

Decorations Chair: You are responsible for designing an atmosphere for the conference that represents its main theme. You must choose and purchase all decorations within your given budget.

Restrictions (please do NOT share these with your group members):

  o  You must get approval for all decoration decisions from the Conference Chairperson. While you may want to collaborate with the other chairs, they are each in different states and often hard to get in contact with. Your budget for the conference decorations is very limited.
  o  Make sure your ideas do not conflict with those of your other group members’.

Activities Director: You are responsible for planning and facilitate activities such as icebreakers and informal workshops for conference attendees. Your role however does not include the coordination of workshops or sessions put on by the conference attendees.

Restrictions (please do NOT share these with your group members):

  o  You must get approval from the Conference Chairperson prior to making a final decision on the icebreaker.
  o  Make sure your ideas do not conflict with those of your other group members’.

COMPLEX ADAPTIVE SYSTEM (CAS) GROUP ROLES

Food & Drink Chair: You are responsible for ordering enough food and beverages for all conference attendees, communicating with the vendors and site concessions, and keeping all goodies in sync with the conference theme.
Restrictions (please do NOT share these with your group members):

- You must bounce ideas off other members of your team and are strongly encouraged to engage in collaborative, creative discussion.
- The final decision on food and drinks is yours.

**Decorations Chair:** You are responsible for designing an atmosphere for the conference that represents its main theme. You must choose and purchase all decorations within your given budget.

Restrictions (please do NOT share these with your group members):

- You have been given the freedom to choose how you want the theme applied in each setting of the conference.
- You are strongly encouraged to collaborate with both the Food and Drink Chair and the Activities Director for ideas, as well as how their ideas fit into your overall vision for the conference theme.
- Your budget is manageable, but not extraordinary.

**Activities Director:** You are responsible for planning and facilitate activities such as icebreakers and informal workshops for conference attendees. Your role however does not include the coordination of workshops or sessions put on by the conference attendees.

Restrictions (please do NOT share these with your group members):

- As long as your activities that relate to the overall theme of the conference, you may be as creative as you wish.
- You may collaborate with the other chairs if necessary, but responsibility for making final decisions regarding these activities belongs to you.
Appendix B. Practice Session Outline

Practice Session Outline

I. Introduction (1 mins)
II. Group selection and briefing (1 min)
   a. This occurs while other facilitator provides role play tips
III. Tips for facilitating effective role plays (5 mins)
IV. Group 1 (5 mins)
V. Group 2 (5 mins)
VI. Introduce CLT components (2-3 mins)
   a. Adaptive
   b. Administrative: CLT seeks to understand how enabling leaders can interact with
      the administrative structure to both coordinate complex dynamics (i.e. adaptive
      leadership) and enhance overall flexibility of the organization.
   c. Enabling: Under conditions of knowledge production, managers should enable,
      rather than suppress or align, informal network dynamics.
   d. Interdependence between leader and group members: The leader and the
      system are profoundly interdependent
   e. Emergence - Complex product vs. Complicated product
   f. Context + Mechanisms = CAS
VII. Introduce CAS components (2-3 mins)
   a. Adaptability
   b. Learning
   c. Creativity
VIII. Discussion/Debrief (3-4 mins)
   a. How do you anticipate you will utilize these examples in your own classrooms?
   b. Do you feel this theory is relevant to leadership education?
Q&A (1-2 mins)
Appendix C. Practice Session Learning Outcomes

This practice session is designed to address the following learning outcomes:

- Less *dissonance* facilitating experiential and/or active learning leadership-theory based activities
- Greater familiarity with CLT and CAS and their applicability in leadership studies
- Utility to create examples of CAS and simulate interdependent systems in learning environments
- Ability to identify administrative, adaptive, and enabling leadership situations and demonstrate the CLT leader and follower roles
Teaching Leadership Concepts Using an Online Simulation

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Abstract
Teaching leadership in an online format presents many challenges to educators who value experiential learning as a teaching method. An online simulation designed to teach leadership concepts to change agents will be demonstrated in this innovative practice session. Students take on the role of a change agent who has two years to influence a group to adopt a new practice.

Introduction
The purpose of the Diffusion Simulation Game (DSG) is to reinforce leadership concepts associated with the theory of diffusion of innovations as articulated by Rogers (2003). Nahavandi (2009 p.298) argues that “leading change is one of the most challenging and vital responsibilities of leaders”. The goal of the game is to develop strategies that leaders to use which will result in the adoption of an innovation. Game players are encouraged to apply the diffusion concepts of opinion leadership, attributes of innovation, and adopter categories. Game activities include gathering information about potential adopters, conducting workshops, making site visits, using mass media, and providing demonstrations.

Background
The Diffusion Simulation Game (DSG) was developed at Indiana University (IU) in the mid 1970s as a board game simulation used with school administrators in a six-day workshop on change strategies (Molenda & Young, 1976). The goal of the DSG was to teach change management strategies in the adoption of an innovation (peer tutoring) by school leaders (principals, teachers and support staff) at a fictional junior high school (Molenda & Rice, 1979). In the game the leader has two years in which to introduce the innovation and have it adopted by as many faculty as possible. Each activity costs a specific number of weeks counted towards the two year time frame. (See Figure 1.)
Description of Practice

In the summer of 2010, I bought twenty licenses of the DSG version 1.0 to use as a cumulating activity for a graduate course in the social change theory for leaders. This on-line course used DSG and was played in the 7th week of an 8 week course in late July. Students were provided a unique login and could play the game over the course of five days. Student reaction to the game was generally positive, with many students commenting that they played the game multiple times in order to secure more adopters.

Although student reaction was positive, I was concerned that the context of the simulation did not fit my students. Most students in the class did not have work experience in a public school setting and I questioned the benefit from the school based context.

In the fall of 2010, I approached a faculty member at IU with the proposition that we work collaboratively to develop a second context of the game. Over the course of the fall 2010 and spring 2011 semesters, I provided the context of a farmers’ market and the innovation of organic practice. In this version of the DSG, the player would take on the role of a leader or change agent who is trying to influence the producers at a farmers’ market to adopt the innovation of organic practice. I wrote new player profiles, modified feedback loops, and developed new activities for the simulation. The new simulation dubbed, Farmers’ Market, was field tested by graduate students at IU in April and May of 2011, piloted in June 2011, and used fully in the summer of 2012.
Results

In the summer of 2011, the Farmers’ Market Simulation was used again as a cumulating activity in a graduate level course. As a class activity, students earned points by identifying the opinion leaders in the simulation and by correctly matching farmers to their appropriate adopter category. Twenty-one students enrolled in the course in the summer of 2011 and all played the game. Students played the game an average of five times each, with five students playing the game only once, and one student playing the game 19 times. On average, players were able to secure 11 of the possible 22 potential adoptees, with four students (all doctoral students) getting all 22 farmers to adopt the innovation of organic practice.

Comments again were positive regarding the game. Selected comments included:

Shannon - Not quite as easy as one might think. It is imperative that you understand the personal information of each person. It is interesting that if some personal relationships are not developed diffusion totally shuts down. I think we tend to think "go for the higher-ups", which you do need to do to some degree, but you have to include everyone in the process.

Cory - I thought the simulation was good. The first two times (I played) I did lousy, but the third game worked out well. I had to sit and think about what we learned this summer after the first two times and applied it with success.

Mindi - I thought the simulation was addicting and was frustrated by the laggards and gatekeepers. You really have to pay close attention to the laggards, and I can see how in real life, the gap just spreads. I learned to start early with Karl's Sweet Corn, Earl's 5 Point Market, and Ralph's Moonshadow Veggies. Earl frustrated me. I can see how this would be in the real world and enjoyed applying Rogers's theory.

Nick - Overall, I guess I enjoyed the game; it was a neat way to apply the concepts. I understand the limitations of a computer simulation, but it seemed to follow the theory. I did think too much time had to be devoted to the laggards, I know Rogers says that must occur, but in reality change agents do not do it.

Marshall - It was neat - I can’t imagine what went into building that game. After playing a few times, you can figure out the nuts and bolts of the system which can then help you figure out the "game". Pretty cool idea

Joey - I really like the theory and I have found that I cannot think about products without thinking about Rogers! The other day at the conference we were talking to an insurance agent who’s company just started offering auto insurance in {state} and he said “We just got into {state}, we aren’t known yet, but that will come” and I was thinking, you better find those opinion leaders!
Recommendations/Implications

The simulation was effective in assessing students’ ability to categorize “adopter types” and opinion leaders based upon game experience. Students believed they were able to apply the diffusion concepts they learned in class. This supports Plummer’s (1997) findings where special education teachers believed they became more realistic about the time required to adopt a change in behavior. I believe the game has particular promise in the professional development of change agents such as social workers, Extension educators, and pre-service teachers as they learn to lead change in their communities. Many leaders with change agent responsibilities begin their careers with little background on how they might effectively manage change. Using the DSB as part of a professional development program on change management should be explored as a relevant professional development activity.
References


Using Epic Fails to Facilitate Students’ Perceptions of Leader Behavior

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Abstract
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? With ever increasing accessibility to information about the personal and professional lives of leaders, authenticity is constantly tested and reported by the media. Hardly a day goes by where a leader is not “exposed” for unethical behavior or an organization’s values are questioned. As leadership educators, how do we use the negative coverage of leadership and turn it into positive classroom pedagogy?

Introduction
Failure is not a new issue for leaders. Leading others toward change is an inherently risky endeavor. Power, bias, overconfidence, and even success can all lead to failed decisions by leaders (Gino & Pisano, 2011). Whether failure occurs in personal endeavors of leadership or in an organizational context, how one handles failure shows true leadership character and authenticity (Dorner, 1996; Long, 2011). Having students understand the importance of failure in leadership development is imperative in today’s world of overexposed leaders.

Background
Liu (2010) divides failure by leaders in an organizational context into three types: (1) borne, (2) inherited, and (3) adopted. Borne failure is when mistakes and nonperformance of a leader can be traced back to leader’s decisions and actions. This type of failure also includes “unprofessional conduct and offensive behavior” (p. 240). Borne failure is often the easiest type of failure for students to find based on the intense media coverage of high-profile leaders. Inherited failure is the organizational failure type where the leader accedes to a situation, which was doomed from the beginning. This type of failure is difficult to perceive because it is often attributed to borne failure. Only time and research reveals this type of failure. The third type of failure, adopted, is “the missteps of others in which the leader has been implicated and called on to answer” (p. 240). This type could include mistakes followers make and the leader takes responsibility for or when followers make mistakes and implicate the leader.
“We are programed at an early age to think that failure is bad. That belief prevents organizations from effectively learning from their missteps” (Edmondson, 2011, p. 49). Learning from failure is anything but straightforward. Simply reflecting on failure is not enough. One must see the failure from all angles including seeing the implications of leadership theory. Some leaders, and students of leadership, are gifted with the strength of reflection and openness to experience. These two leader traits not only allow one to reflect on situations but be open to taking risks and open to learning from failures. For those who are not as gifted at this, it is important to continually analyze failure because “a sophisticated understanding of failure’s causes and contexts will help to avoid the blame game” and increase effective leadership (Edmondson, 2011, p. 50).

**Description of the Practice or Discussion/Interaction**

One way to begin discussions on epic failure in leadership is for students to complete a “Hot Topic” assignment. This assignment asks students to identify a current event and relate the event back to class competencies. This assignment has been used in undergraduate and graduate courses focusing on leadership theory, ethics, and popular culture. For this assignment, the student writes an analysis paper focusing on the event, the competency, and the application of the competency to the event. The day the paper is due, the student then leads a class discussion on their chosen “hot topic” (See Appendix A).

In order to ensure the quality of the assignment and class discussion, some parameters are established to ensure student success. It is expected that students will select a topic where questionable actions or controversial judgment occurred. Additionally, students are required to select a hot topic from within the last three years, encouraging students to keep up with current events and make applications to leadership theories, concepts, and topics. Moreover, students are encouraged to use a variety of mediums to present their selected topic including video, MP3 files, photographs, Twitter feeds, and blogs in addition to traditional sources such as print media. This assignment is a collaborative learning activity as it requires not only the direction and facilitation of the topic by the student presenter but also encourages further analysis by classmates. The instructor’s role during the presentation is to play the role of the devil’s advocate to challenge students to justify their answers based on course materials. Because these topics are typically controversial, the instructor must monitor the climate of the discussion to ensure the discussion is based on fact rather than emotion. Students are expected to be respectful of viewpoints different from their own as the classroom is an arena where students are exposed to different ideas and different ways of thinking.

At the conclusion of each presentation, the hot topics wrap up occurs. Therefore, each student, except the student presenter, takes five minutes to write an in class paper reflecting on the following:

- What went wrong in this leadership situation?
- How would an effective leader handle this situation based on leadership theory, concepts, and methods?
- How do these concepts relate to the way you lead?
- What are the potential leadership pitfalls associated with this situation?
• As a leader, how do you avoid these pitfalls?

**Foreseeable Implications**

By guiding the students to look at not only examples of successful leaders, but also leaders or organizations going through crisis (and failure), students have the opportunity to engage in discourse about the validity of leadership philosophies, models, and theories.

Looking at both successful leaders and those who have failed is important for students’ leadership development. As Brungardt (1996) states, leadership development is the reflection on a leaders’ training and education coupled with experiences. Learning through others’ experiences is also a way students can continue their leadership development process. “When leaders recount significant moments in their lives in which they have persevered through past mistakes and failures, they can be perceived as having learned from their experiences” (Liu, 2010, p. 235).

**Recommended Next Steps**

Implementing discussions on epic failures of leaders begins with increasing one’s consumption of media. Examples which are occurring at the time of the class discussion not only draw students into recent events, they serve as examples of public pedagogy; which Williams and McClure (2010) found as the best way for students to learn leadership. Looking for examples that are borne, inherited, and adopted will help students to see how multifaceted failure can be. Looking for all three types will also help connect failure with diverse leadership philosophies, models, and theories. Borne failure can be easily linked with trait or behavioral models and theories, analyzing how failure was inherited and what the leader did in response works well with contingency theories as well as neo-charismatic models, and adopted failure can be linked with behavioral and neo-charismatic.
References


Appendix A: Hot Topic Paper and Presentation

**SITUATION:** Leadership has been noted as one of the world’s oldest preoccupations. We are surrounded by examples of good leadership and (unfortunately) bad leadership. As a student of leadership, you have the ability to not only recognize good and bad leadership but to also analyze a situation from a specific model or theoretical frame of reference.

**ASSIGNMENT:** This assignment has two parts: a written paper and a 5-8 minute presentation. Upon learning your specified leadership model/theory, begin to look for examples of your model/theory occurring in the world around you. Once you find your example, you are to craft your paper and prepare your presentation.

**SPECIFICATIONS:**

**Paper:** Once you have chosen your topic and current event, you are to write a 2 page (double spaced, 12 point Times New Roman or Calibri font, 1 inch margins) paper. In this paper, you are to:

1. write an introduction paragraph summarizing the current event
2. write a paragraph summarizing the model/theory used to analyze the event
3. write a paragraph detailing how the current event is an example of the selected leadership theory/model. Be sure to end with a concluding statement.

Proper APA citations inside the paper AND reference pages are required.

**Presentation:** After completing your paper, you are to plan for a 6-10 minute presentation about your leadership model/theory and the current event you have chosen which exemplifies the model/theory. This presentation should include:
1. BRIEF summary of the leadership model/theory (no more than 2 minutes)
2. Summary of the current event (no more than 2-2 ½ minutes). This summary could be supplemented with a video clip.
3. Presentation on your analysis of the current event through the frame of your selected leadership model/theory (2 minute MINIMUM)

**Facilitate Class Discussion:** Additionally, you will be expected to facilitate some form of class discussion. Be creative when you plan your presentation; think outside of the box! Some ideas could include, but are not limited to coordinating a class debate, breaking the class into small discussion groups, or proposing open ended questions to the class as a whole. Get your audience involved (ask open-ended questions, have them pair up and discuss and report out, etc.). Think about how you would react as an audience member to your presentation, and present your information in an edutainment way. Get the class involved in a great discussion.
Using the "Giving Voice to Values" Curriculum to Teach Ethics in Leadership Classes

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Abstract
This practice session will share the classroom tested use of the “Giving Voice to Values (GVV)” curriculum as supplemental modules for teaching ethics in leadership courses. This curriculum challenges students to learn ways to express their values in the workplace, despite organizational barriers. Background on the GVV framework, and lessons plans and support materials for use in a graduate leadership course will be presented. Implications for future use in undergraduate courses will be discussed.

Introduction
Given the critical role that leaders play in setting the ethical tone and modeling ethical behavior in an organization, it is increasingly important to include a segment on ethics in graduate leadership courses. Many leadership texts, however, only devote a single chapter to the topic. The “Giving Voice to Values (GVV)” curriculum, which has been made publicly available via Babson College (Gentile, n.d), is a well-researched and classroom tested set of teaching materials that can greatly enhance the ethics component of a leadership course. This practice paper/presentation will outline the use of this curriculum in graduate leadership courses at the presenter’s home institution. Resources for use at other universities will be shared, and future use in undergraduate leadership courses will be considered.

Background
Articles linking teaching leadership and ethics attest that ethics in leadership courses is often considered tangential, while it should be central (Cuilla, 1995; Popa, 2009). The single chapter devoted to ethics in many commonly used leadership texts provide overviews on approaches to values and moral development, ethical leadership, and setting an ethical tone (Hughes, Ginnett, & Gordon, 2012; Northouse, 2013; Yukl, 2010). While these frameworks are important, students are not sufficiently challenged with this basic material to put ethics in to practice in real-world work settings. Particularly for students who aspire to be leaders, if they do not understand their own approaches to ethics and values, it will be difficult for them to model or set the ethical tone in their organizations. Such abilities are crucial to them becoming effective and resilient organizational leaders. Due to these identified deficiencies in common leadership texts, faculty who wish to provide ethics background in their leadership courses must search for and integrate supplemental instructional materials.

The “Giving Voice to Values (GVV)” curriculum (Aspen Institute, n.d.; Gentile, n.d.) is a worthwhile and innovative source of supplemental course materials for teaching ethics in leadership courses. Originally
funded by the Aspen Institute Business and Society Program, in partnership with the Yale School of Management and Babson College, the underlying premise of this work was a weakness in traditional approaches to business and organizational ethics education:

_It’s not that ethical theory and high-level strategic dilemmas are not important; unquestionably they are. But they don’t help future managers and leaders figure out what to do the next... The near term skill set revolves around what to say, to whom and how to say it when the manager knows what he or she thinks is right when an ethical breach occurs—but doesn’t feel confident about how to action his or her convictions. This overlooked but consequential skill set is the first step in building the ethical muscle. This is the purpose of the Giving Voice to Values (GVV) program._ (Babson College, n.d.)

In the foundational article laying out the theoretical and applied bases for the GVV curriculum, Gentile (2010c) references a 2003 Ethics Resource Center survey which found two key reasons employees do not speak up about ethical dilemmas in the workplace: 1) fear of personal retaliation; and 2) senior management won’t do anything if an ethical problem is brought to their attention. This GVV foundational work also references 2001 and 2002 surveys of MBA students by the Aspen Institute showing close to 50% had or thought they would face ethical dilemmas in the workplace which put their personal values at conflict with organizational factors.

To confront this ethics education weakness and its associated issues, the questions GVV researchers asked included: why do some individuals find the “voice” to speak up about their values when confronted with ethical conflicts and organizational barriers, while others do not? and, what are the skills that will allow “values” to be “voiced”? The results of the GVV research are replicable tools to train students to find their “voice” and overcome organizational barriers to express their view when ethical conflicts arise. By doing so, aspiring leaders can also begin to promote organizational change where voicing values is legitimate.

The purpose of this session is to share the GVV tools that have worked effectively in a graduate level organizational leadership course. These tools and student reaction to them in two different semester’s use will be outlined and practice session participants will interface with a sample set of the materials. Goals of the session include:

1. Participants will understand the underlying premise of the GVV curriculum;
2. Participants will interact first-hand with 2 GVV tools; and
3. Participants will be provided sample lesson plans, and web links to additional GVV resources that may be useful in leadership courses at their own universities.

**Description of the Practice and Discussion**

Portions of the GVV curriculum has been used successfully in two semesters of an online graduate leadership course. While this course was taught fully online, how these instructions can be adapted to a face-to-face setting will be shared in the session.
The basic plan for the GVV modules is outlined below. In the practice paper session, the presenter will describe these steps, and provide the tool or assignment or show its associated internet link.

Module 1: GVV Foundations
1. Read the paper “Ways of thinking about our values in the workplace” (Gentile, 2010c)
   • Offers the foundational rationale for the GVV framework
2. Fill out the “Personal and Professional Profile” (Gentile, 2010a)
   • Self-reflection tool for students to think through issues like why business is important, ethical conflicts at work, foundations for their values, and their risk approach
3. Student assignment: Prepare a written paper reflecting on your results from the “Personal and Professional Profile”

Module 2: GVV in Practice
1. Reading on “Scripts and Skills” (Gentile, 2010b)
   • Reading summarizing key research on ways individuals rationalize confronting ethical conflicts in organizations
2. Student discussion forum assignment
   • Posting two ethical conflicts encountered at work, how you approached the situation at the time and reflections on whether, after the GVV readings, you would approach the situation differently
3. Student assignment, discussion forum follow-up
   • Read and respond to 2 of your colleagues posts – do you agree with the way they handled the situation? or how they propose to handle the situation now? Given your GVV knowledge, share additional insights/perspectives they may not have considered

Practice session participants will be provided excerpts from the “Personal and Professional Profile”, and “Scripts and Skills” reading. Highlights in these documents will be used to engage audience participants in the types of challenges students receive with this curriculum.

Foreseeable Implications and Next Steps
The GVV curriculum is currently being used at the graduate level to assist students in becoming better skilled in handling ethical work conflicts and setting an open ethical tone in their organizations. This training should add to their repertoire of skills for becoming resilient organizational leaders.

Session participants will come away with a set of tools and instructions they can use as supplemental modules in graduate leadership courses. Participants will be engaged in a closing discussion on the value of this curriculum and whether they think it will resonate with undergraduate students. The presenter intends to pilot use at the undergraduate level in the coming year.
References


Virtual Values: Teaching Undergraduates Stated and Acted Values

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Abstract
Do you walk the walk or just talk the talk? Students enrolled in a leadership and service learning course at a land-grant institution were challenged to define their core values and then determine if these stated values are congruent with their actions and behaviors through the Virtual Values activity. By conducting an Internet and social media search, the course instructors are able to provide each student with a snapshot of his or her behavioral values. While the results can sometimes be shocking to the student, this activity serves as chance for students to see how others, who most likely do not know them, will perceive their actions and behaviors and make inferences about the student’s values and potential to be an effective leader.

Introduction
Values are defined by Northouse (2013) as “ideas, beliefs, and modes of actions that people find worthwhile or desirable” (p. 111), while Lee and King (2010) give “standards or principles that guide your actions or beliefs” (pg. 55). No matter which definition on the word is used, there can be no doubt that values “reveal the principles by which [one] is actually living” (Lee & King, 2010, p. 55). Clarity of one’s values is an asset that can strengthen leadership by giving justification for reasoning and decisions. Awareness of alignment between values and one’s actions is imperative to be representative of congruent leadership. Alignment, however, is often tough due to many forces that are consistently working against the leader. What happens, however, when a person’s actions are not congruent with their clarified values? How can tangible examples of a person’s actions being out of line with their stated values aid in leadership education at the undergraduate level?

Background
While generations are often identified by one specific event during the period of their early lives, generations are also identified by shared values and beliefs that developed from these shared experiences, as well as adopting some attributes from preceding generations. Members of the Millennial generation, people born in or between 1982 and 2002, have identified themselves as building off values set forth by the Baby Boomer generation. Additionally, the Millennial generation have also developed new values in the face of technological advances such as social media and the Internet. No generation
before has ever been as constantly connected as the Millennial Generation is and there are marked social changes to show for it (Elam, Stratton, &Gibson, 2007).

Social Media, defined by Kaplan and Haenlein (2010, pp.61) is “a group of internet-based applications that build on the ideological and technical foundations of Web 2.0, and that allow creation and exchange of user generated content,” and allows people to present their actions to a virtual world within seconds of them physically taking place. Social media has a great social presence, and, according to the Social Presence Theory set forth by Short, Williams, and Christie (1978), the greater the social presence, the larger the social influence there is on the communication partner’s behaviors (as cited in Kaplan & Haenlein, 2010, pg. 61). Users create social media pages to present their everyday actions and behaviors to normally unreachable parts of the world. However, unlike face-to-face communication, long-term feedback of these displayed actions is often never seen. The Millennial generation is often missing out on the vital face-to-face cues and therefore often disregards their virtual actions and behaviors when thinking about their display of stated values.

To assist students in learning about values as pertaining to leadership, an activity was created to assess how students’ stated values compare to their actions. This activity incorporates the use of social media to help students comprehend the concept of congruence between one’s stated and acted values.

Description of the Practice
On the first day of the semester, students enrolled in an introductory leadership and service learning course at a land-grant university are asked to write down three to five personal values they possess. It is important to note the majority of the students enrolled in the course have had little to no prior leadership education. These clarified values are then saved for the Virtual Values assignment that occurs after mid-semester. The course instructor and graduate teaching assistants investigate the virtual behaviors of the students by searching the Internet and social media outlets to document actions and behaviors of each student. These behaviors can be parallel to the student’s stated values or sometimes the actions discovered are found not to be congruent with the student’s stated values. On the day of the values lecture, each student is provided with a manila envelope containing the results of the search. The purpose of this activity is to demonstrate the importance of aligning one’s stated values with displayed values and behaviors in order to practice effective leadership.

Presenters in this practice session will discuss the implementation and results of the Virtual Values activity. The session will be interactive, as the presenters will engage session participants by having them write down their core values at the beginning of the session and pull information from the Internet during the session from volunteer participants. The presenters will also provide session participants with handouts outlining the Virtual Values activity and provide discussion questions and articles used in conjunction with the activity.

Foreseeable Implications
There are many forces working against student’s alignment of stated and displayed values. Actions and activities of a leader who practices congruent leadership should be drive by their values and beliefs (Stanley, 2008). When trying to emphasize the importance of congruence, this activity offers students a
chance to analyze their stated values versus their action values. Moreover, this activity serves as chance for students to see how others, who most likely do not know them, will perceive their actions and behaviors, and could then make inferences about their values and their potential to be an effective leader. Organizations must remain aware of the alignment of their values with the behaviors and actions of those that represent them. Displayed values that are not in alignment with stated values could potentially be damaging to an individual’s job aspirations as well as personal relationships.

**Recommended Next Steps**

This activity is a useful and tangible way for students to see how displayed behaviors and actions may or may not align with stated values. This practice could be useful in other leadership education classes and programs, as well as organizations to demonstrate the concepts of stated values as compared to an individual’s actions and behaviors. There are many forces working against every person in terms of value alignment, but in order for true examples of congruent leadership to be displayed, an alignment analysis, such as the Virtual Values activity should be performed.
References


What I Know for Sure: Their Stories, Our Words

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Abstract

In this practice session, the presenters will describe a cross-campus collaboration, which resulted in a student-created leadership event entitled, “What I Know for Sure: Their Stories, Our Words.” The multi-media program was grounded in the oral histories of six local leaders who ranged from a former university president to CEOs of businesses and a health foundation. Students who created the event learned valuable leadership lessons not only from viewing the leader videos, but also through the process of creating the event. Audience reaction was extremely positive and the work of the student team far exceeded faculty expectations.

Introduction

Participants will learn about a collaborative leadership experience between faculty and students from three colleges on one campus. Two faculty members in a Business College with a Leadership Center had secured a Humanities grant enabling them to record oral histories of local leaders known for lives of integrity. The Business faculty reached out to two University College faculty to discuss ways to meet one of the grant requirements that a public presentation be made. The University College faculty then assembled a team of students enrolled in various multidisciplinary focused leadership courses. Eight students representing three different colleges created and led a well-received presentation on leadership lessons learned from watching the video interviews. Participants will hear from faculty and students about the value of oral histories, the importance of collaboration across campus borders, the leadership lessons learned in the process of creating this unique multi-media presentation and project outcomes.
Background

Who “owns” leadership on your campus? At the authors’ university, leadership education and development occurs in various curricular and co-curricular programs and Centers, through academic certificates at both the undergraduate and graduate levels, an undergraduate degree concentration, ROTC, and various related graduate programs to name a few. This widespread distribution of leadership programs and initiatives is not unique. A quick glance at The National Clearinghouse for Leadership Program’s website (n.d.) indicates that curricular and co-curricular leadership programs are housed in a wide variety of departments at colleges and universities. Lattuca and Creamer (2005) suggest that it is this very structure of higher education, with its emphasis on departmental autonomy, which often leads to barriers and conditions making it difficult for faculty to engage in collaborative work. On the other hand, because they are so rare, cross-campus collaborations often result in much praise and recognition (Stark & Lattuca, 1997). Such was the case with the cross-campus collaborative oral history based program which took place on the presenters’ campus.

One of the main reasons the authors chose to collaborate on this project was because they saw a rich, leadership learning opportunity for students regardless of major. The use of interviews is a teaching tool often used by leadership educators (Boje, 1999; Danzig, 1999; Smith & Roebuck, 2010). For the interviewees, sharing their stories is freeing and provides them with a way to inspire change (Denning, 2005). Their stories are not stagnant and can be used to teach future generations. As one member of the student team stated:

What I have learned from these interviews will serve as a solid foundation for my future. I will put to use the knowledge that these leaders had to learn for themselves. Knowing the mistakes others have already made provides advice for me on how to handle the same situations in the future. Ultimately, I feel as though this project has made me more aware of the endless opportunities I can achieve if I try.

In addition to learning from the interviewees themselves, the students were also able to put various leadership concepts they had been learning into practice (e.g. leading in groups, making decisions as a team, resolving conflicts, and understanding the role of followership). This project was intentionally ambiguous resulting in an experiential learning experience, which DeRue and Wellman (2009) note can be an effective way for students to develop as leaders. Students were given a general charge, but had to come together as a team to determine their individual roles and to create a timeline and plan that covered all the details associated with the final end product. Several months after the leadership event occurred, the students wrote and recorded their reflections about the experience. Such practices are in congruence with the notion that intentional reflection practices help leaders develop (Daudelin, 1996).

The overarching purpose of this session is to explain the specifics associated with the program. A secondary purpose would be to encourage participants to brainstorm with others about creating their own collaborative, creative leadership learning experiences for students.
Description of the Practice or Discussion/Interaction

In the session, participants will hear from both faculty and student presenters. The presentation will open with a short video clip showing highlights from the program. A brief grant overview and parameters associated with the leader interviews will be provided. The faculty presenters will provide background about how they became connected with one another, despite being in different colleges. They will also touch on ways in which they overcame disciplinary barriers and learned to be in a support, rather than leadership, role for the student team.

The student presenters will talk about their own leadership development as a result of being placed on a multi-disciplinary team charged with creating a first of its kind event. They will then discuss specific personal leadership lessons they learned from viewing the oral histories. They will also focus on the qualitative research aspect of their work, which included identifying five pillars of leadership – hard work, family/community, importance of relationships, education and courage.

Presenters will conclude by talking about some of the outcomes of the project (e.g. student job interviews and community presentations), plans for the future and answering participant questions.

Foreseeable Implications

Participants in this session will learn about the process and program that took place on the presenters’ campus from the perspective of how a similar program might occur on their own campus. They will also discover how they can access and use the oral histories of the interviewed leaders.

Recommended Next Steps

Participants will be encouraged to consider what leaders in their local community would make good interviewees, and how they might create a similar program on their campus. In addition, participants will be encouraged to consider how we can collaborate across universities to share resources and bring students together for other leadership learning experiences.
References

ROUTABLE DISCUSSIONS IN FULL
A Model for Leader Development Across the Lifespan

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Abstract
Informed by Avolio’s (2005) multi-level view of leadership development, the social change model of leadership development (HERI, 1996), and Erikson’s (1980) stages of psychosocial development, this presentation highlights a leader development across the lifespan model and rationale for this perspective of leadership development. The proposed model is graduated using Erikson’s (1980) stages of psychosocial development, wherein a leader encounters triggers resulting from interactions and engagement with society. Triggers initiate an inward-focused meaning-making process resulting in action, exerting greater influence within the environment as a leader develops. This practice session aims to investigate application of the model for leader development across the lifespan, and articulate implications of a lifespan approach to leadership development research and practice.

Introduction
“If your actions inspire others to dream more, learn more, do more and become more, you are a leader.” Quotes like this one, attributed to John Quincy Adams (Williams, 2002), help situate who is and who could be a leader. The leader’s work extends beyond the bounds of a career; we must consider the leader’s entire life experience. Some leadership educators are working to address this need through the land-grant university system’s mission of learning, discovery, and engagement. This approach incorporates leadership development and outreach programs to serve youth, college students, and adults. As theory informs practice, a need to understand leader development across the lifespan emerges with the intent of informing the development of interventions that address the leadership capacities of individuals at different life stages.
While there are many models for leader development that highlight adult leader growth or advancement, Murphy and Johnson (2011) note:

One limitation to our understanding of leader development is the focus on developmental experiences that occur late in life. Most studies on leader development examine managers and executives, ignoring development in youth and adolescence. Yet, leaders are likely to have had developmental experiences well before reaching mid-management and these early development experiences are important for adulthood. (p. 459)

Murphy and Johnson (2011) further state, “analogous to a snowball effect, small developmental experiences at an early age (when the snowball is small) can have a profound impact on future development outcomes, given the reinforcing nature of leader development” (p. 460). Limited research of leader development across the lifespan is likely due to the limited number of theoretical, prescriptive or instructive models that adopt a lifespan approach. Fewer still aim to influence interventions enhancing development at various life stages.

**Background**

The idea for a model of leader development across the lifespan emerged from these questions:

1. How does an individual develop the capacity to lead throughout their life?
2. How is leader development understood in light of theories of human development, longitudinal leadership development, and social change?
3. How should a prescribed intervention vary or adapt at each stage of leader development?

Based on these questions, the authors sought a model that included adaptations of Avolio’s (2005) multi-level view of leadership development, Erikson’s (1980) stages of psychosocial development, and the Higher Education Research Institute’s (HERI, 1996) social change model of leadership development.

**Avolio’s Multi-level View of Leadership Development**

Augmenting his work with transformational leadership and the full-range model of leadership, Avolio (2005) describes leadership development as a process (Figure 1). The development is the result of the life stream, or “accumulation of events from birth to the present that shape how you choose to influence others and yourself” (Avolio, 2005, p. 12). Avolio highlights the importance of trigger events that promote self-awareness, self-regulation, and self-development, serving as accelerants to a leader’s development, resulting in “deep introspection and a change in his or her implicit theories about the linkage between leadership and morality…and result in global self-concept of themselves as leaders” (Gardner, Avolio, & Walumbwa, 2005, p. 45).

Erikson’s Stages of Psychosocial Development

Erikson (1980) describes human development as an eight-stage progression: Infancy; Early Childhood; Preschool; School Age; Adolescence; Young Adulthood; Middle Adulthood; and, Maturity. Each stage is accompanied with developmental and psychosocial descriptors, highlighting the progression of development across the lifespan (Table 1).

Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Major Stages in Psychosocial Development</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Name of Stage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Infancy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Early Childhood</td>
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<tr>
<td>Preschool</td>
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<tr>
<td>School Age</td>
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<td>Adolescence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Young Adulthood</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle Adulthood</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maturity</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Adapted from The Lifecycle Completed, by E. H. Erikson and J. M. Erikson, New York: W.W. Norton & Company. Copyright 1997 by Joan M. Erikson.

Social Change Model of Leadership Development

The social change model of leadership development was developed by the Higher Education Research Institute (HERI) to create a new generation of leaders with the knowledge, skill, and ability to encourage social change across organizations and communities (Komives & Wagner, 2009). The model encourages
leaders to: identify social problems; evaluate creative, unique solutions; and, foster teamwork and collaborative relationships to implement positive social change at the community or systemic level (HERI, 1996). The social change model serves as the foundation for exploring a leader’s growth and development, providing a framework for discussing how a leader engages and receives feedback from groups and society (Figure 2).

![Figure 2. Social Change Model of Leadership Development. Adapted from A Social Change Model of Leadership Development: Guidebook Version III (p. 20), by Higher Education Research Institute [Heri], 1996, Los Angeles, CA: Author. Copyright 1996 by National Clearinghouse for Leadership Programs.](image)

**Assumptions**
Based on the literature, the following assumptions can guide our understanding of leader development across the lifespan:

1. An individual’s lifestream includes trigger events, as defined by Avolio and Luthans (2006);
2. An individual progresses through each of Erikson’s (1980) stages of psychosocial development without regression;
3. The social change model is a frame for understanding that leadership is: socially responsible; impacts change on behalf of others; collaborative, inclusive, and accessible to all people; a process, not a position; values based; and, community involvement/service is a powerful vehicle for leadership (HERI, 1996).
4. Self-awareness and self-development are measures of leader development, in response to trigger events (Walumbwa, Avolio, Gardner, Wernsing, & Peterson, 2008); and,
5. Feedback loops in the social change model of leadership development create interdependence among individual, group and societal values (Komives & Wagner, 2009).

**Description of the Practice**

The intent of this session is to share an emerging model of leader development across the lifespan (Appendix A) and discuss its implications for leadership education research and practice (Appendix B). We invite critiques of the model in an effort to strengthen its potential applications and inspire collaboration among leadership educators.

**Foreseeable Implications**

Based on the aforementioned quote attributed to John Quincy Adams, leadership is the collective interactions that inspire others to dream more, learn more, do more, and become more. To increase this leadership, we must first know how to develop individual leaders. The model of leader development across the lifespan is a step in that direction. Some leadership educators will be able to apply it to existing programs, use it to guide emerging programs, and others will find it useful to frame related research.

**Recommended Next Steps**

Participants will be asked to consider the implications of future research using this conceptual model, and the implementation and assessment of leader development interventions across the lifespan. Opportunities for collaboration in research and development of the model are encouraged to further develop an understanding of leader development across the lifespan.

**References**


Figure 1. Model of Leader Development Across the Lifespan. Graduated using Erikson’s (1980) stages of psychosocial development, the model depicts increased self-awareness and self-development as a result of triggers, which causes an individual to interact with the environment in new and deeper ways. The widening of the “individual” cone against the environment represents the resulting leader development.

As depicted in Figure 1, the proposed model is graduated using Erikson’s (1980) stages of psychosocial development in which an individual leader progresses through each successive stage encountering triggers (white stars) as s/he interacts with groups and society, propelling an inward-focused meaning making process (orange arrows) that results in action (undefined directionally; yellow stars). The resulting action may influence an individual alone, or impact the environment; the importance of this component of the model is to distinguish a trigger from other formative events.

As a leader develops, his or her influence within the environment becomes greater, a hallmark of the social change model, which is indicated by the widening of the individual component of the model (HERI, 1996). Further support for the individual/environmental interaction is provided by Avolio and Gibbons (1988), suggesting that “the unit of analysis is the interaction of the leader with his or her environment over a specific time interval” (p. 280). Erikson’s (1980) stages of psychosocial development provide intervals of time and distinguish significant developmental transitions without restricting an individual’s identification, self-regulation, and action as the result of a trigger. This process may occur at varying ages and stages as a result of one’s reflexivity regarding triggers, however the frequency and intensity of triggers does not promote advancement to subsequent graduates stages per Erikson’s model.
Appendix B: Scenario for Application of the Model

Example Mapping of the Model of Leader Development Across the Lifespan: Joe Leader

Joe Leader begins his leadership journey as a member of 4-H as an elementary student and experiences several triggers, which impact his development as a leader at a young age; Joe’s self-awareness, self-regulation, and self-development has increased. Among his first triggers in Erikson’s competence stage, Joe will learn social norms and rules through interactions with peers and adults. Through successful resolution of these triggers, Joe will become more self-disciplined, trusting, motivated, and autonomous. Joe as an adolescent continues his involvement in agricultural education programs and joins Future Farmers of America (FFA) and was elected to serve as a state officer; Joe experiences several additional triggers. Now seeking leadership positions, he begins to answer the question, “Who am I?” and will experiment with different roles. Successful management of triggers related to role identity will help develop a sense of achievement and values as manhood is recognized. Joe is accepted to [Southern Land-grant University] and participates in a living learning community with a focus on leadership studies. This experience promotes self-reflection and Joe identifies additional past triggers, while experiencing new triggers; the result of this process is increased self-awareness and self-development, and an increase in Joe’s influence within society (represented within the model by the widening of the individual cone pushing on the environment within the model). His understanding of leadership continues to develop with thorough reflection of experiences. Prominent triggers will be focused on building positive relationships with peers, faculty, and supervisors. Successful self-regulation and action towards these triggers will result in a network of close and committed relationships. Joe graduates from college and continues to be engaged in adult education programs in the field of agriculture; Joe continues to develop as a leader. Family life and civic engagements serve as additional triggers, resulting in Joe’s development as a leader during middle adulthood. He becomes most interested in his contributions to society, items that will have a positive effect on others, or leave a mark that makes the world a little bit better. As Joe nears retirement, he begins to explore new roles as a volunteer leader within his community serving youth. These experiences result in triggers that further promote Joe’s development. Reflecting on his successful handling of these triggers throughout his life, Joe develops a sense of fulfillment and integrity. He welcomes new endeavors and looks forward to giving back and serving as a mentor.

Joe’s development as a leader has involved various programs and interventions throughout his life, beginning at an early age and extending past middle adulthood. The Model of Leader Development Across the Lifespan aims to explain how leader development occurs, and the resulting developmental trajectory that spans all eight stages of Erikson’s theory.
Best Picture in the Leadership Classroom: “And the Oscar Goes to…”

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Abstract
Still showing 12 Angry Men and Hoosiers in your leadership classroom? If so, it is time to update your leadership library. This roundtable session will serve as an opportunity for leadership educators to discover new leadership films while discussing successful strategies for using film in the leadership classroom. We will specifically focus on using film that not only captures the attention of the current generation of leadership students, but also provides ample opportunity to apply different leadership theories and concepts. Join us for an interactive session as participants share their nominations for best picture in the leadership classroom.

Introduction
Are you keeping up with your students or are you still relying on lessons that you first used as a graduate teaching assistant? Is it time to update your leadership library, specifically the film department? Although it may be tempting to continue to use a tried and true film, our students might appreciate (and as a result text less) if we use newer, more relevant, attention-grabbing films. The roundtable discussion will serve as a forum for leadership educators to discover new leadership films while discussing successful strategies for using film in the leadership classroom. We will specifically focus on using film that not only captures the attention of the current generation of leadership students, but also provides ample opportunity to apply different leadership theories and concepts.

Background
A national study examining pedagogies in undergraduate leadership education found that the use of media clips to teach leadership theories and concepts was ranked as the 13th most frequently used instructional strategy by leadership educators (Jenkins, 2012). Although the use of media clips ranked behind strategies such as case studies, class discussion, exams, and games, the use of media clips ranked above techniques such as reflective journaling, research projects, role plays, and self-assessments. Additionally, Jenkins (2012) concluded that workshops and learning opportunities focusing on specific instructional strategies are needed, basically that more leadership educators might use specific instructional strategies if they are better prepared to do so.

Each points to the need for leadership educators to create curriculum that stimulates the interests of the current generation of students. Additionally, the authors offer readers curriculum-based suggestions and ideas for enhancing student learning through the use of specific films and media clips.

The roundtable discussion will provide an opportunity for leadership educators to explore the use of film in the classroom. Specific objectives include: examining the literature related to the use of film in the leadership classroom, learning from roundtable participants as ideas are shared related to meeting the needs of student learners, and creating action plans for use of film in the leadership classroom.

**Means for Discussion/Interaction**
To introduce the session, the facilitator will briefly introduce the current literature related to the use of film in the leadership classroom and then share two films she is currently using, as well as, student reactions, and the application of related leadership concepts.

*Iron Jawed Angels* (Topic: Authentic Leadership)
The film was released in 2004 and follows the story of Alice Paul and Lucy Burns, both political activists, fighting for women’s rights during the 1910s. The film received acclaim at the Sundance Film Festival and stars well-known actors including Hilary Swank, Anjelica Huston, and Patrick Dempsey.

*Temple Grandin* (Topic: Strengths-Based Leadership)
This 2010 biopic stars Claire Danes and tells the story of Temple Grandin, an educator, biologist, and writer known as both an autism activist and animal welfare activist. The film received a 100% on the *Rotten Tomatoes’ Tomatometer* ([http://www.rottentomatoes.com/m/temple_grandin/](http://www.rottentomatoes.com/m/temple_grandin/)) and numerous awards including Emmy and Golden Globe Awards.

After introducing the session, the facilitator will use guided discussion to encourage participation from attendees. It is the goal of the facilitator to create a collaborative learning process in which all participants share their ideas, expertise, and experiences. The following questions will be used to guide discussion:

- How are you using film in the leadership classroom?
- What strategies do you specifically use to teach the application of leadership concepts and theories through film?
- How do your students react to the use of film in the classroom?
- What films are you currently using and which leadership theories/concepts are taught through these specific films?
- As you search for new films to use in the leadership classroom, where do you look and what are you looking for, specifically?
Foreseeable Implications
The roundtable discussion serves as an opportunity for leadership educators to share films and strategies they are currently using in the leadership classroom. Potential outcomes include:

• Identification of current practices related to the use of film in the leadership classroom.
• Identification of participants’ beliefs related to the use of film in the leadership classroom.
• Identification of new films and related leadership theories/concepts for implementation in the classroom.
• The creation of a network of leadership educators using film in the leadership classroom.

Recommended Next Steps
As the roundtable discussion concludes, participants will be encouraged to examine their current use of film in the leadership classroom and to make at least one update based on ideas and strategies shared. Each participant will “nominate” a film for best leadership picture with the intent of using the film in a future leadership class.

References
Business Ethics Curricula: The Nuts and Bolts of a Holistic Approach

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University of Phoenix

Anshila Horton DeClouette, Ph.D.
University of Phoenix

Abstract
This roundtable session provides participants with a leadership development opportunity to self-reflect and apply critical thinking skills for ethical decision-making using relevant scenarios with application to a variety of fields. It provides opportunity to exchange ideas for improving the teaching of business ethics education in the higher education industry, as well as application to other fields of study.

Introduction
This roundtable addresses the need to improve business ethics education in the higher education industry and uses an open-systems approach in leadership philosophy to develop the Scholar-Practitioner (Schultz, 2010) through self-reflection and critical thinking in the cognitive processing of ethical decision-making. Participants will be provided a background review of the four mainstream ethical theories used in U.S. business schools and be given opportunity to discuss and analyze examples of scenario-based ethical dilemmas in a facilitated session. These scenarios will have application to a variety of fields to engage participants into the multi-faceted perspectives of morality given differences of culture, personality, and value systems. Scenarios include issues of fiscal responsibility, disclosure of pertinent details, acceptance of bribes, and post-problem cover ups with application to leadership in business, agriculture, pharmaceuticals, and other industries.

Background
This session utilizes Heutagogy – that is, self-determined learning (Hase & Kenyon, 2000) – with emphasis on self-reflection and critical thinking to strengthen the leadership development of the Scholar-Practitioner (Schultz, 2010). It addresses key criticisms revealed in the literature about the dilution of business ethics education in the higher education industry through the limitation and/or exclusion of moral philosophy from applied business ethics and the segregation of secular ethical theories from religious faith (Spaulding & Franks, 2012). Four mainstream ethical theories (e.g. Utilitarianism for the greatest good, Kantian for duties and rights, Rawlsian for justice or fairness, and Aristotelian for the virtuous life) dominate U.S. business school ethics courses and tend to force students to select one over the other. While there are several other theories and terms that relate back to these four major ethical theories, for purposes of this discussion, focus will be on these four with inclusion of the two principle views of stockholder and stakeholder theories for business ethics.
Rather than force participants to choose one theory over the other, participants will be encouraged to explore and integrate these various theories with their own values and belief systems through examples of scenario-based ethical dilemmas. Indeed, Hursthouse (2012) briefly illustrates this concept as follows:

Suppose it is obvious that someone in need should be helped. A utilitarian will point to the fact that the consequences of doing so will maximize well-being, a deontologist [Kantian] to the fact that, in doing so the agent will be acting in accordance with a moral rule such as “Do unto others as you would be done by” and a virtue ethicist [Aristotelian] to the fact that helping the person would be charitable or benevolent. (para. 1)

The purpose of this roundtable is twofold, first as a leadership development opportunity for the participant to self-reflect and apply critical thinking skills for ethical decision-making and second to exchange ideas for improving the teaching of business ethics education in the higher education industry through different learning interventions.

The objectives for this session include:

- Increase awareness about the key points of scholarly discourse in the teaching of business ethics
- Provide opportunity to examine and discuss scenario-based ethical dilemmas
- Share different perspectives on ethical decision-making & ideas for effective teaching of business ethics

Description of the Practice or Discussion/Interaction

Introduction
The session will begin with an introduction to the problem of ethics and how leadership resilience can help to influence positive self-regulated actions in ethical decision-making. For example, participants will be presented with a brief history of the 2008 global-economic crisis and the lack of self-regulated actions by greedy corporate executives, Wall Street bankers, rating agency leaders, and politicians, as well as educators in U.S. business schools as contributing culprits who were also blamed in the deterioration of ethical business practices (Podolny, 2009). This issue requires “that both exemplary followership and transformational leadership have a strong moral component and an outward selfless focus to serve others rather than self and working toward a common organizational purpose” (Fobbs, 2010, p. 157).

The session will then transition to present a summary of the scholarly discourse in the literature regarding the dilution of moral philosophy from applied business ethics (Spaulding & Franks, 2012) and provide summaries of the four mainstream ethical theories that dominate the teaching of business ethics.
ethics in U.S. business schools. This part of the session will set the foundation for which the scenario-based ethical dilemmas will be used.

**Summary of the Scholarly Discourse**
The literature presents a strong case to improve the concentration and context of business ethics education, due to a lack of emphasis on ethical theory and moral philosophy (Anninos & Chytiris, 2011; Heller & Heller, 2011; Klein, 1998; Spaulding & Franks, 2012). Using a knowledge mapping approach and Dewey Decimal Classification System (DDC), Spaulding and Franks (2012) help organize and clarify the various overlaps of moral philosophy in the domains of philosophy, religion, social sciences, and psychology. Concerns are shared about alienating students whose “moral epistemology is informed by faith (including both Western students of faith as well as international students whose cultural backgrounds include Islamic, Buddhist, Hindu, Christianity and other religious influences)” (p. 233). The traditional focus in Western cultures to ensure secular goals of objectivity by separating religious faith and business ethics, whereas in other cultures “they are not so severely segregated” (p. 231).

Gentile and Samuelson (2005) assert current academic discourse pits philosophical and applied ethics on opposing ends, when they should be intertwined. Indeed, Beauchamp and Bowie (2004) do just that with discussions of numerous philosophical theories (albeit brief) followed by practitioner essays and case studies with open ended questions. Yet, Hursthouse (2012) presents a very compelling example of presenting a dilemma where the student proposes a resolution, citing the philosophical theory.

**Four Mainstream Ethical Theories**
The four mainstream ethical theories that dominate U.S. business school ethics are as follows: Utilitarianism “... promotes human welfare by minimizing harms and maximizing benefits” (Beauchamp & Bowie, 2004, p. 17). Recognizing the complexities of life, utilitarianism seeks a more balance approach to strict good and evil simplifications. Kantian theories assert a respect for human dignity, the right to choose, and transparency in interacting with one another (Beauchamp & Bowie, 2004).

Rawlsian theory strives for justice or fairness, recognizing that absolute equality is not the ultimate goal (Rawls, 2009). While inequities can exist, the most disadvantaged members should not be harmed.

Aristotelian proposes a virtuous life of acquired characteristics, such as “honesty, kind and conscientiousness” (Frankena, 1973, p. 63).

Some business ethical dilemmas stem from the classical contradictions of stockholder (or agency) and stakeholder theories. Agency theory holds that managers and directors act on behalf of company owners (Friedman, 1970). In the case of publicly traded companies, owners are shareholders/stockholders. Conversely, the stakeholder theory is the belief that managers must balance the interests of shareholders with various other stakeholders to include customers, suppliers, employees, the community-at-large and the environment (Freeman, 1984).
Scholar-Practitioner-Leader

In addition, the leadership philosophy of Scholar-Practitioner (Schultz, 2010) will be presented to set the context for self-reflection and critical thinking in the application of the scenario-based ethical dilemmas. For example, the Scholar-Practitioner is a self-led leader, who as scholar, can effectively discuss and evaluate philosophies, and defend and explain positions through expository reasoning. As practitioner, can effectively apply research and management to explain practical relevance, and as a self-leader, can effectively apply personal belief system to various complex situations, and practice continued self-reflection for self-learning and self-improvement. Migliore & DeClouette (2011) constructed the Self-Leadership Trust Model to help explain the “intercognition of a leader’s response/action based upon three interdependent systems: (a) the individual’s culture system, which includes values and motivations; (b) the individual’s personality; and (c) the social system, representative of the cultural standards and interaction for a given situation” (p.328). Through feedback, self-reflection, and critical thinking, leaders can improve their understanding of self and others to make better decisions and build trusting relationships.

Scenario-based Ethical Dilemmas

Scenario One. Scenario One is cited from Walker (2013):

You are the treasurer of your union and keep immaculate records on union income and expenditures. Because of some health problems, you have been unable to perform your duties as treasurer for three months, and another union brother has taken over the treasurer’s duties. Upon your return you find some minor discrepancies in the books and investigate the unusual expenditures. You find that your union brother has secretly taken small amounts of money from the union fund, which if not brought to anyone’s attention, might go unnoticed. You are aware that your union brother has some financial difficulties and that his home is in the foreclosure process. Question: What would you do in this situation? (p. 16).

The choices in Walker’s (2013) pre and post-surveys were to (1) first report the incident (whistle blow) and then provide restitution, (2) provide restitution first and then report the incident (whistle blow).

Scenario Two. Scenario Two is also cited from Walker (2013):

You are the CEO of Rollfast Bicycle Company which has been barred from entering the market in a large Asian country by collusive efforts of the local bicycle manufacturers. Rollfast could expect to net 5 million dollars per year from sales if it could penetrate the market. Last week a businessman from the country contacted you and stated he could smooth the way for the company to sell in his country for a price of $500,000. Question: What would you do in this situation? (p. 15-16)
The choices in Walker’s (2013) pre and post-surveys were to (1) decline, (2) participate if it was a legal opportunity or (3) mark unsure.

Differences in cultural backgrounds, values & belief systems, and personalities will prompt different reactions and perspectives. The leadership development opportunity is to discuss and reflect upon these different perspectives to apply critical thinking and improve ethical decision-making.

Such scenarios present learners with situations they could encounter in the real world since the strictly philosophical approach seems too ethereal for many business students. Future business professionals need to know how to respond to a range of situations, including what to do when a boss commands that a direct report “plays with the numbers” (Bean & Bernardi, 2005, p. 64). An enhancement to the Walker (2013) approach would be to provide learners with scenarios, but without the prescribed choices. This challenges students to provide possible solutions as well as link it to a range of ethical theories, such as described by Hursthouse (2012).

Another topic of ethical controversy is genetically modified organisms (GMOs) fueled by diverse viewpoints that have labeled GMOs as either Frankenstein foods or a new green revolution (Schulman, 2012). For example, Schulman presents two diverse viewpoints each describing GMO tomatoes:

Allowed to ripen on the vine naturally, this ruby tomato comes to your table with more homegrown taste. By drawing on the best traditions of crossbreeding, biotechnology has created a better-tasting tomato, available year-round. (para 1)

Although it may be as pretty as a plastic fruit, this tomato has been produced by introducing modified organisms into the plant’s natural genetic material. It is the product of laboratory manipulations whose consequences for consumer health and for the environment are unknown. (para 2)

Which of these two descriptions provides the best ethical perspective? Should more stringent labeling be required on GMO foods to give consumers a choice in being exposed to the potential risks of GMO ingestion? These are just some of the questions that prompt different reactions and perspectives.

Another topic of great ethical concern is pharmaceuticals. For example, when does the physician’s self-interest with pharmaceutical companies outweigh the best interests of patients? The answer to this question will differ individually based upon the physician’s personality, culture, and personal values & beliefs system. However, through feedback, self-reflection, and critical thinking, leaders can improve their understanding of self and others to help make better decisions and build trusting relationships (Migliore & DeClouette, 2011).

Here is a simplified scenario involving a new drug that is believed to provide improvement over an existing drug (IDRE, 2013). The researcher’s strong belief in the positive benefits of the new drug hinders objectivity and creates an unconscious desire to maximize ability to detect an improvement,
without consideration for possibility that the new drug could be less effective than the existing one. As such, the researcher chooses to only perform a one-tail T test for statistical analysis to measure a positive improvement. Whereas, the two-tailed T test would help mitigate the risk of Type 1 or Type 2 Errors by testing for differences in both directions for positive or negative results. According to IDRE (2013):

Choosing a one-tailed test for the sole purpose of attaining significance is not appropriate. Choosing a one-tailed test after running a two-tailed test that failed to reject the null hypothesis is not appropriate, no matter how "close" to significant the two-tailed test was. Using statistical tests inappropriately can lead to invalid results that are not replicable and highly questionable--a steep price to pay for a significance star in your results table! (para 6)

In this scenario, the one-tail T test is inappropriate because the consequences could be extreme if in fact the new drug is less effective than the existing one. Critical thinking and self-reflection can help improve ethical decision-making in research and pharmaceutical sales. By encouraging free thinking, differences in cultural backgrounds, values & beliefs system, and personalities will emerge to consider multiple points of view towards ethics. The leadership development opportunity is to discuss and reflect upon these different perspectives to apply critical thinking and improve ethical decision-making.

Forseeable Implications

As a result of the authors’ brief presentation and the resulting intense participant discussion critically analyzing curricular examples, such as Walker (2013), there could be a shift in pedagogical, andragogical, and heutagorical approaches towards more effective, open and holistic business ethics curricula. In addition, the scenarios relevant to other fields of leadership study in agriculture and pharmaceuticals, etc. will further enhance this roundtable discussion.

Recommended Next Steps

The main takeaway for active participants would be a new and enlightened perspective on delivering business ethics curricula and related application to other fields of study. Furthermore, the authors will invite participants to continue dialoguing using social media after the session.

References


IDRE (2013). What are the differences between one-tailed and two-tailed tests? Institute for Digital Research and Education. UCLA. Retrieved from http://www.ats.ucla.edu/stat/mult_pkg/faq/general/tail_tests.htm


Changing Roles: The Effect of Leadership Education on the Selection of Personal Role Models.

Jessica Benson
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Jennifer Johnson
University of Georgia

Abstract
Throughout life, people often look up to a variety of different people. Their chosen leaders change due to paradigm shifts in their interests, morals and experiences. This discussion seeks to foster a greater understanding of why chosen role models are accepted or rejected, with particular attention to leadership education; as participants have enhanced their education in regard to leadership, is there a difference in their criteria in selection of mentors and idols? By culminating an array of perspectives from a multitude of disciplines, researchers seek to unveil how leadership education can influence the leaders individuals choose for themselves.

Introduction
In recent years, there is a heightened demand for leadership development across all disciplines (Hay and Hodgkinson, 2006). Inversely, there is a low occurrence of formal education pertaining specifically to leadership development, chiefly in management education (Hay and Hodgkinson, 2006). While there is speculation on the overlap between leadership and management, there is an increased need for transformational leadership skills, which are often not in correspondence with management or more transactional leadership practices (Northouse, 2013). As professionals and students in leadership, participants have a responsibility to not only harbor their own understanding of leadership, but to take what they have learned or applied in the classroom and use that knowledge to strengthen the organizations and communities they are involved in.

Background
Transformational leadership is more aligned with role models and personally selected leaders. People who lead in this way tend to be more encouraging, concerned with the well-being and success of their followers versus goal achievement (Northouse, 2013). Similar to Bass’ definition of an informal leader, we consider our idols to be confident and authentic by, gaining influence as a result of personal traits and achievements (Bass, 2008).
Kouzes and Posner (2007) have compiled a list of the characteristics of the most admirable leaders, and although these may be the characteristics suggested to build an ideal leadership philosophy, people
often build their philosophy with no prior knowledge of the theories that make up formal leadership education.

**Description of the Practice or Discussion/Interaction**

Researchers will begin with a brief introduction, but will allow the discussion to take its own course. Too verbose of an introduction may result in the facilitators leading the conversation in a particular direction, which may result in less than organic responses. The proposed questions that will serve as catalysts for dialogue are as follows:

- Think back to five years ago. Are your chosen leaders different than they are now?
- Explain why you feel they have (or have not) changed?
- Have your criteria for selecting role models altered? If so, how?
- As you learn about best leadership practices, do you apply these concepts to the leaders in your own life? If so, how often do they align?
- Are there specific leadership concepts or theories that guide your decisions more so than others?
- As a scholar or professional in the field of leadership, do you feel your personal mentors and icons are reflective of your values and personal leadership philosophy?
- Over the course of your academic career, have you noticed a change in your peers’/students’ mindset or actions as their knowledge about leadership increases?
- Continuing the previous question, if you haven’t seen a difference in your peers/students, how could you engage them personally to evoke a change in their perceptions or behavior? If so, where do you feel the breakthrough point was/what activity or discussion served as the change agent?
- What role do you feel education and field of academia serve in individuals’ selection of chosen role models and leaders?
- Outside of education, do you feel there are external influences that mold a person’s personal leadership philosophy, regardless of their involvement in formal leadership education?

Participants will be allowed to stray slightly from the questions set forth, so long as the topic of conversation remains relevant to the research question. Additional questions may be included as necessary.

**Foreseeable Implications**

This discussion will serve to allow participants to become more aware of their own decisions, resulting from their increase in knowledge of leadership. This knowledge may be further solidified in participants, opening their eyes to the practical application of their leadership education when it comes to their own personal decisions. Students especially will be able to reinforce their knowledge of the art of leadership by bolstering their own views and defending the root causes of their beliefs, as they further understand the true essence of great leaders. Throughout the discussion, participants will
**Recommended Next Steps**

The participants will be encouraged to apply the broadened knowledge set forth in this dialogue to better understand the viewpoints of individuals with varying backgrounds, with specific focus on personal leadership perspectives. This discussion will better equip participants to effectively engage in conversations that will diffuse the theories and principles that serve as the backbone of leadership education. There are a disproportionate number of people seeking formal education in the field of leadership versus the number of people who could greatly benefit and appreciate a broader depth of knowledge in this area. By assisting leadership professionals and scholars to intertwine their education with their personal and professional interactions, they can better disseminate the awareness of proper leadership throughout their communities.

**References**


Appendix A: Practice Session Proposal Review Form

Indicate your evaluation by marking an X in the appropriate box (SA-strongly agree, A-agree, D-disagree, SD-strongly disagree). Please include comments providing objective remarks and/or suggestions for improvement.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Submission Evaluation</th>
<th>SA</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Comments</th>
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<tr>
<td>1. The content of the proposal will have practical or research applications that would be of interest to ALE members.</td>
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<td>2. The proposal adds to the body of knowledge in leadership education and provokes thought among ALE conference participants.</td>
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<td>3. The problem/idea proposed is clear and concise.</td>
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<td>4. The author links the proposal to existing literature/discussion in the field of leadership education.</td>
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<td>5. The discussion is sufficiently developed and relevant.</td>
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<td>6. The author’s findings, conclusions and/or recommendations are sufficiently justified, linked to the review of literature, and presented concisely.</td>
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<td>7. The proposal is written clearly (grammar, organization, flow)</td>
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<tr>
<th>Overall Evaluation</th>
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<td>Accept and nominate for outstanding proposal</td>
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<td>Accept for presentation</td>
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<td>Accept with minor revisions</td>
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<td>Not acceptable for presentation</td>
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Creating Teacher Resiliency: A Dialogue on Professional Development for Leadership Educators

Daniel M. Jenkins, Ph.D.
University of Southern Maine, Lewiston-Auburn College

Kerry L. Priest, Ph.D.
Kansas State University

Abstract

With the rapid growth of curricular and co-curricular leadership programs, there is an increased demand for leadership faculty and program directors. Yet, beyond conferences and formal education, several gaps emerge: How are future leadership educators being prepared to teach leadership? How specifically can we contribute to or create new formal or informal educational opportunities for aspiring leadership educators? What systems of support and resources do leadership educators need? This roundtable will provide a forum for reviewing existing professional development opportunities, and more importantly, explore the relative gaps therein. Participants should come ready to brainstorm and share their own professional development needs as well as those observed in others in the field.

Introduction

While many educational professions offer formalized professional development programs or other credentialing opportunities (e.g., Residential Housing Officers, Greek Life Coordinators), little exists in the way of this for professional leadership educators. The purpose of this roundtable discussion is to seek out the learning and professional development needs for new and mid-level leadership educators. This group includes graduate students, adjunct and tenure-track faculty, instructors and lecturers, and student affairs professionals. Beyond conferences and formal education, several gaps in professional development for this group emerge: How are future leadership educators being prepared to teach leadership? How specifically can we contribute to or create new formal or informal educational opportunities for aspiring leadership educators? What systems of support and resources do leadership educators need?

The mission of the Association of Leadership Educators is to strengthen and sustain the expertise of professional leadership educators (ALE, n.d.). How can we as a community of practice develop resilient teacher-leaders in order to strengthen our profession, and better equip both student and adult learners to be leaders who can facilitate positive change? We believe it starts with an understanding of the interplay between content, pedagogy, and leadership practice that happens in our classrooms, retreats, conference sessions, or community forums.
There is little question that contemporary education pedagogy emphasizes a learner-centered approach (Weimer, 2002), and research shows the value of high-impact educational practices on student engagement, and ultimately student success (Kuh et al., 2005). As faculty, we often attend our institutions’ professional development conferences on student-centered strategies. And, we are reminded that engaged pedagogy is what many leadership educators have been doing for years. In fact, the International Leadership Association Guiding Questions: Guidelines for Leadership Education Programs document (ILA, n.d.) encourages leadership educators to consider a range of developmentally appropriate strategies in alignment with the Leadership Identity Development model (Komives et al., 2005.) As we explore the impact of those practices on student leadership outcomes, we can’t help but to also wonder about the impact of pedagogy on the teacher herself. How is she challenged and changed through process of teaching leadership? What types of continued learning and feedback are needed to master new instructional strategies and methodologies? This roundtable will provide a space for reviewing existing professional development opportunities for leadership educators, and more importantly, explore the relative gaps therein.

Background

How many times have you met a new student activities director, graduate student, student affairs administrator, or adjunct faculty member at an ILA, NASPA, ALE, or ACPA sponsored conference introduce themselves followed by some variation of the following: “I am attending this conference because my [fill in the blank] asked me to start a leadership program on my campus.” The list is endless and the need is evident. While each of these organizations offers cutting edge programming, innovative workshops, and opportunities to network with the best folks in the field, very few can attend them all. Others may attend one or the other of our conferences and miss just the kind of session they needed.

The reality is that less than a quarter of leadership educators have formal training in leadership theory or development (Jenkins, 2012). Even fewer have had exposure to models or taxonomies of college teaching, pedagogy, or andragogy. According to a recent study exploring the instructional strategy use of undergraduate leadership educators that teach academic credit-bearing courses, only 7.9% of the 303 participants earned their advanced degree in leadership or leadership studies (Jenkins, 2012). According to Jenkins (2012), degrees in organizational studies (13.9%), higher education (12.9%), college student affairs, development, or personnel (12.2%), and miscellaneous education-related degrees (11.6%) were more prominent. Participants’ primary activity at their institutions was teaching (46.2%), student affairs (23.4%), or administration (19.5%). Nonetheless, more than half of all participants reported having personally experienced undergraduate leadership experiences while in college (50.2%) and 74.3% reported taking graduate coursework in leadership. Relatedly, in a study of leadership program institutions, Owen (2012) found that most leadership educators (52%, n = 46) “report little to no coursework in leadership studies” (p. 11). She emphasized the need for on-going education to keep pace with the “emergent and rapidly changing nature of leadership development” (Owen, 2012, p. 11).

While we are learning more about the backgrounds of leadership educators, we still know little about their training in college teaching, pedagogy, and andragogy. In a recent conference session Dujowich,
Getz, Monroe, & Haber (2012) hosted a panel discussion titled “Coming Full Circle: Preparing Promising Women to Teach Leadership.” This marked one of the only reported formal discussion of its kind and helped to set the stage for future inquiry.

Dr. Tim Elmore (2009) shares in his book, Habitudes, an image of a “starving baker”.

Elmore warns of a common hazard for leaders: “We’re like the baker who spends so much time baking bread for others, we forget to eat ourselves. Leaders must feed themselves for personal growth” (2009, p. 5). This purpose of this session is an opportunity to “feed ourselves” by bringing together our community of practice in a shared dialogue about professional development needs. Our objective is to turn our focus inward for a moment and acknowledge our strengths and weaknesses as individuals and as a profession. What do we need? And, how do we need to develop ourselves in order to develop others?

**Description of the Practice or Discussion/Interaction**

This session will be presented in a world-cafe format (Brown & Isaacs, 2005) facilitated by the authors. The goal is to use powerful questions and interactive dialogue to co-construct new knowledge in the area of leadership educator professional development.

1. Introduction of the problem: the need for leadership educator professional development
2. Several rounds of table conversations will be used to generate themes for professional development in the areas of:
   a. Content knowledge
   b. Teaching and learning
   c. Curriculum and program design
   d. Assessment and evaluation
3. Participants will report back key themes generated during their table discussions.
Implications & Next Steps

Themes generated in this session will help to further identify valued priorities for leadership education professional development. These priorities inform both the developing National Leadership Education Research Agenda and future National Leadership Educators Training Institute. We believe this session will give participants an opportunity to consider their own professional development needs, and generate potential support networks for mentoring, resource sharing, and training.

References


Go Big or Go Home! A Roundtable Discussion of Doing More with Less

K. Jill Rucker, Ph.D.
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Natalie Kincy
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Sunny Wilcox
University of Georgia

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Abstract
Budget cuts in higher education are becoming a consistent reality. Universities such as the University of Florida, Stanford University, the Texas A&M University, and the University of Georgia have all suffered budget reductions (Diamond, 2012; Investment Weekly, 2012). These budget cuts often result in vacant faculty positions and a reduction in graduate teaching assistantships. However, as the number of faculty decreases, many universities are experiencing increases in student enrollment. This proposes a problem for academic departments as faculty are forced to figure out how to serve more students with fewer faculty, instructors, and graduate teaching assistants.

Introduction
During the past three years, [University] has suffered significant budget cuts that have eliminated 130 positions related to teaching and the loss of 160 tenure-track faculty (Diamond, 2012). Moreover, an additional 3 percent proposed budget cut would eliminate an extra 20 graduate teaching assistantships (Peppers, 2012). These are significant losses when you consider the enrollment at [University] has increased by 8 percent while full-time faculty decreased by four percent over the past decade (Diamond, 2012). According to [University President], “Everything you do ultimately impacts students. To say there is no impact on students [as a result of budget cuts], I simply can’t do that” (Diamond, 2012).
Background

Because of budget cuts, a small number of teaching faculty and a reduction in the number of graduate teaching assistantships, the [department] had to rethink the organizational structure of its leadership classes. Traditionally, leadership courses had been capped at 30 students to create an intimate setting to allow for rich discussions, in-class activities, and personal interactions among students and the instructor. An increase in enrollment demand coupled with a push from the provost to develop large lecture classes dictated a new course format for a leadership course focused on leadership and service learning.

This roundtable discussion will focus on the process [department] used to facilitate the conversion of a small course, with an enrollment of 30 students, to a large lecture course with an enrollment of 100 students. Additionally, the roundtable will foster discussion among other practitioners to develop viable solutions for departments to maintain quality programs with fewer resources.

Description of Discussion/Interaction

Discussion questions in this roundtable will focus on the following:
- Process of converting curriculum to serve a large number of students
- Organizational format of large lecture courses vs. small courses
- Tips for maintaining relationships and engaging students in a large lecture course
- Strengths and weaknesses of large lecture courses
- Potential opportunities for development of future large lecture courses
- Other struggles faced by leadership educators with increased budget cuts
- Developing effective service learning experiences with large lecture courses
- Creating new avenues to support graduate teaching assistantships

Foreseeable Implications

At the conclusion of this roundtable the discussants hope to have fostered discussion about budget cuts and the effect of these cuts on leadership education programs, learned how other leadership programs are adjusting courses to fulfill increased demand with less faculty, and determined benchmark practices in large lecture leadership courses. This roundtable should be beneficial to several conference participants as many leadership education programs are facing challenges similar to [University].

Recommended Next Steps

Notes will be taken during the roundtable discussion to record information on this topic from other participants. Furthermore, the discussants would like to create an ALE forum pertaining to this topic. In the forum, the results of this discussion could be shared with other ALE members. Additionally, ALE
members could continue the discussion throughout the next academic year to report successes and challenges revolving around this pressing topic.

References


Optimizing Doctoral Education in Leadership: A Round Table Session for Program Directors, Faculty and Students

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Bellevue University

Stephen J. Linenberger, Ph.D.
Bellevue University

Denise Adele Trudeau Poskas, Ph.D.
University of Minnesota

Abstract
Providing an outstanding doctoral program in leadership, one that results in scholars and practitioners who can guide the leadership field in the future, is a mandate of leadership departments. Doctoral programs are unique as they require not only academic excellence from faculty, they also require the ability of faculty to mentor effectively, provide emotional support to students, and balance a diverse workload. Doctoral programs are also facing challenges regarding recruitment and retention of qualified students. In the spirit of continuous improvement, this roundtable discussion is intended for program directors, faculty and doctoral students will come together to discuss innovative ways to ensure our doctoral programs prepare students to demonstrate change leadership.

Introduction
Across the United States, doctoral programs are experiencing challenges regarding to recruitment and retention of qualified Ph.D. students (Poole, 2012). These challenges are not due to a lack of interested students seeking theoretical, research and application skills in leadership. Rather, the emerging issue is that traditional models for doctoral education are not adequately meeting the educational needs of many qualified doctoral students.

Ph.D. graduation rates, across all institutions, are currently reported at 56.6 percent by the Council of Graduate Schools. Given the immense resources that doctoral programs require, the cost of not graduating a doctoral student is becoming an important issue among institutions of higher learning.
As doctoral programs require intense psychological, emotional and intellectual strength from students, it is not surprising that so many abandon their programs. Poole (2012) conducted a study at the University of Central Florida to determine the reasoning behind high attrition rates. This study revealed the following:

- 50 percent of students indicated that program issues such as advising, lack of courses, poor fit with research advisor, etc. was their primary reason for leaving the program
- 27 percent indicated that financial and personal issues were their primary reason for leaving the program

Lovitts (2001) conducted a study and reported that Ph.D. students who left their programs cited financial issues (23 percent), personal issues (23 percent), and program-related issues (poor advising, research, dissatisfaction with program quality, etc.) (33 percent) as primary reasons for leaving their program. Poole states “if we are going to improve our retention of doctoral students, then we need to examine our programs in the context of resolving some of the issues leading to attrition and increasing our graduation rates” (2012, p. 3).

More and more frequently, doctoral students display the following characteristics: (Moss Breen, 2012)
- Working adults who find it difficult to leave their full-time job to pursue doctoral studies.
- Do not have personal or tuition assistance funding to pursue a 4 – 10 year Ph.D. program
- Rely upon financial aid to fund their program.
- Incur debt in order to pursue their doctoral program of study.
- Are not seeking full-time faculty positions post-graduation, but desire to move toward consultancy, corporate and academic research, part-time teaching and professional advancement.

**Background**

Despite the challenges presented above, leadership education is as important as it has ever been as corporations, governments, and non-profit organizations are desperate for qualified leaders, able to use critical thinking and research skills that guide their organizations out of crises and into a state of health.

This round table discussion will focus on new approaches to doctoral education. Similar to Lovitts’s (2001) work, others have provided cogent thoughts on doctoral education. Posner (2009) discussed the notion of the “pracademic”, a fusion of the academic and practitioner, where strong linkages between the scholarly world and “real” world are made. He suggests elements such as communities of practice, team teaching, internships, out-reach and in-reach programs to create the pracademic. He cites historical success with programs in engineering, law, and medicine that adopt this model where practitioners (doctoral students) serve as the “problem stream” for scholars, while scholars (also doctoral students) serve as the “solution stream”.
In his Carnegie report, Boyer (1990) makes a strong recommendation for a focus on applied research – research that helps solve organizational and societal problems. He also suggests that doctoral education needs to serve society (not the academic advisor) and work to reshape society (not just the leadership program itself). Boyer suggests program elements such as working outside the academy (the working adult doctoral student) while emphasizing the need for campuses to “clarify their mission and relate the work of the academy directly to contemporary life” (1990, p.13).

Hyman, et.al (2001), add to Boyer’s thoughts in their “UniSCOPE” Model of Scholarship in the 21st Century. They reemphasize the need for excellent teaching, research, service and purposeful outreach and suggest that we utilize both academic and professional knowledge for advancing professions, communities, governments and society. Their final proposition is that institutions must support these activities through revised reward and tenure policies and that all forms of scholarship should be recognized equitably.

The purpose of the proposed round table discussion is to discuss the issues above and gain insight into thoughts of program directors, faculty and students and determine factors that will enhance leadership programs.

**Description of the Practice or Discussion/Interaction**

In order to gain new insights and discovery, using an appreciative inquiry approach, participants will be divided into groups by role and will have 30 minutes to discuss specific questions such as those below. Next, the entire group will be brought together to debrief and report their findings. The last 15 minutes of the session will result in a culmination of thoughts/practices/ideas that the group can take forward as a united network of directors, faculty and students.

Sample Questions:

1. What challenges do you face a program director? Faculty member? Student?
2. What techniques have you found helpful for addressing those challenges?
3. What are optimal characteristics of your faculty and staff? Program Director? Students?
4. Who is your optimal student? Faculty Member? How can you get more of those?
5. What is your vision for doctoral leadership education in the next 5 years?

**Foreseeable Implications**

It is the hope that this session will produce 1) a network of program directors who can work to implement innovative ideas in their programs and support each other in the process; 2) a research stream concerning optimal strategies for doctoral education, and 3) a group of doctoral students who will emerge as leaders in their own institutions/organizations with the support of the network developed through this session.
**Recommended Next Steps**

Depending upon dialogue and participation in the round table discussion, the following next steps may be appropriate:

1. Creation of a monthly conference call among program directors for support, ideas, concerns, research topics, collaboration
2. The group collectively develops and pursues a research stream in this area
3. Creation of a conference call or webinar meeting among all participants to continue the discussion
4. Round table participants bring the ideas/concerns addressed in this session back to their home institution to create their own internal dialogue among faculty, directors and students
5. The creation of a special interest group within ALE that focuses on optimal doctoral education in both research, teaching and practice

**References**


Moss Breen, J. A. (2012). Doctoral Student Report, Bellevue University, Bellevue, NE


Service Learning in Higher Education: A Discussion of Best Practices for the Leadership Education Classroom

Laura Lemons
Texas Tech University

Gaea Wimmer, Ph.D.
Mississippi State University

Courtney Meyers, Ph.D.
Texas Tech University

Abstract
This proposed practice session is a roundtable discussion focusing on service learning in leadership education. Service learning has been identified as a high impact educational practice with many benefits for all parties involved. The aim of this session would be to foster discussion among faculty and students alike, regarding best practices in designing and implementing service learning, as well as barriers to successful implementation. Participants will be encouraged to share their experiences with service learning either as an instructor or student.

Introduction/Background
Service learning can be a valuable component in post-secondary education. The pedagogy of engaging students in service is effective in improving student learning (Furco, 2002). Service learning can be applied in a wide variety of settings, integrating meaningful service to the community with course instruction and reflection to enrich and enhance the students’ experience, especially within the discipline of leadership development (National Service-Learning Clearinghouse, 2013). Service learning is a high impact educational practice, consisting of two key elements; students apply their classroom learning to real-world situations and then reflect on their service experience (Kuh, 2008). Reflection is essential as an effective means for sharing feedback, as well as reinforcing and solidifying learning by students (Bringle and Hatcher, 1996). Service-learning seeks to provide a mutually beneficial relationship for all parties and to ensure that service and learning enhance each other (Furco, 2003).

Discussion/Interaction
This roundtable discussion is intended to provide an opportunity to share experiences and best practices for implementing service learning. The facilitators for the discussion have all utilized service learning projects in post-secondary courses they have designed and instructed. They represent two different institutions and teach courses in the disciplines of agricultural education, agricultural communications and agricultural leadership.
Each presenter has prepared a brief overview of their experiences implementing service learning projects as a course component, including the requirements for the project itself, reflection activities, and evaluation and assessment activities. Additionally, the presenters have compiled a list of best practices, along with a list of pitfalls to avoid. Presenters will encourage contribution to and participation in the discussion by posing the following questions:

What constitutes a service learning project? What are ways to encourage and facilitate the reflective portion of the service learning project? What courses are you already conducting service learning projects in? What other courses could you integrate a service learning component into? What are the most effective practices for structuring and implementing a service learning project in a leadership course? What are some common mistakes to avoid when structuring and implementing a service learning project? What are some research questions tied to service learning projects?

**Foreseeable Implications**

There are a multitude of resources available to help faculty and instructors develop service learning as a course component to enhance student learning. A primary foreseeable implication of this roundtable would be not only the sharing of ideas and experiences, but the exchange of resources on service learning. Additionally, the exchange of course materials, including syllabi, assignments, rubrics and other useable documents would be expected either during the roundtable or most certainly post-conference as the result of the networking opportunity provided by the directed discussion. Finally, a foreseeable implication of this practice session would be the development of a support network for faculty interested in advancing the use of and research regarding service learning in higher education, and particularly leadership education.

**Recommended Next Steps/Actions**

Comments and discussion from this round table will be captured and shared with the ALE membership. To facilitate the exchange of best practices for service learning, it is recommended that the Association of Leadership Education develop a specific discussion thread related to service learning. This would provide discipline specific ideas and experiences, along with a support network for educators interested in or currently using service learning project to enhance students’ learning. In addition, it is recommended that a mechanism be developed to share and store applicable course documents others have used to successfully incorporate service learning projects into their courses.

**References**


Furco, A. (2003). Service-learning: A balanced approach to experiential education. In Campus Compact (Ed.), Introduction to service-learning toolkit: Readings and resources for faculty (pp. 11-14). Providence,
RI: Brown University.


The Flipped Classroom: Finding the Pros and Cons

Justin Greenleaf, Ph.D.
Fort Hays State University

Jill Arensdorf, Ph.D.
Fort Hays State University

Abstract
As leadership educators it is important to consider both what and how we teach. In regards to the latter, the flipped classroom approach offers leadership educators a new teaching approach. As with any new and innovative approach, there are pros and cons. The purpose of this roundtable is to explore the concept of the flipped classroom from a practice perspective. Presenters will share their experiences with the flipped classroom to open the discussion.

Introduction
Higher education has traditionally been characterized by the stereotype of the teacher lecturing and the students listening, taking notes, and then regurgitating information on an exam. However, the idea of the flipped classroom presents a very different approach. Strayer (2007) described how, in the flipped classroom model, teachers use a variety of technological tools to push content out for the students to learn before class with the intention of using class time to engage with the students in various application activities. One university in the Midwest, which currently uses a variety of teaching methods, has attempted to implement the principles of the flipped classroom in an introductory leadership course. This roundtable discussion will focus on their experiences, and the experiences of participants who have tried similar approaches to teaching, with the intention of finding the pros and cons in regards to the flipped classroom in leadership education. This information could then lead to a set of best practices.

Background
Educators are continually finding new ways to integrate technology into the classroom. Gifford (2010) described how blogs could be used to facilitate thinking capacity and critical reflection in the classroom. Bongey, Cizaldo, and Kalnbach (2006) described the positive student perceptions of podcasting as a tool for disseminating information. Moran, Seaman, and Tinti-Kane (2011) reported that an overwhelming majority of the faculty in their study felt that social media sites could be useful for collaborative learning. These examples, and others like them, demonstrate ways in which technology has been utilized as a useful teaching tool in the classroom. The flipped classroom approach, however, takes the use of technology to a different level.
Rather than simply integrate technology into a class, the flipped approach pushes the content completely out of the class itself. The goal of this approach is to engage students in higher the higher levels of Bloom’s Taxonomy such as analysis and evaluation of content (Krathwohl, 2002). Lage, Platt, and Treglia (2000) suggested that the flipped classroom approach allows educators to accommodate a wide range of learning styles by using class time for a variety of learning activities, rather than delivery of content. Their findings also suggested that student perceptions of the flipped class were higher than traditional classes. This idea has been supported by others such as Bowen (2012) who suggested that the flipping of the college classroom is not only beneficial but necessary for colleges and universities to remain competitive in global competition. There are other findings, however, that suggested the flipped approach could lead to less student satisfaction and an uneasiness that traditional classroom students do not experience (Strayer, 2007).

Given this information, the objectives of this roundtable will be:

- Discuss the idea of the flipped classroom in relation to leadership education.
- Critique the application of this teaching method.
- Identify the pros and cons in relation to the flipped classroom.

**Description of the Practice or Discussion/Interaction**

The roundtable discussion will start with the sharing of an example from the classroom. The example will depict classes learning about the topic of conflict via the flipped approach. This includes having students learn the content outside of class through the use of technology, taking a pre and post quiz on the content, and engaging in an activity designed to demonstrate and evaluate the concepts described in the content. Outcomes from the quiz and student reactions will be shared with the roundtable with the intent of achieving the objectives listed above.

**Foreseeable Implications**

Session participants could benefit from this discussion by applying lessons learned from the example/discussion to their own classes. By working collaboratively with other educators in the field, we could begin the process of developing best practices for this approach to teaching. It would also layout a potential foundation for collaborative research between faculty members from various universities.

**Recommended Next Steps**

Once the roundtable has ended, we will ask interested participants to attempt a flipped classroom in one of their classes. We will also encourage them to join a virtual team which will use a variety of social and technological tools to stay connected. The purpose of this team will be to continue the discussion of the pros and cons of the flipped approach and to collaborate on research opportunities as they arise.
References


Using the Pack Leader metaphor to develop a behavioral framework to support authentic leadership

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Abstract
Theories and models of leadership have evolved and changed significantly over the past 80 years with the result that there is no universally agreed definition or ‘right way’ of demonstrating leadership. As a consequence, there is also no accepted framework of behaviors that leaders are expected to perform. Following the recent global financial crisis, there is a growing acknowledgment that leaders need to be held accountable, not only for their own actions and decisions, but also for the outcomes in terms of the trust they instill in their employees, the engagement of their workforce, and the subsequent performance of their organization. Attention is now turning in both academic and practitioner circles to the concept of authenticity and how authentic leadership can be developed in practice. This Roundtable Forum will present emerging UK-based research using a metaphor-based model to produce a framework of behavior to underpin the development of authentic leadership.

Introduction
Trust is emerging as a key focus in current leadership educator and practitioner circles. In 2009, The UK-based Institute of Leadership & Management (ILM) published its first “Index of Leadership Trust” which became the UK benchmark of employees’ trust in their leaders and managers (ILM & Management Today, 2009). ILM repeated their research activity in 2010 against the backdrop of recession and public sector budget cuts to tackle the UK’s national deficit. The outcomes from this survey indicated some interesting patterns with a clear finding that, although the level of trust had improved generally for the most senior leaders, those in the public sector still lagged behind their private sector counterparts and faced increasing challenges in the ongoing turbulent operating conditions (ILM, 2010). This research was followed in 2012 by a report from the Chartered Institute of Personnel Development (CIPD) – the UK’s leading professional body for personnel development – which stated that, “leadership is a key factor in affecting both individual and organizational performance, health and effectiveness.” (CIPD, 2012).

More recently, there have been a range of articles appearing in practitioner magazines and online journals bemoaning the state and resilience of global leadership and highlighting the need for more effective focused leadership to help drive performance, develop trust and promote employee well-being. A prime example of this is an online article published through the association of MBAs that posed the question, “Authentic Leadership: The 21st Century Imperative?” (Beddoes-Jones, 2011). Since then, the theme that has started to emerge is the apparent need for ‘authentic’ leadership which is summarized particularly well in a recent article in ILM’s professional magazine stating that leaders need to have a heightened sense of self-awareness and be able to modify their behavior whilst remaining genuine and true to their own values and experiences (Sappal, 2012). Similar views are expressed by CIPD in their latest research report “Perspectives on leadership in 2012:
implications for HR” where the role of HR professionals is discussed in relation to continuing to develop and support leaders in the workplace (CIPD, 2012).

This Roundtable Forum will examine the outcomes and qualitative analysis from a series of semi-structured interviews with a representative sample of senior leaders in the UK. It will provide an opportunity to explore their views, opinions and perceptions around a set of principles and behaviors proposed to underpin authentic leadership.

Background

Authentic leadership is a relatively new concept that is gaining a wide amount of interest and attention in both academic and practitioner circles. In 2004, Avolio and colleagues advocated that authentic leadership was not a leadership model or style in its own right but was a “root construct” of all other forms of positive effective leadership (Avolio et al, 2004). A review of academic literature has also identified that trust is regularly referred to as one of the recognised outcomes in the emerging field of authentic leadership (Gardner et al, 2006).

“Why Should Anyone Be Led By You?” (Goffee & Jones, 2006) and “True North” (George, 2007) are the two key texts that remain the core sources of reference for practitioners today. They both draw heavily on academic research and case studies to present the concept of authentic leadership in a simple, practical and pragmatic way. More recently, practitioner circles have shown growing interest in authentic leadership and its relevance to current practice. This is borne out by an increasing number of references in online blogs and publications that are extolling the benefits of authentic leadership in a range of contexts (Cook, 2012) (Duncan, 2012) (Chick, 2013).

The role of metaphor in the learning process has been well documented (Ortony, 1979) and, more specifically, different metaphors for the leader have recently been identified from a number of studies (Alvesson & Spicer, 2011). The six different metaphors described by Alvesson and Spicer illustrate a range of leadership styles and approaches but none of them appear to be related specifically to the development of leadership behavior that would link with, or underpin, the development of authentic leadership.

In 2010, Hunter published “Who Put You in Charge?” (Hunter, 2010) containing a suggested framework of behavioral principles to support leadership development (Appendix 1). The content of this framework was based around the concept of a leader needing to gain the trust of their followers and originated from Hunter’s observations of a human’s interaction with a canine, and subsequently related to the ‘pack leader’ metaphor. However, Hunter’s original framework was not supported by any specific academic literature or research and therefore lacked theoretical underpinning. The purpose of this Roundtable Forum is to promote discussion and support ongoing doctoral research with the objectives of testing, refining and validating Hunter’s framework as a potential behavioral model to underpin authentic leadership.

Description of the Practice or Discussion/Interaction

The Roundtable Forum will begin with an overview of the outcomes of interview-based research. The subsequent discussion would then focus on the following four questions.

1. What examples of metaphors have participants experienced when promoting leadership development programmes?
2. What core behaviors does the ‘pack leader’ metaphor imply?

3. Which of the key principles outlined in Hunter’s framework would participants consider to be the most important and relevant to the development of authentic leadership, and why?

4. What one core behavior would participants consider to be the most important and relevant to the development of authentic leadership, and why?

**Foreseeable Implications**
Participants will benefit from the proposed discussion through exploration of the use of a particular metaphor to promote and support leadership development. The discussion will provide examples, drawn from qualitative research, of the core behaviors considered by a sample of current leaders to be fundamental to leadership effectiveness, and in particular the development of authentic leadership and trust in a wide range of organizational contexts.

**Recommended Next Steps**
The longer term deliverable outcome of the underpinning doctoral project will be the publication of a research-based behavioral framework to support leadership development, which will benefit a wide variety of individuals and organizations.

**References**


### APPENDIX 1

Extract from “Who Put You in Charge?” (Hunter, 2010)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>PRINCIPLE 1: POSITION – POWER – PERSUASION</strong></th>
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<tr>
<td>Always be the ‘pack leader’</td>
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<th><strong>PRINCIPLE 2: ROLES – RESPONSIBILITIES – RELATIONSHIPS</strong></th>
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<td>Be clear about each individual’s purpose, function and contribution to the team</td>
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<th><strong>PRINCIPLE 3: ATTITUDE – ANTICIPATION – ACTION</strong></th>
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<td>Accept that it is your behaviour (and your response to others’ behaviour) that is being perceived</td>
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<th><strong>PRINCIPLE 4: FIRMNESS – FAIRNESS – FLEXIBILITY</strong></th>
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<td>Have the self-belief and resolve to stand your ground without resorting to aggressive behaviour</td>
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<th><strong>PRINCIPLE 5: RECALL – REPETITION – RESILIENCE</strong></th>
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<tr>
<td>Apply your previous knowledge, skills and understanding to current situations</td>
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### PRINCIPLE 6: CONFLICT – COMPROMISE – COLLABORATION

| Anticipate and have strategies in place to make conflict healthy and beneficial | Accept others’ similarities and differences and adapt your behaviour to get the best win-win solutions | Make sure there are shared values and understanding so that everyone can contribute in their own way |

### PRINCIPLE 7: INTUITION – INFLUENCE – INTENTION

| Learn to trust your gut instinct – if it feels right there is a good reason why | Understand the impact of your actions and adapt your behaviours accordingly | Listen for the intention and motivation rather than what you want to hear |
TEACHING CASE STUDIES IN FULL
Does having a leadership title mean you have the skills to thrive in the position?

Caroline E. Tart  
North Carolina State University

Jackie Bruce, Ph.D.  
North Carolina State University

Case Narrative

Introduction
This case study addresses the immediate need to capitalize on college students’ passion for service to an organization to which they are deeply invested by channeling their passions into opportunities and providing the appropriate learning and development experience. In the current climate, many formal leadership positions are available (both executive level, appointed and committee); however, it has become clear that simply providing a motivated, passionate student with a title is not sufficient to engage an organization’s membership to work toward common goals. Key decision makers in this case are: current member and leaders in the organization, local and national organization advisors, and university student affairs staff.

Overview/Analysis
Greek Life is an integral part of many students’ college leadership experience. Greek Letter Organizations (GLOs) provide an opportunity for many students to get involved and develop lifelong leadership skills at both the chapter and university levels in leadership and service. Members recount experiences that allow for great personal growth and the development of a sense of belonging on a large impersonal campus. In an attempt to ensure that chapters are fulfilling their missions and, indeed, providing members with positive experiences, GLOs are often overseen by campus Greek Life Staff and both local and national level alumni advisors.

The Omicron Alpha chapter of Delta Omega Phi (DOP) Sorority has been recently “colonized” at [brought to campus] a large southern university. A traditional social sorority, founded in the early 20th century, this organization boasts more than 200,000 living alumnae and more than 15,000 active collegiate members. Founded on principles of personal development and philanthropic giving, the organization strives to maintain a connection with its members that speaks to today’s current issues facing the average college woman. The standards set for each member and each chapter is clearly stated throughout the “new member” period. Members receive several copies of the obligations to which each will be held. However, these obligations are centered on academic achievement, risk management and chapter development; around which training is also provided.
Each chapter of DOP has a committee of local alumni who provide support and direction for the chapter. These women are volunteers and come from a variety of backgrounds and chapters. Alumni Committees are as diverse as the chapters themselves, women come to them with a variety of experiences, from a wide array of chapters and backgrounds. The Alumni Committee of DOP is made up of women who come with a range of experience on committee's like this one—from no experience at all to more than 20 years of experiences. They come from chapters all over the country and range in age from just out of college to post retirement. Often times these committee members receive no training and the DOP committee is no different. Within their positions they work directly (one on one) with the chapter members who hold elected leadership positions. They meet monthly as a full group and as needed in their pairs.

The National Organization of Delta Omega Phi is headquartered in a large metropolitan northern city. With a volunteer leadership team and a paid staff who focuses on policy implementation, legal/risk management, and fundraising the National Organization is stretched to breaking. Even as the push to change from traditional fraternal values to a more modern and inclusive value set sweeps Greek Letter Organizations, DOP Nationals continues to focus on what it has always focused on...philanthropy, rules and policies related to academics and risk management and history of the organization. While they reach out to chapters regularly, especially new chapters, the provision of real direction is limited, at best.

**Year 1**
During the first year of colonization, members were selected from a group of women that expressed interest in joining the new organization. The women went through a shortened form of the traditional sorority recruitment and were initiated into the organization by members from the National Organization. Post initiation, National level staff members were “in residence” with the new chapter members almost 100% of the time. Leadership development for all chapter members took the form of New Member Education—information unique to the organization’s history, purpose, and philanthropy. The first chapter leaders were elected or appointed (depending on the level of leadership) based on “personality fit” for position and provided with training that consisted of discussions of National rules or policies and broad objectives for respective positions. Local chapter advisors were selected from a pool of interested applicants and appointed to assist in guiding the members to reach the objectives provided. Local advisors had a range of advising experiences (from none to more than 20 years).

Within the first year, it became clear that chapter members, and especially chapter leadership, did not come to the table, nor were they provided, the skills to understand complex organizations. All organizations come with a structure under which they function. Members of DOP were only provided the most basic of information about the structure of the larger organization, but lacked information in neither how their individual chapter fit into the larger organization nor how to structure their own chapter such that it met expectations AND functioned well for the campus community, members newly initiated and members to come. No vision beyond the larger organization’s vision was provided. Communication skills were not stressed. Members quickly became frustrated because boundaries were mostly non-existent beyond the most superficial.
Year Two
In Year Two (Y2), National level staff was still omnipresent with the young chapter members. By this point several executive level positions had turned over and been re-elected (either because of members’ poor grades or lack of commitment). However, new executive leaders were provided with the same training on policy and objectives as previous office holders. Only newly recruited chapter members received the leadership development previously discussed. At the mid-year point of Y2, it became clear that in addition to not understanding the structure of the organization, rules, policies and their place among them, but also that members were struggling with a crisis of identity. Chapter leadership, especially, had no sense of neither “self” nor as “self as a leader”. They were not exposed to conversations designed to help them with the identification of their own beliefs, values, ethics, or morals. Chapter leaders had a hard time seeing themselves as distinctly different from members because of the responsibilities of their positions; after all, they didn’t really understand their positions. The chapter leaders did not understand themselves and therefore could not commit to the leadership role which they were given. Another significant turnover was experienced as both executive and appointed leaders were removed from office for not meeting obligations of membership, poor grades, and failing to meet the objectives of the respective position. Chapter morale visibly suffered as leadership continued to turn over.

Year Three
In Year Three (Y3) National level staff is only connecting with chapter members 2 times per semester. Advising duties have been semi-turned over to local level alumni but National level advisors are still connecting with chapter leadership via phone. The DOP chapter, as a group, wanted to build a greater sense of community within the Greek Letter community at the university and greater area in which they reside. They also realized how important a “good turnout” was to their philanthropic events since the young chapter had now started to make a name for themselves. However the lack of leadership ability proved that the work load in building coalitions and communities were much harder. These objectives required a great deal of team work which was somewhat foreign to the chapter. No one held one another or themselves accountable and therefore the quality of events and success rate was very low. At this point in year three, there was still no tangible sense of togetherness and so even the smallest initiatives were unable to get off the ground. The lack of cohesiveness remained and the plague of leadership turnover at all levels continued.

However, despite the turnover, lack of cohesion and poor performance, the course of “leadership development” continued along the same path with New Members being inculcated into the chapter via history while leaders received only policies and objectives. Morale continued to suffer, membership declined along with overall chapter performance, but attempts at intervention were sparse and focused on “membership” and “sisterhood” versus addressing issues of turnover, lack of personal commitment and accountability and personal development.
Year Four
It is currently Year Four (Y4). Turnover continues of executive and appointed leaders. Membership continues to wane, and overall chapter performance is at an all-time low. The chapter members who are holding leadership positions in the chapter now refuse to recognize the problems within the organization. After all, this environment is all they have ever known! However many of the new members realize that the chapter needs to change in order to meet expectations of the National Organization soon. The most basic skills of leadership still elude the members and leaders. Chapter leadership refuses to recognize the nature of the situation they have partly created and that they need to adjust and change depending on the situation. The chapter now sits at an impasse. In addition to compounding existing leadership issues, in year four, it is evident via reports by University Greek Life and individual chapter members coming forward that the chapter leadership are no longer leading with integrity and moral purpose.

When faced with tough decisions, the leadership stayed silent because they did not understand the fundamentals of a sound decision process. Issues of sensitivity, judgment, motivation, and action have all arisen, and in each case, the leadership has chosen to either not act, or to risk the chapter’s security by making poor decisions. Since all of the chapter members were in some way party to these decisions (or lack thereof), they all stand at fault. The DOP chapter now faces consequences from the National Organization and will require a restructuring of all leadership decision making skills and organizational structure in order to achieve future success. While local advisors have been given “free reign” to advise the group, they are ill equipped to handle the complex nature of the issues at DOP. National level staff is still in weekly contact with the chapter leadership, however, is focused on maintaining the status quo. The Greek Life Staff, believing that it is the role of the chapter advisors and National Organization to “fix” the leadership issues, is idle.

The players in the scenario all have a vested interest in seeing the chapter succeed for many reasons, not the least of which is the development of its members. However, the current climate must be addressed- clearly providing individuals with a title and little else is not preparing them to take on the responsibilities of the leadership of a large GLO. The problem to be addressed is to fill the training void that exists. Develop a training program that simultaneously and comprehensively address the lack of skills in the members holding executive and appointed positions while cultivating what passion for leadership and service to the organization continues to survive in an otherwise frustrating environment.

Status Report
Arguably, the local alumni are in the best position to assess the leadership training needs of the chapter leadership. First, they are “on the ground”, seeing the issues up close. Second, they are the responsible parties for the day-to-day advisement of the chapter and have built (usually) trustful relationships with the chapter women. Finally, several of them have years of experience as advisors of both GLO and other student organizations AND, as individuals many of whom have held the positions which they advise. A local chapter advisor offers this evaluation:

“A title is not a magic blanket. You can’t give someone the title of President, or Vice President, or Song Leader or whatever and just expect that that alone will make them successful. Personality
cannot be discounted. Passion is important. But not giving these women some idea of the nuts and bolts of their jobs, how to do it, and the SUPPORT to do it, is just dangerous and negligent. You can’t ask someone to play by the rules if they don’t know them. We also can’t continue to not engage in discussions about balance. Too many of them get these positions, and don’t know how to do the job, which causes them to struggle, which without the right tools leads to poor academics too.”

The members are ready for change. The majority of the chapter has been involved for four years, and has suffered the drop in morale and the lack of long standing success. The problem is they don’t have the institutional knowledge which would normally point chapters in the direction of solutions. One chapter member says this:

“We know that we’re not where we need to be. It’s obvious to us. It’s not like we enjoy being yelled at. We don’t like all of the sanctions and the turnover. But we don’t even know what we should be doing, so we have no idea how to fix things. We’d take advantage of the local alumni, but we don’t think they know what to ask either, since most of them are new. Nationals seems to try to help us, but we need something drastic or this chapter will never turn it around.”

The National Organization is intensely displeased by the current course of the chapter. While they are requiring the chapter to go through a restructuring and to face some serious consequences, they are focused almost entirely on the policies and procedures that each chapter must follow. A member of the National Organization says this:

I don’t understanding this group. They had every resource to be successful and yet they have never really performed up to expectations. They have glimmers of greatness; where they do something really amazing or pull off a great achievement. The problem is those are few and far between the bad choices, worse behavior and outright disrespect for who we are and what we do. We just don’t understand what else they need.

At the suggestion of the local alumni, the most recent group of chapter executive leadership team members was encouraged to meet and set goals and try to develop a plan for which to accomplish those goals. Unfortunately, most of goals are vague or are out of reach for a chapter in this current situation, and without benchmarks to mark successes along the way.

The Chapter President and Chair of the Local Alumni group have come together and come up with the following choices:

1. Partner the chapter with individuals from the national and local level as well as the Greek Life Staff to develop a comprehensive, long term, educational program for current members that covers leadership skills, personal development, and membership obligations. Additionally, a second long term training would be developed to be implemented with new members that not only will provide the expected history, purpose and philanthropy, but will add in components from the first training to provide continuity for the membership.
2. Engage local alumni to form a team of trainers to provide nuts and bolts leadership training for the executive members.
3. Assign a chapter member to be a “leadership chair” and build some informal member trainings.
4. Continue with the status quo- maybe it really just is this crop of students who can’t handle the positions and the next class will be ok.

**Case Problem**

The local alumni are concerned that they do not have the time or resources for the type of training and attention the DOP chapter currently needs. The chapter members and leaders understand that they do not have the resources they need to be successful and make better leadership decisions. After admitting the issues at hand and establishing that the chapter needs help they now need guidance on how to fix the problem. The chapter needs to establish a firm foundation and give the leaders the necessary training to be able to lead an organization appropriately. The DOP and local alumni calls your team in to help by assessing the situation and recommending a realistic and effective course of leadership action. The deliverable is a written plan that you and your team will present to the DOP local alumni to be implemented by the chapter members with support from both the local and national levels. Your plan should include the following:

- A specific recommendation on which course of action, from the four provided, the DOP chapter should take to instill long term accountability and success.
- A specific set of measurable goals related to chapter leadership success.
- Complete your plan by identifying indicators of individual and chapter success that the DOP chapter should look for after participating in leadership training programs.

Think about what success might look like, and plan with the desired end result in mind.
Teaching Notes

The following teaching notes provide further direction for the case study outlined above.

Synopsis
The Omicron Alpha Chapter of Delta Omega Phi colonized four years ago at a southern university. After colonization the leaders were appointed or elected based on personality fit rather than perceived skill set. The leaders were then equipped with what was thought to be the necessary tools to run a successful organization. However these tools did not consist of any actual leadership training; and instead were merely things needed to keep a chapter surviving: ritual information, chapter by laws, policies and objectives. Within the next few years the chapter continued to see massive turnover in leadership roles and an overall decline in chapter success. The chapter now sits at a standstill at rock bottom. They have defied their alumni, lost trust in one another, and lost all motivation to be successful. To move forward, the morale and leadership in the chapter has to change. Therefore the DOP chapter recognizes their options as follows:

1. Partner the chapter with individuals from the national and local level as well as the Greek Life Staff to develop a comprehensive, long term, educational program for current members that covers leadership skills, personal development, and membership obligations. Additionally, a second long term training would be developed to be implemented with new members that not only will provide the expected history, purpose and philanthropy, but will add in components from the first training to provide continuity for the membership.
2. Engage local alumni to form a team of trainers to provide nuts and bolts leadership training for the executive members.
3. Assign a chapter member to be a “leadership chair” and build some informal member trainings.
4. Continue with the status quo- maybe it really just is this crop of students who can’t handle the positions and the next class will be ok.

Educational Objectives
This case study focuses on real world, student centered, leadership development issues, with strong implications for Greek Letter Organizations and student development. At the end of the exercise, which often culminates with the end of the semester or term of organizational leadership study, students should be able to:

1. Identify the key components of a student leadership development program (preparing the organization for leadership success, understanding yourself as a leader, interacting successfully in groups and teams, building community, and leading with integrity). Further students will...
   a. Outline steps to prepare an organization for leadership success
   b. Apply the steps of leading change to an organizational environment
   c. Distinguish between personal and organizational leadership traits
   d. Identify characteristics of effective teams and teamwork
e. Create the steps to building community within an organization
f. Explain the role of personal accountability and trust in leadership situations

Discussion Outline & Tips for Resolution
Following are key issues (•) and questions (o) the instructor should raise to encourage discussion about this case BEFORE students set off in teams, to work through the deliverable. They are not presented in any particular order. Each issue/question is followed by tip(s) for resolution and sources of additional information.

• General **Starter** Questions: These questions can be used to begin conversation and discuss of the case.
  - Is the chapter providing the members the necessary information and resources to address the issues in a positive professional manner?
  - What other problems could stem from poor chapter performance from the DOP chapter?

**Tip:** A successful leadership development program will contain key elements related to preparing the organization for leadership success, understanding yourself as a leader, interacting successfully in groups and teams, building a community, and leading with integrity, etc. These topics are discussed fully in:


• **Issue 1:** The local alumni and the chapter are likeminded in that they realize a change is necessary to address current issues and set the chapter up for future success. However, everyone is unsure of how to address the larger leadership issues of the chapter in such a way that both current issues and future prevention have equal priority.

**Discussion Questions:**
  - How can the local alumni simultaneously address current issues and prevent future issues?
  - How can the local alumni help manage a large scale change for the chapter in a positive manner?
  - What are the steps that the groups can take, respectively, to set the DOP chapter up for organizational success?

**Resource Tips:** The students would find helpful a discussion of Change Management, what successful change looks like, how to create successful change and set up organizations to succeed in change. Specifically, students will want to read Parts I and II of:

As well as the chapter on Setting the Tone in:


- **Issue 2**: The chapter members and leaders are concerned about brand imaging and damaged campus reputations stemming from poor chapter performance. They worry about poor future recruitment and a tarnished campus image if these issues are not addressed. However, the chapter members seem more concerned with finger pointing and blame versus personal accountability.

  *Discussion Questions:*
  - How are these concerns related to leadership performance?
  - How do personal leadership and organizational leadership differ?
  - What can the chapter members do to positively manage their “leadership symbols” in order to improve their image on campus?

  *Resource Tip:* The students need to acknowledge the differences in personal versus organizational leadership and decision making. Students may benefit from using the following resource:


- **Issue 3**: Because of the turnover rate in officers and local alumni, the distance between the National organization and local chapters, and the “new-ness” of the chapter in general, work in building community, teamwork and sisterhood has been non-existent as they have worked to simply learn the basics. The chapter, alumni and National leaders do, however, understand that at this point, building community among these works, while working together in a positive way, is essential.

  *Discussion Questions:*
  - What steps can be taken to build community among and between the chapter and local alumni?
  - What are the characteristics of effective teams that can be used as a template or guide in this situation?

  *Resource Tips:* Students will benefit from a discussion and readings on both teamwork and community building. Suggested teamwork readings are:


Students will also benefit from readings on building community. Suggestions include:


- **Issue 4:** Because of the low morale, poor performance and high turnover of the overall chapter, the sisters are now distrustful of their executive officers as well as one another. The local alumni and National level leadership are frustrated with what they see as the chapters’ lack of personal accountability for the current organizational climate.

Discussion Questions:
- What approach should DOP take to restore trust within the chapter members?
- How can the executive officers be sure that communication and trust is a two way street from now on?
- What resources should they use to boost morale and performance?
- How can/should the alumni handle the situation at hand?
- How can the chapter work on making better decisions? What can they do to become more productive problem solvers?
- How can they hold each other accountable in a positive way?
- Who is best suited to administer a leadership training program?
- What additional leadership resources need to be secured to keep the chapter thriving?

**Resource Tip:** The students may find helpful the chapter on Leading with Integrity and Moral Purpose in :

**Resource List**


Leading Through Change: The Generational Transition of Ownership of Mama Voodoo’s Shrimp & Oyster House

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Abstract
This case study prompts students to explore effective change management practices and the leadership actions necessary to achieve them. The study focuses on a well-established New Orleans restaurant and what happens with a generational transition of ownership and a changing business model. Students are challenged as leadership and management consultants for the restaurant. Mama Voodoo’s Shrimp & Oyster House has a new manager and a new way of conducting business. Madeline, Mama Voodoo’s owner, understands her business, her staff, and how well her restaurant fits in the community. Elizabeth, Madeline’s daughter and the new co-manager, understands what a streamlined business would look like, believes she can get the company there, and is determined to do so regardless of the doubters or casualties. A well-designed and well-executed change management plan will strengthen the restaurant’s efficiency and bottom line. It will also preserve Mama Voodoo’s past and ensure its future.

Introduction
This study addresses the need for strong and thoughtful leadership during a time of change and transition of ownership at a local business that has a long history in the community.

Mama Voodoo’s is a New Orleans institution. You can’t go to NOLA and not eat a meal at Mama’s. The same family has always owned the restaurant, in the same building, and with mostly the same staff. They are proud to be a local business and a patron of local businesses! However, times have changed for Mama Voodoo’s. The receipts aren’t as robust and the clientele is changing from predominantly local, to mostly tourists. The ownership of the restaurant is also changing, as the Proprietress, Madeline, is getting older and her daughter Elizabeth is taking on more and more responsibility for the business, and making changes. Elizabeth, Madeline, their staff and customers, all play a role in the future of Mama Voodoo’s...after all...they’re family!
Overview/Analysis

“Excuse me, could you get our waitress please?”

“No problem sug, I can help, what you need dawlin’?”

“Another order of oysters, these are delicious.”

(To the kitchen) “Ersters!” (Then to the patrons) “They’s from right here, see dat powdna over there (signals an old man at the counter eating) he caught ‘em, been bringing us ersters for 30 years.”

“What about the shrimp? And who makes this delicious pie?”

“See dat couple cross the way (points out the window) he and his boys is shrimpers and my marraine makes da pies and pralines.”

“Your marraine?”

The waitress smiles, “my godmother, just about everybody in this restaurant is kin or close enough. Most of us been working with Mama Voodoo f’ever.”

“Well don’t change a thing, it’s all wonderful.”

The family heartily settles into the next batch of oysters that were just set down and Adele walks away smiling, but shaking her head. I hope we won’t be changin’ things, she thinks, but Miss Elizabeth seems fit to do just that.

This scene is typical at Mama Voodoo’s Shrimp and Oyster House. For nearly four decades Mama Voodoo (Madeline) and her husband Henri have run this small, but successful family restaurant. They started with what can only be described as a shack on the ‘riverside’ of New Orleans; over the years they’ve added on piecemeal and now the building is a hodgepodge of colors and styles with no real front or back. It doesn’t matter because nearly everyone who eats there has been doing so for years, and enters whichever door is closest to ‘their’ table. There is no hostess, no seating chart; when someone walks in, if they don’t automatically seat themselves an available wait-staff or Mama seats them. Everyone pitches in, there aren’t really stations or areas, and everyone just seems to know what customers need and gets it for them.

Over the years Madeline and Henri thought about building new, or getting a better place, but never did; it just never seemed right to abandon what they had built. Now with Henri gone Madeline is very happy that she doesn’t have a big fancy restaurant, or a big fancy lease. Sure sometimes it’s too crowded, and sometimes folks have to wait, but most don’t seem to mind. At least the locals don’t. The out of towners, they’re a different story. Madeline is not so sure she should get too worried about what they
Voodoo's was damaged, but not destroyed. What seemed like a miracle was in fact, a tragedy. The around met at the shack. Madeline and Henri opened their freezers and larders as soon as they could; be open the restaurant, let alone sell meals, anytime soon so why should food go to waste. Katrina was anything that hadn’t spoiled they gave away trying to keep people fed. They weren’t going to be able to change his course.

Hurricane Katrina changed everything. Mama Voodoo’s was closed for months. Those who were still around met at the shack. Madeline and Henri opened their freezers and larders as soon as they could; anything that hadn’t spoiled they gave away trying to keep people fed. They weren’t going to be able to be open the restaurant, let alone sell meals, anytime soon so why should food go to waste. Katrina was bad. It was terrifying, but she and her family (blood and wait-staff) were lucky – everyone lived. Eventually the water receded, and rebuilding began. That was when the trouble started. Mama Voodoo’s was damaged, but not destroyed. What seemed like a miracle was in fact, a tragedy. The insurance wouldn’t pay enough to really renovate the building so more re-works and add-ons were done. It was unsafe to fish the waters so seafood had to be brought in. Although they survived, many of Madeline’s friends lost their houses and businesses. She had trouble getting desserts, breads, and produce. She bought what she could as she always had, but had to supplement with expensive (and in her mind inferior) imported products. Worst of all was Henri. Katrina was just too much for him. He hadn’t been physically hurt by the storm, but he had been broken. He was sickly for two years after, probably from bad sanitation around the city as he went from friend to friend to help repair and rebuild, and he never fully recovered. He died in 2009.

Elizabeth has been a Godsend. She had moved to Little Rock for school in 1998, which turned into a job in ’02, which was a career by ’04. She came back to help after Katrina and now seems determined to stay and ‘save’ Mama Voodoo’s.

The problem is how to ‘save’ it. Madeline doesn’t think it needs saving, doesn’t think it is in danger. Sure receipts are down, but there aren’t as many locals, and people have less money. She has always been happy to see new faces in her restaurant, but can’t imagine her shrimp and oyster shack as a tourist attraction, a stop on a map, a view of how things used to be. She believes Mama Voodoo’s can show how things still are.

Elizabeth sees it differently. She thinks the restaurant needs to change, to update, and to improve. Madeline doesn’t want to fight with her daughter, but she doesn’t know if she has the energy to continue to run the restaurant on her own. She needs Elizabeth’s help, and fears the only way to get it is to change how things have always been done. The staff is as big a problem; they are very reticent to see anything change. Elizabeth has scheduled trainings to teach the new seating systems, the new registers, and the new menus, but she has never talked about why the new systems are needed. She’s pushing Madeline to keep the new suppliers, insisting they are offering a better price and a more consistent
product. Madeline can’t imagine not using local products. Everyone who works at Mama Voodoo’s has always been proud to point to the suppliers who are also diners and tell how the shrimp are so fresh they just walked themselves in a few minutes ago. Madeline can’t imagine a NOLA seafood shack not serving NOLA seafood. She is afraid she will disappoint her customers. She is afraid to change.

Madeline must figure a way to determine if the improvements Elizabeth insists upon really are improvements. She doesn’t know why things have to change now, after almost 40 years. She worries that she will lose staff because changes are being thrust upon them with no explanation, and no identifiable benefit. She worries that the restaurant and the people working in it are losing their identity. What is Mama Voodoo’s if it’s not a local place?

Elizabeth has tried to be patient, but she doesn’t understand why everyone seems to be fighting her on the changes she knows are needed. Improving businesses is her profession after all. She’s the expert and she should not have to explain or justify herself. She doesn’t want to have to be a mean boss, but the employees (and her mother too) just need to trust her. Once all the changes have been made they will see what a great place Mama Voodoo’s can be.

**Status Report**

Elizabeth has been home and working at Mama Voodoo’s off and on since right after Katrina. However, in 2012, she made the move permanent, relocating her banking and investment brokerage firm to New Orleans so that she could be with her mother full time. She is, now, the full time co-manager of Mama Voodoo’s and changes are being implemented at a regular (too regular and too quickly for the staff and some customers) pace.

Madeline loves her daughter deeply, and knows she is a smart girl with a head for business. But she fears that all that schooling has left her without an appreciation for the way that NOLA has always done business and the way of life her parents love. Mama Voodoo’s is more than just a business to Madeline—it’s home. And she knows that it isn’t just home to her, but to her staff and customers as well. She believes that her daughter’s heart is in the right place, but she does not realize change is scary, her manner is aggressive, employees are confused, and no one is sure if all of the new plans are really necessary.

“I’m so grateful to have Elizabeth’s help. She’s a very bright girl, who went to business school and I’m sure a lot of what she wants to do may make sense on paper, but she doesn’t seem to understand the restaurant isn’t just paper. It’s people, and history, and culture. We’re not making widgets; we are feeding bodies and souls. I wish Elizabeth could guide us, not just shove us through these changes.”

Elizabeth has watched her parents struggle to run a successful business all her life. She knows that often times her parents’ hard times were directly related to their neighbors’ hard times—because everyone relying so deeply on their neighbor connects their wallets as well as their hearts. Now that her dad is gone, she knows that her mom cannot run the business alone, and she shouldn’t need to. After all,
Elizabeth is home again. But she also refuses to stand by and watch her mother make bad business decisions because she thinks only with her heart and never with her head. Elizabeth had this to say about being the new co-manager of Mama Voodoo’s:

“My parents have worked 16 hour days my whole life. My mom needs a break and the first way to get one is to start making this restaurant run more efficiently. I am not making changes because I think it’s the right thing, I know it’s the right thing. I cannot help it if all of these people who work for her do not get it, but they are not my concern; my mother is. A lot of people need jobs in NOLA; if this group doesn’t want to start working with the new system, it will be easy to find many people who will.”

Madeline and Elizabeth are currently acting as Mama Voodoo’s co-managers, but Elizabeth is absolutely the more vocal of the two and has instituted several changes already with many more promised. She holds staff meetings only for the purpose of announcing changes and training people on the new systems. Madeline, thus far, has stayed relatively silent, only letting her daughter know a few times that she doesn’t necessarily agree with the changes being made. The staff however, has been vocal, but only to Madeline. They are incredibly unhappy with their new boss and lobby Madeline to “put her foot down.” Madeline knows the time is coming to have a discussion with her daughter about all the changes, but she’s not sure what to say.

**Case Problem**

You’re the new local business in NOLA—a Leadership & Management Consulting Firm right there in the Quarter—who’d have thought it possible? You happened past the restaurant the other day and loved the food, the atmosphere, and the people. And Madeline loved you! Now, she has come to you for help—after all, you told her all about your new business and this is what you do. There is good news and there is bad news. The bad news...change is never easy and this situation is all about change management! The good news is that Madeline has come to you; you want to help, and have the skill set to make some positive impacts! Now it’s time to delve into the issues at Mama Voodoo’s and make this situation right.

Using all of your previous experience as a Leadership Consultant and focusing particularly on Kotter’s 8 Step Change Cycle, you have decided on three initial ideas to consider.

1. Bring Elizabeth to a consulting session to help her understand how to institute change.
2. Bring Madeline to a consulting session to help her cope with the changing realities of business
3. Acting as a consultant, drop yourself into the fray at Mama Voodoo’s and construct a plan with everyone involved that will help ease the pain of transition for all involved

Each of these ideas will need to be addressed in some way. Think about what success might look like, and plan with the desired end result in mind.
Appendices

Selected readings relevant to this case study include:


Leading Through Change: The Generational Transition of Ownership of Mama Voodoo’s Shrimp & Oyster House

Teaching Notes

Synopsis
This scenario describes an all too common problem, deftly managing change. The restaurant is going through the more formal change of a new manager taking over, but also a less formal re-working of how business is done. The restaurant plays a pivotal and sustaining role in the culture and community. A well-designed and well-executed change management plan will keep the business in those roles while expanding their influence and strengthening their efficiency and their bottom line.

Madeline, Mama Voodoo’s owner understands well how her restaurant fits in the community; she understands her business, and her staff. She doesn’t, however, fully understand how pervasive and unavoidable many of the new business practices Elizabeth recommends are. She also doesn’t understand how to help her daughter help Mama Voodoo’s. Elizabeth, Madeline’s daughter and the new co-manager, understands what a streamlined business would look like, she believes she can get the company there, and is determined to do so regardless of the casualties or doubters. What she doesn’t understand are the intangibles of Mama Voodoo’s, how its place in the community affects its success. She also doesn’t understand the needs of stakeholders (Madeline, staff, and customers) to understand and buy-in to the necessary changes.

The student will serve as a Leadership and Management consultant who will review the scenario and will consider three possible options (directly helping Elizabeth, directly helping Madeline, and creating and overseeing execution of the Change Management Plan directly). Students need to examine these options fully with an eye on the processes involved and the myriad of contributing factors in order to provide successful leadership and management consultation.

Educational Objectives
This case study focuses on real world leadership and change issues, with strong implications for anyone who will one day work with a group of individuals, formally or informally, during a period of change or transition. At the end of the exercise, students should have a clearer understanding of the following issues:

a) The importance of defining and clarifying the roles and relationships of staff, leaders, and community in the transition of any organization or business.

b) The importance of strategic planning, including the identification of goals, work tasks, resource needs, timelines, and measures of success.

c) The key components of a leading through change based on Kotter’s 8 Step Cycle:
   - Create Urgency
   - Form a Powerful Coalition
Form a Vision
Share the Vision
Remove Obstacles
Create Short Term Wins
Build on the Change
Anchor the Changes in the Organizational Culture

Discussion Outline & Tips for Resolution
Following are key issues (•) and questions (o) the instructor should raise to encourage discussion about this case. They are not presented in any particular order. Each issue/question is followed by tip(s) for resolution and/or sources of information.

General Tip before getting started: Students would be advised to look back to their organizational behavior text book and the supplemental readings of Kotter’s Change Model book and the Koutroumanis article.


• Issue 1: Elizabeth is here in NOLA to stay. She is also the co-manager of Mama Voodoo’s from here on out. Your first order of business is to work with her. Knowing all that you know about organizational culture and change management, work with Elizabeth to help her develop an inclusive, sensitive, and successful change management strategy.

Questions:
- Identify 2 inclusion approaches you would recommend for Elizabeth to implement with her mother. Then identify 2 inclusion approaches you would recommend for Elizabeth to implement with the staff.
- Are these approaches different? Why or why not?
- Identify at least 1 communication strategy you would recommend for Elizabeth to utilize with her mother. Then identify at least 1 communication strategy you would recommend for Elizabeth to utilize with the staff.
- Are these strategies different? Why or why not?
• **Issue 2:** Someone once said that the only thing constant in the world is change; but that certainly doesn’t make it easy. Now that you have started working with Elizabeth, your second order of business is helping Madeline and the staff of Mama Voodoo’s adapt to the changes Elizabeth is trying to make.

*Questions:*

  o Is Madeline ready to make some changes? Why or why not?
    - If not, what preparations need to be made?
  o Is the staff ready to make changes? Why or why not?
    - If not, what preparations can be made to ease the transition?
  o Who is best suited to help the staff understand the changes that have been made and those that may still be ahead?
  o How can/should Madeline and the staff be a part of future changes?

*Tip:* Students will find many of these issues discussed and relevant recommendations made in the organizational behavior text book chapters on Organizational Culture and Change.

• **Issue 3:** As a Leadership and Management Consultant, one of your major roles in this scenario is to troubleshoot the current situation effectively and tactfully. Identify not only what should be done, but what is being done that may not be effective. Once you’ve done that, start developing some strategies or plans to get this group on track.

*Questions:*

  o Describe the strengths and challenges of Elizabeth’s current change management tactics.
    - Where has she followed Kotter’s model? Where has she strayed from it?
  o Identify several ways to get her back on track with the 8 stage model, capitalizing on what she is doing well while providing her with strategies to help her deal with areas where she has been deficient.
  o Describe to the staff and Madeline ways to communicate these changes to their customers and the community at large. Help them develop communication plans to implement immediately and in the future.
  o Part of change management is creating sustainable change. Identify strategies to make the changes stick.

*Tip:* Students need to focus their efforts on Kotter’s reading here.

• **Issue 4:** Leadership issues don’t occur in a vacuum. The context of the situation cannot be overlooked in any situation or case. As the consultant in this case, identify what clues are in the narrative that indicate contributing factors AND how do those factors influence the change management plan.
Questions:
  o What contextual factors contribute to the issues that arise in this case?
    ▪ Within the restaurant? External to the restaurant?
  o How do these factors affect the way the players act or react in this case?
    ▪ Would these players react differently if they were in Detroit? Des Moines? Los Angeles? Why or why not?

Tip: Students should be looking in the organizational behavior text here. Specifically, focus efforts in social context areas related to organizational culture. Additionally the Koutroumanis and Alexakis text provides further information on understanding and operating within the organizational culture of restaurants.

Appendices

Selected readings relevant to this case study include:


The Three Faces of Marketing:

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Abstract
This case study explores the complex relationship that leaders have with followers. Presented in three acts, the case profiles disgruntled Lily, a recent hire of the marketing department, Barney, the well-meaning head of marketing, and Ted, a favored employee in the same department. From Lily’s perspective, Ted gets all the preferred job assignments and Barney’s undivided attention. Ted, on the other hand, is burning the candle at both ends trying to keep up with his boss’s seemingly inexhaustible number of projects. Marketing department head Barney has fallen into this leadership role and is content to work day to day and is oblivious to Lily’s concerns.

Introduction
The marketing department has a dozen employees who collectively work to promote small and community-based businesses through the state. A career government employee, Barney Stinson serves as the administrative head of the department having previously worked as a market analyst. Ted Mosby has been with the department for three years and works closely with Barney on many marketing projects. Spurred by public interest in growing the local tourism sector and promoting education, the department has recently hired two staff in those areas. Lily Aldrin, a former cooperative extension educator, is six months into her job of promoting rural tourism in the state; a second recent hire works with public school projects.

Overview/Analysis

Act One – Lily’s and Marshall’s bedroom
Lily shivered as she climbed into bed and slid between the sheets. She pulled the thick down comforter up to her chin and gently placed her ice cold feet on Marshall. Her construction worker husband had fallen asleep reading, but Lily was wide awake; it was after all only eight o’clock. “Marshall, are you awake?” “I said, are you awake?” Lily nudged Marshall. “No, just resting my eyes,” he groaned. “Something you want to talk about?” Marshall and her pet Rottweiler, Killer, were Lily’s entire family, and Marshall had grown accustomed to being Lily’s sole confidant; other than Killer. Lily sighed, “Can I quit my job? I think I want to quit my job. I hate my boss Barney! Can I quit my job? Marshall, can I?”

Lily had worked in marketing for just 6 months and tried as she might, she just wasn’t happy. For the first time in her life, work was not rewarding and it gnawed at her. The marketing department was a relatively small with 12 employees spread out among the marketing, education, and promotion sectors.
The rural tourism and farm-to-school programs were the two most recent additions to the department, each with a single staff person. As coordinator of rural tourism, it was Lily’s job to promote ranch stays, pick-your-own vegetable and fruit farms, and rural retreat centers. A grant proposal she had just submitted to the USDA would allow the department to hire three new staff to promote agricultural tourism. The area was not really new to her, having worked for ten years in community development with the Cooperative Extension Service in a county office. Lily had left her extension educator job and even took a small pay cut for this “dream job” in the state capitol.

Although Lily was home each night, she was on the road at least three days a week consulting with ranchers and farmers; preaching the gospel of better times through tourism dollars. Her experience in Extension prepared her well for this job, but after six months she had no idea how she was doing. In Extension, Lily had the reputation of being an “idea hamster.” She brought new programs and clientele to her county and found grant dollars to stretch a thin budget. She worked hard to develop a relationship with each county commissioner, and it paid off in increased allocations each year. And those connections paid off. With help from some politically-gifted references, Lily was hired for the marketing job over several fresh college graduates with much higher grade points, but fewer political associations. Now six months into Lily’s dream job, the change seemed like one, big mistake.

Marshall adjusted his pillow, turned on his lamp, and turned to face Lily. “Okay, you have my permission to quit your job, but first you have to tell me why.” All this windshield time had given Lily plenty of time to think about her boss, and she was ready to unload on Marshall. “I don’t think Barney likes me,” Lily blurted out. “That’s it! That’s what I’ve boiled it down to.” “You don’t think he likes you?” said Marshall. But it was more than that. She was also pretty sure that Barney thought rural tourism was a huge waste of precious taxpayer dollars. While Barney really never came out and said it to her, she had come to the conclusion that he didn’t really want to put any time or effort, no resources really, in her program. “And what makes you say he doesn’t like you?” said Marshall. “We were just at his house for the Christmas Party, and I know he had a little too much to drink, but he seemed friendly enough; heck, he was friendly to both of us. I bet I talked to him for twenty minutes about the outdoor kitchen he wants to put in by his pool.” Lily pondered, “I can’t put my finger on it, but I think he could care less what I do. In the six months I’ve worked there, I think he has been in my office twice, and once was to invite us to that stupid party. I know what you are thinking; I’m imagining this whole thing. Well I AM NOT!” With that Lily pulled a paper from her satchel. “I found this in the paper recycling bin. Here’s what Barney Stinson thinks of Lily Aldrin!” (See Appendix A). “That’s the kind of support he gives me!”

Lily’s new job was quite different from her last. In her old job, Lily was the “queen bee.” Everything seemed to revolve around her. Every year she received some regional, state, or national award. “I don’t think I’m any different than before; I’m the same person I was when I worked in Extension,” Lily admitted. On reflection, Lily thought that much of her past success was due to her old boss, the county director who hired her and promoted her. But he didn’t just promote her, he was the office’s biggest cheerleader; he seemed to want to recognize every little accomplishment. It was like the office was always celebrating something. Each Friday, the entire staff ate pot luck; they had a staff/family fishing tournament at the lake; they celebrated office birthdays. And the staff worked really well together. Lily
remembered everyone in the small office felt valued; they all felt like their worked mattered. There she felt important.

But not here. Here, it was who you were and who you knew. Here, the boss-man played cards with his co-worker buddies, a Thursday night ritual that went back to a long time before Barney was in charge. Several of the more veteran employees played on a senior softball team together, and the break room was reserved for fantasy baseball headquarters all summer long. Several times a year, Barney traveled with the marketing unit to seminars and conferences, and they all took their golf clubs. “Maybe I need to learn to play golf,” she thought.

Marshall laid his head back on the pillow and stared at the ceiling. “Have you ever thought of just going to work and doing your job?” But Lily wasn’t listening; she had pulled out her laptop and was busy composing an e-mail to Barney.

**Act Two – Ted’s bathroom**

Ted grabbed a fresh towel and held it out for his son Ryan as he quickly exited the tub. Ted looked at his wrist as if he were looking at an invisible watch. “Five minutes and fourteen seconds; doesn’t seem like you could get very clean in that time, but that’s two minutes longer than your brother was in there.” Bath time was family time in their household; Ted made sure Ryan and his older brother Nolan were clean before reading them a story and tucking them in for the night. The fifteen minutes of bath time was “quiet time” for Ted’s stay-at-home wife Robin. After a quick read of *The Pokey Little Puppy* and good night kisses to the boys, Ted found Robin in the living room on his laptop, scanning the Pottery Barn website. “Watching HGTV again today were ya?” observed Ted. Robin stopped surfing, but refused to enter that discussion; a girl can dream can’t she?

Three years into his job in marketing, Ted was beginning to feel like he was really hitting his stride. And since Barney took over as head of the department, more opportunities were presenting themselves than he could ever handle. Ted’s college professors had stressed the need to find a mentor at work and that is what he did. Just after Barney took over as department head, Ted had asked Barney to help mentor him in working with community groups. Now, once a week, Ted and Barney met for breakfast in the Rotunda Building cafeteria where they discussed department issues and planned strategy.

“I put your dress shirts next to your suitcase and the ties my momma bought you for Christmas are rolled up in your shoes. Tell me again, where are you going?” “Barney wants Jon and me to go to with him to this conference on community-supported businesses,” said Ted. “We’re making a presentation on that day-care cooperative we funded last summer. Anyway, it’s a quick trip to State College and back, just two nights.” Robin groaned, “Isn’t there anyone else Barney can take on these trips? This is the second weekend this month you will be gone, and you are going to miss Nolan’s T-ball game again; he’s pitching you know. How about that new guy working with schools, can’t he go?” Robin was on a roll and Ted knew enough to just let her go. “Why doesn’t Barney take Lily on these trips, or doesn’t she golf? On that long ride to State College tomorrow, I want you to tell Barney Stinson that your family needs you at home!”
Ted wondered how Nolan could pitch in a T-ball game, but he didn’t want to argue with Robin when her blood pressure was this high and when he was about to leave. He picked up his now sleeping notebook computer and logged on to his work account. Barney had wanted to see the PowerPoint slides for the presentation, and Ted volunteered to e-mail him any last minute edits that night. Ted also wanted to get his fantasy baseball league draft picks in for the office pool. A bunch of the guys each put in $50, winner takes all at the end of the season. Barney was set to pick Ted up at the house at 5:30 a.m. so they could be on campus by noon and have lunch at Liquid Bread, Barney’s favorite campus hangout.

Trying to change the subject, Ted handed Robin a letter on department stationary. “It’s a letter of nomination for the Governor’s award; Barney’s nominating me,” Ted explained. Barney had shared his letter with Ted, telling him that marketing was nominating him for this prestigious award. Robin scanned the letter (see Appendix B). “He has some really VERY nice things to say about this guy Ted. I think I’d like him, could you introduce us?” Robin gushed. Her mood seemed to pick up a bit, and she wanted more important details, “If you get this award, is there money involved? Maybe a salary increase? I found a dining table that I think would be perfect for us.”

**Act Three – Barney’s and Nora’s kitchen**

Barney Stinson and his wife Nora had just finished a late dinner, and Nora worked to clear the dishes. Barney pulled out the *Ingalls Telegraph*, his hometown newspaper, and proceeded to read the obituaries to Nora as he did most nights. “Ester Radley died yesterday,” Barney offered. “I didn’t even know she was sick. Married four times, I did NOT know that! First husband died in 1962. What a shame. Bless her heart.”

Barney wasn’t much for cleaning up after supper. He was more of a BBQ grill guy, but he was willing to keep Nora company while she washed the dishes. Looking for conversation, his thoughts ran back to their Christmas party. “Nora, you threw a heck of a party. Everyone raved about the food and the music, and my slide show of my hunting trip to Idaho.” “Did they REALLY rave about your slide show?” asked Nora. “Well, maybe not, but they did have the good manners to watch all the slides.” Nora rolled her eyes. “I would think YOU would have the good manners not to show three flash drives worth of hunting trip photos to our guests.”

Nora caught Barney squirming; she had a way of getting right to the heart of an issue. Thinking she might have hurt his feelings, Nora tried to smooth things over, “It was good to meet that new person, Lily, I think her name was. She seemed really nice; her and her husband, what’s his name.” “Yeah, I guess so,” replied Barney. “I really don’t know her; she pretty much keeps to herself.” “And what about the farm-to-school coordinator, how come he wasn’t here for the party?” asked Nora. Barney looked puzzled, “He said he was busy. I think he said he had church or something that night. I really don’t know him too much either.”

Barney opened his iPad and quickly reviewed the PowerPoint slides Ted sent him, ignoring a few spelling and grammatical errors. “I wish I had a couple more guys just like him,” murmured Barney. He quickly
checked his Facebook and commented on a couple of posts from the department fantasy baseball league before he set his iPad down and wrestled his golf clubs into the back of his SUV. The course at State College was one of his favorites, and he was going to enjoy this little trip. Combining golf with business was what his boss said was a “perk of the job.”

Barney was just starting his second year as the head of marketing, a position he never aspired to and honestly hadn’t even applied for. When his boss retired, Barney had been with marketing the longest of any employee and the director thought Barney could keep the department running smoothly. Barney liked being boss-man all right; mostly, he liked making the decisions. With tight budgets though, Barney’s position as market analyst had never been filled, and if you asked Barney, he was still doing his old job plus he had the responsibilities of department head. He liked his job though as he was able to keep his boss duties to a minimum and work on his golf game at the same time. The most he had to do was to complete a yearly evaluation on all employees and prepare a budget; that wasn’t too hard.

Barney’s thoughts drifted back the Christmas party and his new hires that he didn’t know very well. “Why was that?” he thought. “Maybe, they were both bad hires. I wasn’t too keen on hiring either one, but we got pressure from those rural legislators. Lily and what’s this name keep to themselves and don’t seem too interested in what we do in marketing. My guess is that neither one is going to stay too long.” Before Barney can log out of his Facebook account, an e-mail alert pops up, it’s from Lily. “I can’t imagine what this is all about” he mutters. (See Appendix C).

Status Report
Not appropriate for the type of case

Case Problem
Lily Aldrin is an unhappy employee in the department of marketing. From her perspective her boss Barney ignores her and fails to value the contributions she makes to the department. Barney on the other hand, doesn’t think about Lily at all, and is perplexed at why she might want to meet with him on Monday morning. Ted Mosby is an overworked junior level staff member who is enjoying the attention of his boss, but at the same time, feeling the pressure of an ever-increasing level of commitment to his work.

1) What leadership theory best describes the situation that is unfolding in marketing? Explain

2) Reflect on each of the two employees in this case and prepare a one paragraph summary of what each wants from their leader.

3) Barney is faced with the possibility of two disgruntled workers. What approach do you suggest Barney uses with each employee?
Appendix A

STATE DEPARTMENT OF MARKETING
A Bright Future - One Job At a Time!!

July 1

United States Department of Agriculture
National Institute for Food and Agriculture
Competitive Grants Program

Grant Award Selection Committee:

You should consider this a letter of support for the grant application entitled: Farm to Zoo: Enhancing the rural tourism through experiences with domestic animals. This proposal is submitted on behalf of the Marketing Department.

Lily Aldrin is responsible for our departmental efforts in local tourism. If awarded this grant, I am committed to providing the needed office space, computer support and travel required to carry out the proposal.

Sincerely,

Barney Stinson
Department Head, Marketing
Appendix B

STATE DEPARTMENT OF MARKETING
A Bright Future - One Job At a Time!

July 1

Office of the Governor
State Department
Committee on Awards and Recognition
Rotunda Building

Award Committee:

It is a pleasure to supply this supplemental letter to the award packet for Ted Mosbey whom I have nominated for the Governor’s Outstanding Employee Award. I have worked with him for the past three years and you should interpret my evaluation of his work to be exemplary. I would place his performance in the top 1% of employees in his profession and as clearly the top employee in my department.

I have had the privilege of being Ted’s supervisor for the past two years in the department of marketing. Over these two years Ted has shown a continuous commitment to meeting the goals of our department while employing his talents in the exceptional execution of his job. Ted is the kind of employee we all hope to get when we decide to hire someone. Not only is he professional but he works very well with his co-workers and through his example encourages them to be better. He is able to work under difficult, high-pressure situations and still attain excellent results.

Ten months ago when we started work on our cooperative day-care program we were very shorthanded on the technical section of the project. With our opening deadline we did not have the time to hire new personnel. Once aware of the issue, Ted volunteered to work on the project in addition to his other duties. He has sacrificed his personal time and has worked excessive hours without complaint, all the while meeting deadline after deadline with excellent results. He has shown a level of dedication above and beyond the scope of his job. In my 10 years of working here I have not worked with an employee who exhibits such motivation, dedication, trustworthiness, talent, and self-discipline as Ted.

It is with my deepest convictions that I eagerly recommend that Ted Mosbey be selected as the recipient of this year’s Governor’s Outstanding Employee Award. In closing let me say that Mr. Mosbey is the heart and soul of the marketing department. His morals are above reproach, he is a team player, and he can be counted upon to go the extra mile in every situation.
Sincerely,

Barney Stinson
Department Head, Marketing
Appendix C

Barney,

For the past several weeks I have been reflecting on my role in the department of marketing. I have come to the conclusion that a change is needed. I would like to meet with you first thing Monday morning to discuss my employment.

Lily Aldrin
Appendix D: References


Additional References


The Three Faces of Marketing
Teaching Notes

Synopsis
Six months into her new job, Lily is feeling unappreciated and marginalized by her boss Barney. Although Barney hasn’t done anything to alienate her, she doesn’t believe he values her as an employee or her program. Lily confides to her husband that she is seriously thinking of quitting her job.

Ted is the “golden boy” in the department. He is given most of the choice assignments and is Barney’s “go-to-guy” in marketing. Although Ted knows more work is being piled upon him, he sees the extra work as grooming for a promotion. Ted’s spouse is demanding that he find more time for activities at home.

Barney has drifted into his leadership position in marketing. He has been unable to shake his former duties as market analyst and, consequently, minimizes the attention he provides in his role as department head. He values his right-hand man Ted and several other key employees, but knows little about several new hires in his department.

Educational Objectives
At the end of this exercise, students should have a better understanding of issues related to the relationship role that leaders must navigate effectively. Specific objectives include:

1. Students will be able to identify Leader-Member-Exchange as the applicable theory in this case.
2. Students will be able to describe characteristics of in-group and out-group members.
3. Students will be able to offer specific strategies that this leader should use to resolve this conflict.
4. Students will be able to describe strategies leaders may use to maximize the number of in-group members.

Discussion Questions
Following are key issues or questions to raise to encourage discussion about this case. Questions are not presented in a particular sequence or order.

1. Speculate on the meaning of Lily’s e-mail message to Barney. Does she plan to quit or is a changed Barney what she really wants.
2. Is it possible that Lily’s relationship with Barney will improve over time? Explain why or why not.
3. What would you do if you were Lily?
4. Is there anything Barney can do to improve his relationship with Lily?

5. How would you describe Barney’s relationship with Ted?

6. Are Lily and Ted being treated differently? Explain

7. What is it about their conversations with their spouses that might keep these three employees from having conversations about work at work?

8. If you were Barney’s boss and this situation was brought to your attention, what would you do?
Tips for Resolution

As with most cases there are no easy answers here. Relationships between leaders and followers are complex and your interpretation of the events in this case are most likely clouded by your own experiences. If this case is used as part of a course in leadership theory, students should quickly identify that Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) is the most appropriate theory. Lily is clearly in the out-group and Barney has placed Ted at the head of the in-group. Additionally students may see that Barney could benefit from either a mentor or a formal leadership education program. This incident could be a cue-to-action for Barney to seek out a leadership development or a mentor to help him lead the department.

As I have used this case I am surprised by the number of students who think that Lily is not working hard enough to fit in with the culture of the department of marketing. Many suggest that she should learn to play golf and make a greater effort to fit into Barney’s world. Others make judgments about the amount of household chores Barney takes on in his own home. As you discuss the case expect students to be eager to take sides and/or eager to assign blame. Students may also want to deal with the present situation; to get a “quick fix” to the problem and not dwell on how the in group or out group was formed. Encourage students to deal with the root of the problem or history (Barney) is likely to repeat it(him)self.

Appendices A and B gives you some clues to how differently Ted and Lily are treated. In Barney’s letter of support for Lily’s grant application the most he can say is that he is willing to find office space. In contrast he goes overboard to promote Ted for the Governor’s award. Although these are two quite different types of letters, Lily sees them as evidence that she has no support from her boss. Appendix C may leave students guessing as to Lily’s intentions. Is she quitting, threatening to quit, or threatening to go over Barney’s head?

The discussion questions presented above should allow you to surface important ideas about LMX theory. How long does it take to establish an “in” or “out” group? Could ingratiating behaviors move someone from the out group to the in group? Is it possible for a leader to have everyone in their in group? Does anyone every want to be in the out group? Are there valid reasons for placing followers in either group? The following section gives you a little more information on how you or your students might respond to those questions.

Notes

Leader-member exchange (LMX) theory has its roots in the theory called the vertical dyad linkage. The theory has been revised and refined in the years since. This theory emphasizes the one-on-one relationships between leaders and individual subordinates instead of the examining leader traits or leader behaviors, or characteristics of situations. Instead of looking at who the leader is, LMX theory is about what the leader does. The LMX model focuses on the unique relationship that exists between followers and leaders.

According to LMX theory, leaders do not treat all subordinates in the same manner, but establish close relationships with some (the in-group) while remaining aloof from others (the out-group). Those in the
in-group enjoy relationships with the leader that are marked by trust, liking, reciprocal influence, and mutual respect. In-group members are given more responsibility, more participation in decision making, better job responsibilities, and more rewards. The leader may overlook errors made by members of the in-group. They tend to be involved in important activities and decisions. Conversely, those in the out-group are excluded from important activities and decisions. Out-group members only do what is necessary to keep their jobs and may be mentally disengaged from their jobs. (Daft, 2010).

The in-group can be characterized by having a high quality relationship with the leader. This group receives challenging assignments, attention from the leader and may serve as confident to the leader. The exchange part of this model says that the in-group followers are expected to work hard, be loyal, and support the leader. They also may be expected to work beyond their job duties. Leaders tend to establish in-group relationships with followers who are similar to them in values, interests, and backgrounds (Nahavandi, 2009).

The out-group on the other hand is perceived to be less motivated and not as competent. Out-group members can expect to interact less with the leader and may not be included in social functions that involve the in-group. Subordinates with a low-quality relationship with their leader often experience more stress. Research related to turn-over among out-group members is mixed; they don’t necessary leave at higher rates. This could be due to the fact that they may not receive favorable reviews and may not be in a position to leave their positions, while in-group members may be promoted and leave the company.

While early research focused simply on the differences between the in and out groups, later research sought to determine if leaders might strive to include many individuals in their in-group. Where higher quality leader-member exchanges are present, employee turnover is lower; employees earn higher evaluations and are more committed to their organizations (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). The bottom line then is that leaders who focus on developing good working relationships with followers will yield more effective organizations.

Nahavandi (2010) stresses that, in an ideal case, no in-group or out-group exists. All subordinates would have access to the leader and to projects and resources. Graen (1989) suggests that training programs may be developed to move LMX theory to a prescriptive model of leadership where leaders are coached in how to develop high-quality relationships with followers. Graen (1989) also reports that the relationship between leader and follower forms early (in as few as five days) and that the roles, once established, may be quite difficult to change. A self-fulfilling prophecy may develop as a follower perceived to be less competent or less motivated may take on that persona. In this sense, LMX theory is prescriptive; it tells the leader to develop high quality relationships with ALL subordinates. The goal may be to get the entire workgroup into the in-group.
POSTER SESSIONS IN FULL
4-H Camp Counselors’ Development of Leadership Skills: An Investigation of the Connection between Counselor Training and Ability to Create a Sense of Belonging among Campers

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Abstract
Recent camping program research indicates that camp counselors build leadership skills as a result of their role at camp. This study investigated the association between training and 4-H camp counselors’ ability to create a sense of belonging among campers and perception of adult support. Analyses revealed a statistically significant association between counselors’ feelings of being prepared for their role via formal pre-service training and both their ability to create a sense of belonging as well as their perception of adult support. These findings support the idea of training counselors in order to increase feelings of competence in their ability to fulfill their duties. These findings illustrate the importance of pre-service training in building relationships between youth and adults.

Introduction and Review of Literature
Youth develop leadership skills through a variety of experiences, some as simple as working collaboratively in informal small groups and others as complex as formal leadership of clubs and organizations. This is a significant task of adolescence which is critical for workforce preparedness (National 4-H Council, n.d.; Partnership for 21st Century Skills, 2011). Several studies of summer camping programs have provided evidence that the camp counselor experience offers youth one avenue for developing leadership skills (Brandt & Arnold, 2006; Carter & Kotrlik, 2008; Dworken, 2004; Forsythe, Matysik, & Nelson, 2004; James, 2003; McNeely, 2004; Purcell, 1996) that are later transferable to workforce endeavors (Digby, 2005; Forsythe, Matysik, & Nelson, 2004). The phrase leadership skills may interpreted quite differently, depending on the context and the individuals involved in the program.
However, the use of specific terminology like goal setting, communication and decision making skills ascribes more precise meaning to the concept. These definitions acquire greater importance as adults seeking to train camp counselors build models to guide the leadership training process.

Building a sense of community among campers is one of the primary tasks of camp counselors (Garst, Browne, & Bialeschki, 2011; Henderson, n.d.; Wallace, 2008). The social relationships which develop at camp are considered a primary outcome of the camping experience by parents, camp staff, and researchers alike (Arnold, Bourdeau, & Nagele, 2005; Bialeschki, Henderson, & James, 2007; Garst and Bruce, 2003; Nicholson & Klem, 2009). Camp counselors are uniquely situated to communicate values, both purposefully and inadvertently, which build a sense of belonging among campers (Edginton & Edginton, 1993, Lyons, 2003). “Routines and traditions” (Lyons, 2003, p. 58), such as “camp songs, dining hall routines, established flagpole ceremonies and a range of other daily practices” (Lyons, 2003, p.58), the selection of group goals, and the creation of an atmosphere of trust among campers and counselors all work together to help campers feel a sense of belonging (Lyons, 2003). Pre-service training is the primary means for developing counselors’ ability to create this sense of belonging among campers (Lyons, 2003). Durall (1997) suggested that counselors use a variety of strategies to build belonging including, but not limited to, modeling empathy and understanding, pairing campers to promote friendship, and recognizing campers’ contributions to group unity. Adults provide critical support to counselors’ development of leadership skills by creating a safe environment where they can practice using existing skills and acquire new knowledge (Garst, Browne, & Bialeschki, 2011).

**Purpose and Objectives**

The purpose of this evaluation was to understand 4-H camp counselors’ development of leadership skills. Given the context of summer camp and the role of camp counselors, this evaluation was aimed at describing counselors’ perceptions of their ability to promote a sense of belonging among campers and perceptions of adult support for their role as a counselor and the relationship among those variables. The objectives of this evaluation were:

1. To describe camp counselors beliefs of their preparation for their role at camp before attending camp and after having served as a camp counselor,
2. To describe camp counselors beliefs about the effect of training received both before attending camp and at camp on their preparedness for their counselor role,
3. To describe camp counselors perception of their ability to create a sense of belonging among
campers, and

4. To describe camp counselors perception of adult support for their role at camp.

Method

Participants
The target population for this evaluation was a census of 347 4-H high school age camp counselors participating in a southeastern United States summer 4-H camp. The response rate was 95.4% with 331 counselors participating in the evaluation. The 16 non-respondents were unable to participate in the evaluation because of conflicting duties at the camp. Given the context within which the evaluation was conducted, on-site during the camping week, the non-response rate was very low. Respondents were predominantly female (61.9%) and white (75.8%). The grade distribution of respondents ranged from 8th to 12th grades with a mean grade level of 10.17 (SD=1.08). Respondents were fairly equally divided between 4-6 in years of participation in 4-H (42.9%) and 7-10 years of participation (48.0%). The mean years of participation in 4-H was 6.18 (SD=1.99). Table 1 summarizes the demographic data.

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<td><strong>GENDER</strong></td>
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<td>Girls</td>
<td>(n = 205; 61.9%)</td>
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<td>Boys</td>
<td>(n = 126; 38.1%)</td>
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<td><strong>RACE</strong></td>
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<td>White</td>
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<td>African American</td>
<td>(n = 68; 20.5%)</td>
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<td>Other</td>
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Table 1. Selected Camp Counselor Demographics
Parental permission for participation in the 4-H Camp evaluation was included as part of the camp enrollment process and verbal assent from counselors was given before the survey was administered.

**Measures and Analysis**

The instrument used for this study was developed specifically for this evaluation as no scales existed which measured the constructs of interest.

**Perceptions of Preparedness**

Counselors’ perceptions of preparedness for their role at camp were measured using four items. Two items probed global perception of preparedness: “How prepared did you feel for your role as a camp counselor before coming to camp?” and “Having spent nearly a week at camp, how well prepared were you?” Responses were collected using a 3-point response category (1=Unprepared, 2=Pretty well prepared, 3=Very well prepared). Two additional items were used to investigate counselors’ perception of the contributions of formal and informal training (in the form of adult coaching) to their feelings of preparedness: “The training I received before camp prepared me for the situations I have faced at camp this week” and “The training I’ve received at camp prepared me for the situations I have faced at camp this week.” A 5-point Likert –type scale was used: 0=Not Applicable, 1=Strongly Disagree, 2=Disagree,
Perception of Ability to Create a Sense of Belonging
A 3-item, Likert-type scale was created to measure counselors’ perception of their ability to create a sense of belonging among campers. Items included “I was able to involve all of the campers in our group activities,” “I made all the campers feel important,” and “I was confident I could help all campers feel comfortable in the group.” Responses categories were 1=Strongly Disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=Agree, 4=Strongly Agree. Exploratory factor analysis revealed the existence of a one-factor solution which explained 39.055% of the variance. A Cronbach’s α measure of internal consistency was computed to determine the degree to which the variables measured a factor or latent construct (Crocker & Algina, 1986) and returned a 0.639. While this is a relatively low α value, it has been suggested by Kline (1999) that values below .7 are realistic when measuring psychological constructs because of the diversity of the constructs being measured.

Perception of Adult Support
Perception of adult support was measured using a 4-item, Likert-type scale created for the purposes of this evaluation. Items included “I felt appreciated by the adults at camp,” “I felt appreciated by the camp staff,” “I found it easy to ask the adults for help when I had a problem I could not solve,” and “The adults respected me.” The following response categories were provided: 1=Strongly Disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=Agree, 4=Strongly Agree. A one-factor solution explaining 42.354% of the variance was revealed through exploratory factor analysis. A Cronbach’s α value of 0.715 was returned demonstrating acceptable reliability (George & Mallery, 2003).

Procedure
Counselors volunteered to work at the camp for five consecutive days which included staying nightly in cabins with the campers. A total of nine camps were held with different counselors volunteering each week. No counselors volunteered for more than one camp week. Prior to attending camp, counselors were required to participate in six hours of training to prepare them for their camp duties. Training topics included relationship building, developing personal leadership skills, communication skills and team building skills, managing difficult situations and creating a sense of belonging, resolving conflicts, and helping campers develop life skills. Additionally, informal training in the form of adult coaching was provided to counselors throughout the camp week. This coaching did not have a set agenda but instead
focused on the particular situations or problems that counselors were experiencing during a given week. Counselor duties included supervision of campers during group time, informal teaching responsibilities as assigned by staff, and shared responsibility with the adults for campers in the cabins at night and during rest time.

This evaluation utilized a post-only design with some retrospective post-then-pre questions. Data were collected from camp counselors on the last full day of camp. An audience response system, also commonly referred to as “clickers,” was used to collect counselor responses ([Author], 2011). Audience response systems are becoming quite common in classrooms as means of promoting student engagement. Gamito, Burhansstipanov, Krebs, Bemis & Bradley (2005) indicated that the system was useful in a research setting for reducing data entry errors and burden while also maintaining participant confidentiality. Survey items were presented on PowerPoint slides and were read aloud by the evaluator. Readability had been established at 5.1 using the Flesch-Kincaide Grade Level readability statistics, thus no discussion or clarification of the meaning of the items, or specific words within the items, was provided.

**Results**

**Feelings of Preparedness for Counselor Role**

Counselors were asked to report how prepared they felt to serve as a counselor. Two questions were used to probe this concept, and a 3-point response category was used (1=Unprepared, 2=Pretty well prepared, 3=Very well prepared). One question asked counselors how prepared they felt before they came to camp (M = 2.48; SD = .659). Counselors were then asked to report how prepared they felt they were, given their experiences at camp that week (M = 2.52; SD = .663). The majority of campers (before camp – n=298; after week at camp – n=297) reported feeling prepared to serve as a camp counselor.

**Perceptions of the Contribution of Training to Feelings of Preparedness for Counselor Role**

Counselors were asked how the training they received for their counselor role impacted their feelings of preparedness. Training was provided formally before camp and informally at camp. Counselors tended to believe that the formal training provided before camp (M=2.75; SD=1.165) was more meaningful with 235 (72.1%) counselors either agreeing or strongly agreeing with this item and 184 (56.4%) agreeing or strongly agreeing that informal training in the form of adult coaching received during the camp week (M=2.16; SD=1.578) helped them feel more prepared.

**Perception of Ability to Create Belonging among Campers**
Counselors were asked to report their belief in their ability to help campers feel like they belonged to the group. Responses for the three items representing this construct were recorded on a 4-point Likert-type scale (1=Strongly Disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=Agree, 4=Strongly Agree). The vast majority of counselors reported feeling confident in their ability to create an environment where campers felt like they belonged to the group (M = 3.15; SD = .609).

**Perception of Adult Support**

Counselors were asked to judge their feelings of adult support for their role as camp counselors using a 4-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1-Strongly Disagree to 4-Strongly Agree. The grand mean for this construct, representing counselor responses from all 9 weeks of camp, was 2.83 (SD= .771). Counselors during week 3 had the highest rating for this construct (M = 3.20; SD = .648) while counselors from weeks 7 (M = 2.44; SD = .682) and 9 (M = 2.33; SD = .786) had the lowest rating.

A weak, yet statistically significant, positive correlation was found between counselors’ feeling of being prepared, before camp, for their role and their belief in their ability to promote belonging among campers (R = .211; p < .01). The association between feeling prepared and belief in ability to promote belonging increased slightly as a result of counselors having been at camp for a week (R = .301; p<.01).

There was also a weak, yet statistically significant, positive correlation between their views that the training received before attending camp helped prepare them for the role and their belief in their ability to promote belonging among campers (R = .319; p < .01). There was no statistically significant association between informal training in the form of adult coaching at camp and counselors’ belief in their ability to promote belonging among campers.

Likewise, there was a weak correlation between counselors’ feeling of being prepared, before camp, for their role and their positive judgment of adult support (R = .156; p < .01). This association between feeling prepared and positive judgment of adult support was stronger (R = .329; p<.01) after counselors had been at camp for the week. Their belief that the training received before attending camp helped prepare them for their role also was correlated with their positive judgment of adult support (R = .166; p < .01). There was a slightly stronger relationship between adult coaching at camp and counselors’ perception of adult support (R = .218; p<.01).

One limitation of this study was the use of a post-only design. Given the limited access to counselors before camp, the post-only design was chosen as access to counselors while they were at camp was guaranteed. Retrospective post-then-pre questions about counselors’ perceptions of training included in an effort to strengthen the design. Post-then-pre evaluation measures are appropriate when the
participants have little knowledge about a subject which prevents them from providing an accurate baseline measure (Rockwell & Kohn, 1989).

**Discussion**

Research suggests that one of the most important roles of camp counselors is to promote a sense of belonging among campers (Garst, Brown, & Bialeschki, 2011; Henderson, n.d.; Wallace, S.). This study indicates that when camp counselors feel prepared for their role they feel more confident in their ability to promote a sense of belonging among campers. Additionally, receiving formal pre-service training before attending camp helped prepare them for their role and helped them promote belonging. This finding is very similar to findings in Digby’s (2005) study which indicated that training sessions increased comfort and confidence in the counseling role. This highlights the importance of clearly articulating the expected roles of counselors, of determining the specific leadership skills that need to be developed for success in the role, and of creating formal training that addresses fostering those skills. Acknowledging the importance of the youth and adult partnership in the success of a camping program is, likewise, of great importance. Findings from this study show an association between counselors feeling prepared for their role and their positive perception of adult support. Additionally, the contribution of formal training before camp was related to counselors’ positive views of adult support. While no other studies have formally looked at this association among preparedness, training, and perception of support, it highlights the importance of considering the contribution of multiple factors when assessing youth and adult partnerships. Other studies have found that building trust and open communication contribute to better working relationships ([Author], 2006; Silva, 2002). This study highlights how feelings of confidence in preparedness for their role are related to training and how confidence and training may influence youth views of adult support. While leadership skill development in general is widely researched, the development of leadership skills in youth is not as well understood. One of the critical needs in youth leadership research is for the development of a model of youth leadership skill development. A meta-analysis of descriptive youth leadership studies may be helpful in providing direction to this field of study.

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A Case Study of Leadership Pedagogy in an Organizational Behavior Classroom

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Abstract
Participation in organizational behavior classes and hands-on learning can lead to successful college graduates as well as an innovative way of teaching. Thus, the study of leadership pedagogy is important. According to Rosch and Anthony (2012) a “successful pedagogy, then, means educators should conceptualize pedagogy as larger than teaching strategies, where educators serve as leaders themselves in helping students learn and grow” (Rosch and Anthony, 2012, p. 38). Therefore, “knowledge of college student development and specifically college leadership development, as well as research in leadership theory and practices, can help college leadership educators become more effective” (p. 37). Thus, the purpose of this study is to create a deeper understanding of leadership pedagogy in an organizational behavior classroom through participatory class activities.

Introduction
Schneider (1985) states that organizational behavior is constantly changing with “a focus on organizational survival and effectiveness versus concern for the human element in the organization” (p. 574). Employers are looking for people that have skills in leadership, communication, and other behavioral skills (McEvoy, 2011; Alsop, 2004). These skills are especially considered when hiring college graduates (McEvoy, 2011; Merritt, 2004; Porter & McKibbon, 1988). In order to gain these skills, students can practice with hands-on experience in and outside the classroom. According to Hearns, Miller, and Nelson, “the benefits of hands-on occupation in enhancing observation, concentration, and memory – all of which are necessary for learning” (p. 169).

Background
Pedagogy has long been studied. Johann Heinrich Pestalozzi is thought to be the father of pedagogy because of his work in educating children (Downs, 1975). It has since been developed and adapted by educators around the world. Pedagogy can be defined into three areas: effective instructional strategies, classroom management techniques, and program design (Marzano, 2007).

Dwyer, Millett, and Payne (2006) said skills new hires to an organization lack are the ability to communicate, to collaborate and to think critically. Skills like these are needed to be an effective team member, problem solver and key player in the organization (Brungardt, 2011). Having college students
take classes in order to obtain these skills before graduation and entering the working world should be considered important according to Rynes, Trank, Lawson, and Ilies (2003). These classes would benefit students because employers tended to hire students who had taken those types of classes (Rynes, et al., 2003).

The theoretical framework for this study was Conger’s (1992) four approaches to leadership development. Conger (1992) said that there are four ways to go about training leaders, including personal growth, conceptual understanding, feedback and skill building. These four approaches can be applied to learning leadership in the academic setting.

Since participation in organizational behavior classes and hands on learning can lead to successful graduates as well as an innovative way of teaching, the importance of leadership pedagogy emerges. According to Rosch and Anthony (2012) a “successful pedagogy, then, means educators should conceptualize pedagogy as larger than teaching strategies, where educators serve as leaders themselves in helping students learn and grow” (Rosch and Anthony, 2012, p. 38). Therefore, “knowledge of college student development and specifically college leadership development, as well as research in leadership theory and practices, can help college leadership educators become more effective” (p. 37). Thus, the purpose of this study is to create a deeper understanding of leadership pedagogy in an organizational behavior classroom through participatory class activities. By understanding how effective activities are in teaching students about organizational behavior, the researcher will be able to improve future classroom lessons. After each activity, students will be asked to fill out an anonymous note card with questions regarding the activity. In order to direct this study, guiding questions were created:

1. How do students react to hands-on learning based on the lessons taught in class?
2. How did students see themselves using the activity outside of the classroom?
3. How do activities influence students understanding of organizational behavior?

### Methods

This case study was completed using Conger’s (1992) four approaches to leadership development as the theoretical frame. A purposeful convenience sample of students in the AEE 460 Organizational Leadership Development in Agriculture and Life Science spring 2013 course was the population of this study. A convenience sample according to Merriam (2009) is “based on time, money, location, availability of sites or respondents, and so on” (p. 79). Students enrolled in the class attended lecture every Tuesday with “Activity Days” taking place on the following Thursday. After each Thursday activity, blank note cards were passed out to all students. Five questions were then displayed on the screen of the classroom for students to answer before leaving class. Students voluntarily answered the five questions by writing their responses on the note cards. After note cards were collected, the researchers performed a content analysis via constant comparative method (Corbin and Strauss, 1990). A constant comparative method of analysis compares new data to old data to check for similarities and differences (Corbin and Strauss, 1990). For each set of note cards received, a content analysis of the information was completed. Content analysis contained three steps of coding: open coding, axial coding and selective coding (Corbin and Strauss, 1990; Creswell 1998).
**Results to Date**

Upon initial inquiry, it’s been found that hands-on activities have added value to lecture by providing a different outlet for students to utilize what they learn in class. Initial findings are listed below based on guiding questions:

**Question One: How do students react to hands-on learning based on the lessons taught in class?**

There were two ways that students reacted to the activities that were taught in class – positively and negatively. On the positive side, students enjoyed hands-on learning in the classroom. The activity sessions helped many students connect with the materials better as well. Working in groups, open discussion and interactive sessions were the preferred type of activities to be taught. On the negative side, students found some activities boring and that not all groups worked well together each time.

*Positive:*
- “This activity showed me different personality choices I hadn’t seen” (NC2F)
- “This activity was fun and helped us get to know our classmates better” (NC3Q)
- “The ability to see similarities and differences about how people view leadership, work environments, etc.” (NC1K)
- “I liked the thought process behind it and the reward” (NC4N)

*Negative:*
- “I felt some people took things personally when discussing each group’s differences, which shouldn’t happen. This is all constructive” (NC4D)
- “Today’s activity is boring. I think there should be another way to teach these subjects” (NC5K)

**Question Two: How did students see themselves using the activity outside of the classroom?**

Students enjoyed a wide range of activity topics including personality, teamwork, and organizational design.

- “I think that it will influence relationships with co-workers, people in general” (NC3A)
- “It will cause me to look at the group of people I will be working with. That way I can see if we get along” (NC2H)
- “Helps me to consider consequences for actions – or results” (NC4H)
- “When it comes time for a career, I’ll think twice before I take the job” (NC1I)

**Question Three: How do activities influence students understanding of organizational behavior?**

The Thursday activities provided an opportunity for students to reflect on what they were learning as well as think ahead to what the future might hold in a work environment. Students thought many of the concepts could be used in an organizational setting and increased their understanding of organizational behavior.

- “Learn to talk to people without drowning other people out” (NC3R)
- “You have to deal with others and their personalities” (NC2M)
“It helps us see what others like to look for in a job atmosphere” (NC1D)
“Help advise people on making business decisions” (NC5F)

Conclusions and Implications
Initial results conclude that, overall, hands on learning is helping students connect with class content material. Students developed an understanding of organizational behavior and leadership through participation in in-class activities that produced training through all four of Conger’s (1992) stages of leadership development. It is implied that by using Conger’s (1992) types of leadership development in a college classroom setting, students will have a better understanding of the class content and will be better able to perform leadership skills outside of class. Future studies include performing similar research in different classes. Other research would include the use of Conger’s (1992) leadership development styles in different age classrooms.

References


An Assessment and Analysis of Self-Consciousness of Undergraduate Students Enrolled in a Leadership in Agriculture Course

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Abstract
Self-consciousness has important implications for behaviors and is related to one’s leadership skills. This study assessed and analyzed 69 undergraduate students’ private self-consciousness and public self-consciousness by a survey adapted from the Self-Consciousness Scale. Most of the students had low private self-consciousness as well as low public self-consciousness. Additionally, the female students had significantly higher public self-consciousness than male students. This study may help the students become more aware of their inward personality. Also the instructor can utilize this study as a teaching tool for creating a better teaching and learning environment.

Introduction
Leadership development has been deemed to be one of the important objectives of undergraduate agriculture degree programs in land-grant colleges in the U.S. (Love & Yoder, 1989; Schumacher & Swan, 1993). Self-awareness, refers to the existence of self-directed attention, and has been listed as the first development target in leader development (Fenigstein, Scheier & Scheier, 1975; Day, 2000). Research indicates that self-awareness can be manipulated by situational variables; whereas, self-consciousness, a more consistent personality disposition focusing inward, can affect one’s self-awareness, performance as well as leadership skills (Duval & Wicklund, 1972; Buss & Scheier, 1976; Day, 2000; Day, Zaccaro & Halpin, 2004).

Background
This study is based on the theory of Self-Consciousness Scale (SCS) developed by Fenigstein, Scheier & Buss (1975). SCS consist three components: Private Self-Consciousness, Public Self-Consciousness and Social Anxiety. The first two components have been shown to have important implications for behaviors (Carver & Glass, 1976; Franzoi, 1983). The purpose of this study was to determine the extent of self-consciousness of the undergraduates in a leadership course at [State] University. The three objectives of this study were to: 1) Determine the extent of private self-consciousness of the students, 2) Determine the extent of public self-consciousness of the students, and 3) Compare the differences between male and female respondents regarding their extents of self-consciousness.
Method
The target population was 84 undergraduate students who enrolled in a leadership course offered by the Agricultural Education Department at [State] university. Students were required to complete a survey, which was built with parts of SCS. The survey excluded Social Anxiety items from SCS and retained the ten descriptive statements for private self-consciousness and seven statements for the public self-consciousness. Students rated themselves on a five-point likert scale: 0=Extremely Unlike Me, 1=Somewhat Unlike Me, 2=Neither Like Me Nor Unlike Me, 3=Somewhat Like Me, and 4=Extremely Like Me.

Reliability was established at Cronbach α=.75 for private self-consciousness and α=.84 for public self-consciousness (Scheier & Carver, 1985). Both private and public self-consciousness scales were considered valid as the previous scholars had verified the face validity and construct validity by 105 undergraduates (Carver & Glass, 1976). The past average scores (P. Avg.) of private self-consciousness and public self-consciousness, from a previous study, have been reported: 26 and 19 respectively (Waitley, 2010; [Author], 2011). The survey was delivered with Qualtrics (Version: 38924) and all the data was analyzed using SPSS.

Results to Date
Sixty-nine out of 84 (82.1%) students responded to the survey. The first two objectives were achieved by information in Table 1. For both the private self-consciousness and public self-consciousness, most students’ scores were lower than the P. Avg. No central tendency statistic of the students’ scores was found being higher than the P. Avg. In addition, average scores of the students were found significantly lower than P. Avg. regarding both private and public self-consciousness.

Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>P. Avg.</th>
<th>Cumulative Frequency (Percentage)</th>
<th>Central Tendency</th>
<th>T-Test</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>C</td>
<td>&lt;C</td>
<td>≥C</td>
<td>Mdn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>55(79.7%)</td>
<td>14(20.3%)</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>40(58%)</td>
<td>29(42%)</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. *P<.05. Simple Size, N=69. P. Avg. was the average score form past people who took this survey. T-Test was two-tailed, and test value was equal to P. Avg.

The last objective was addressed by Table 2. For the private self-consciousness, no significant difference between the average scores of the male and female students was detected, though the average score of female students were slightly higher than the males’. However, the average score of the public self-consciousness of the females was significantly higher than the male counterpart.
Table 2.

Statists and tests of the subtends’ self-consciousness by gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>N (Percent)</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>Between Group</th>
<th>Within Group</th>
<th>Between Groups</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Private</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>39(57%)</td>
<td>20.82</td>
<td>5.104</td>
<td>59.898</td>
<td></td>
<td>30.001</td>
<td>0.162</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>30(43%)</td>
<td>22.70</td>
<td>5.932</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>39(57%)</td>
<td>15.59</td>
<td>4.972</td>
<td>133.915</td>
<td></td>
<td>31.054</td>
<td>0.042*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>30(43%)</td>
<td>18.40</td>
<td>6.273</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. *P<.05

Discussion

The results of this study indicate that these undergraduate students held relatively low private self-consciousness as well as low public self-consciousness. Based on the literatures (Buss & Scheier, 1976; Fenigstein, Scheier & Buss, 1975; Waitley, 2010), the students tend to be less self-reflective and less attentive to their inner thoughts, feelings, and motives; they may show less aggression to anger and have fewer chances of falling into depression because of their low private self-consciousness. On the other hand, owing to the low public self-consciousness, they may pay less attention to how they impress others and are viewed by others, and may not tend to accept responsibility for the rejection, but this also helps them reduce the anxiety in social situations. In addition, the female students showed higher public self-consciousness than males, which indicates that the female students may be more sensitive to behaviors of others than the male students (Carver & Glass, 1976). This finding is consistent with a previous study done by Fenigstein (1974). Finally, by making the results and findings of this study available to the students, these students may become more aware of their levels of private self-consciousness and public self-consciousness, and become more responsive to various environments they may be in. Instructors may use the findings develop teaching tools and learning projects to advance students’ learning in a leadership course.

References


Behavioral Integrity as a Key Conceptual Framework for Developing Ethical Leaders

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Abstract

Behavioral integrity offers a science-based approach to character development that facilitates learning in a few profound ways. It does not encompass all that is character or all that is leadership, but a lack of behavioral integrity would undermine either profoundly. Behavioral integrity can serve as an excellent basis on which to build.

Introduction

“Keep thy smooth words and juggling homilies for those who know thee not.”
– Lord Byron

In other words, I know you too well to believe what you are trying to tell me. It is what you might say to someone who has utterly blown his credibility, or who you believe chooses his words based more on expediency than on truth. The sad thing is, most of us have thought something like that, hopefully to a lesser extent, about one or more of the managers or executives under whom we have served. A lucky few of us have served under leaders who we saw as impeccable in their truthfulness and the strength of their word. Almost every leader falls somewhere between the two extremes.

The first thing we want to know about someone we are about to follow – or someone to whom we are about to entrust anything (especially our livelihoods) – is how good is their word. The answer to that question is their “behavioral integrity.” Behavioral integrity (BI, Simons, 2002) is the perceived alignment between another’s words and actions – the extent to which the observer sees them as keeping promises and living the same values they talk. It is “walking the talk” and it is also “talking the walk” and consistently following through on commitments. Followers judge leaders, especially, on how well they do these things. And that judgment has consequences: few things will undermine a leader more than followers’ suspicion that his word cannot be counted upon. If the first thing your followers think when you speak is “does she mean it?” then you can no longer lead effectively.

A primary focus on behavioral integrity stands to dramatically enhance education aimed at ethics and character development, especially where that education seeks to develop leaders. The reasons for that
enhancement are twofold: First, the argument and justification for the concept of behavioral integrity are parsimonious and science-based. No shared cultural or religious referents are needed in order to promote buy-in among students: all that is needed is some respect for science as a source for accurate information, and a valuing of good performance outcomes over poor performance. The second reason is that the BI framework facilitates the learning process. The fact that behavioral integrity language is practical and not moral makes personal failures discussable with less shame. Skills and habits of behavioral integrity can readily be developed with training, coaching, and social support. Neurological evidence suggests that the emotional context of behavioral integrity training as a striving for excellent performance dramatically enhances the learning process over more traditional ethics training that is oriented toward avoiding mistakes (Boyatzis, 2006). The moral aspects of ethics and character development are certainly important – but I submit that they can be more readily built from a base of behavioral integrity.

Followers often view their own unethical behavior as justifiable retribution and/or rational within the context of unethical organizational norms (Rhodes, 2006). Substantial research suggests followers’ perceptions of leaders’ ethical standards shapes followers’ ethical or unethical behavior (Wimbush & Shepard, 1994). Perhaps the most well recognized experiments displaying the impact of this phenomenon are Bandura, Ross, and Ross’ (1961, 1963) Bobo doll experiments. The Bobo experiments examined the impact of older models on the patterns of behavior in children. The children’s responses to behavioral modeling led Bandura to assert the children exposed to aggressive models were more likely to display physically aggressive behavior than the children who were not. Children are unfortunately not alone in their susceptibility to the impact of unethical behavior when modeled and especially advocated by a person in a position of influence. Stanley Milgram’s (1974) classic obedience-to-authority experiment provides possibly the most chilling example of how easily seemingly good people, even adults, may make unethical decisions when under pressure. Approximately two-thirds of the participants administered what they believed to be dangerous levels of electric shock to subjects despite hearing their screams of pain and calls for mercy.

Conversely, virtue breeds virtue, and witnessing ethical behavior by leaders stimulates comparable behavior (Paine, 2003). Awareness of the wide range of potential positive and negative effects of leader behavior is has generated substantial literature and practitioner attention. In addition to an increasing number of books and other scholarly publications, the crucial nature of ethical leadership and organizational practice is resonating in corporate boardrooms. The percentage of large companies with ethical codes has increased from 15% in 1960 to 90% in 2002. Additionally approximately 50% of all businesses provide formal ethics training (Treviño & Waver, 2003). Leadership educators, entrusted with the development of future leaders, benefit from seeking ways to best cultivate ethical leaders (Lennick & Kiel, 2005). Here we argue that a focus on behavioral integrity is a powerful tool in this mission.
The Scientific Basis

Simons (2002) defined behavioral integrity as the perceived pattern of alignment between a person’s words and actions. It is comprised of the extent to which the person, group, or organization is seen as keeping promises and as enacting espoused values. For our current purposes, we will focus the discussion of BI on the individual level. BI is an ascribed trait, meaning that the observer considers that the demonstrated strong or weak level of alignment and follow-through is a result of who that person is rather than his circumstances. Behavioral integrity differs from most common-language definitions of integrity, which focus on consistent adherence to an accepted set of moral values. Behavioral integrity, in contrast, does not factor in the morality of the values that are espoused and enacted.

For example, a colleague of the lead author used to proclaim that he was not interested in what was good for the institution and his decisions would be guided by self-interest. I did not trust the guy, but I gave him credit for representing his values honestly and so demonstrating behavioral integrity. And I trusted him more because of this honesty than I would have if he had taken the more common route of talking about altruism while enacting selfishness. The colleague demonstrated and espoused values with which I did not concur – selfish ones. But at least he talked the same values he lived – and that is important.

It is critical to note also that behavioral integrity is not a binary distinction – it is a continuum. It is not about sorting the gems from the clods of dirt – almost everyone is somewhere in between, and behavioral integrity will vary a little with each distinct relationship and each observer. Some people approach impeccability with regard to follow-through on concrete commitments. Even there, though, unforeseen challenges occur and sometimes we have to break a promise. As for consistently demonstrating espoused values, values come into conflict with each other on occasion. Excellence in this regard is achievable but very, very challenging. Think in terms of stepping future leaders up from 7’s and 8’s on the 10-point scale toward 9’s and 10’s.

To understand behavioral integrity, it is critical to recognize that the concept does not pretend to encompass all that is good leadership, or all that builds trust, or all that is ethical. It is, instead, a single element of the larger pictures of all three. This insistence on not representing the answer to all questions is what keeps behavioral integrity focused and conceptually clean. It is what allows the concept to cross cultural boundaries, to lend itself readily to empirical study, and to be more easily taught and learned and integrated into existing behavioral repertoires. Many of the issues not included as part of behavioral integrity are extremely important – but they are distinct from behavioral integrity itself. We assert, though have not yet proven this bit scientifically, that behavioral integrity is a necessary but not sufficient condition for leadership or trust. It is not the solution to every problem – but no effective leadership happens without it.

Despite the fact that the behavioral integrity concept is tightly “stripped down” relative to larger concepts like character, trust and ethics, it has empirically demonstrated huge consequences. A recent meta-analysis by a team that included the lead author (Leroy, Collewaert, Masschelein & Simons 2012) combined 25 independent samples, totaling over 11,000 observations, and examined the associations
between behavioral integrity and follower attitudes and performance. It found follower perceptions of their leaders’ behavioral integrity was strongly predictive of their trust in (r=.49) and satisfaction with (r=.43) their leaders. Further, behavioral integrity strongly affects followers’ commitment (r=.48), engagement (r=.35) and satisfaction with (r=.42) their work. Leader behavioral integrity has demonstrated substantial impact on the attitudes of followers toward their leaders and toward the work itself. And those attitudes strongly affect how well followers perform.

But the impact of behavioral integrity on performance does not just operate through follower attitudes. Simons (2008) proposes a second mechanism: leaders whose words line up well with their actions send unambiguous signals. Followers know what to expect from them, and they know very clearly what leaders want from them. Leaders who convey one set of values with their words and another with their actions put their followers in a bind, as the followers learn to continually question whether their leader really means each utterance. Behavioral integrity does not merely build trust and so drive performance – it also enhances communication clarity, which in turn further boosts performance.

For this reason, behavioral integrity has demonstrated stronger impact on follower performance and discretionary effort than even trust (Colquitt, Scott & LePine, 2007) or moral integrity, which is integrity as traditionally defined (Leroy et al. 2012). Behavioral integrity has been found to drive follower work performance (r=.56) and citizenship behavior (r=.39), and to reduce deviant behavior (r=.38). A recent study found that manager behavioral integrity, in addition to driving follower performance, actually enhances the performance of the manager himself (Way, Simons & Tujela, 2012). Finally, behavioral integrity also enhances collective performance: In a study of 76 hotels, manager behavioral integrity was found to strongly drive guest satisfaction, employee turnover, and hotel profitability (Simons & McLean Parks, 2000). Behavioral integrity has huge performance consequences for followers, for the leaders themselves, and for the collectives in which they participate.

This proven performance impact means that the case for enhancing integrity does not rely on moral justification. Instead it is about performance. It is about training people to be more effective leaders. It is not a secondary concern or constraint that leaders must juggle as they strive to perform. Instead it is a key driver of performance itself. If aspiring leaders hope to lead effectively, they must learn to manage behavioral integrity so as to safeguard their credibility. It is not a luxury. It is not an option. It is critical for effective leadership – plain and simple.

**How Behavioral Integrity Facilitates Character Education**

Several attributes of the behavioral integrity framework dramatically enhance character education over more traditional approaches. A behavioral integrity approach does not assume that a student’s non-ideal behavior is a result of flawed character or an absent or broken moral compass. Instead, it recognizes that maintaining impeccability is very challenging, that circumstances sometimes conspire to make it more so, and that an array of well-developed skills and habits are necessary to its achievement. This shift in orientation allows students to acknowledge their struggles or mistakes without the same measure of shame or self-abasement that another approach might generate. It enables a problem-solving orientation: it invites discussion of how better to follow through or to enact espoused values,
and how to communicate about the process. By removing morality from this particular conversation – it can be raised later – it reduces the role of shame, and so enables self-disclosure, problem-solving and learning.

Simons (2008) lays out a number of concrete, practical skills that enhance behavioral integrity. There are simple things like diligent maintenance of “to do” lists and a very deliberate reflection process to be undertaken before deciding to make any commitment. There is also a protocol for prompt informing when follow-through is in jeopardy, and apology and correction when follow-through fails. One also needs subtler communication skills to head off misunderstood commitments and misattributed actions. One needs to develop tact because effective honesty often requires greater skill than does more expedient deceit. One needs to build self-awareness so as to manage internal ambivalences that undermine follow-through, and moral courage because the truth can be frightening. In short, behavioral integrity can be broken down into component skills, habits and awarenesses that can be trained, coached, and reinforced every day.

Deep ethical challenges are, for most of us, not an everyday occurrence, so we have little opportunity to develop the requisite “muscles.” Behavioral integrity challenges, on the other hand, do happen every day. As a result, behavioral integrity can be focused on, practiced and discussed constantly – which ultimately leads to well-integrated skills, habits and awarenesses – and high integrity. An excellent leader safeguards his credibility always. We are all in the business of training excellent leaders.

Another distinction between behavioral integrity training and other approaches to the development of ethics and character is the emotional learning frame that behavioral integrity offers. Boyatzis (2006 and elsewhere) draws on substantial neurological data and describes what he terms positive and negative emotional attractors (PEA and NEA, respectively). Most ethics training is about how to avoid making mistakes, and most ethics cases present mistake opportunities or pitfalls. When training focuses on how to avoid a particular outcome, it triggers for learners the sympathetic nervous system – the source of fight-or-flight arousal. Under sympathetic nervous system arousal, higher cognitive functions shut down, and people become defensive, physically and mentally. Boyatzis terms this a negative emotional attractor. In contrast, a behavioral integrity approach describes impeccability as a desirable state to which the learner can aspire. Where training focuses on how to achieve a positive and desirable outcome, it triggers the parasympathetic nervous system – which is calming, enhances mental functioning, and increases learners’ ability to integrate new information and insight into their personality. Boyatzis terms this a positive emotional attractor. To the extent that we seek to promote positive, lasting, stable character development that is well-integrated with the rest of learners’ personalities, we will be far more successful working with PEA than with NEA. The behavioral integrity framework facilitates training that is about approaching a desired state rather than about avoiding an undesired one, and so better supports a PEA mindset.
The Challenge of the Educator

In training others in the principles and practices of behavioral integrity, the teacher invites scrutiny of his or her own level of integrity – so a certain amount of self-development is warranted. While we need not be flawless, we must model the desired behaviors else risk undermining our own messages. First, spend a significant amount of time clarifying your values. Ideally, the number of values should be few. Having a small number of values will enable to you and those around you to have a consistently high level of clarity on what your values actually are. Be realistic about where you and where are would like to be – wishful thinking can lead you to over-promise. In reference to your word-deed alignment, be very clear and concise about what you can and cannot do. Authentically sharing your limitations allows you to more comfortably express the things you cannot get done. Moreover, engage in a very deliberate reflection process before deciding to make any commitment. If you need time to decide whether or not to commit to doing something, feel free to take this time. Answers like “Maybe” and “Yeah, that might be able to work” create gray areas and unfilled assumptions that may eventually lower your perceived level of behavioral integrity. Finally, beware of the yearning for significance most people experience. Be careful not to attempt to impress anyone by overstating your influence, especially when you have to rely on someone else to actually get the job done.

Despite our knowledge of behavioral integrity and a multitude of leadership approaches, there will be times in which we fall short of where we and our students would expect us to be. When it seems like you may fall short on a commitment or require additional time, apologize and when needed, ask for additional time. Being proactive may make a tremendous difference, especially since the likelihood of a student directly addressing frustration with a teacher’s integrity violation is low – they will more likely address it indirectly and so undermine your credibility with a large audience. When an apology is needed, humbly acknowledge both that you made a promise and that you failed to follow through. If possible, establish another deadline you can confidently meet. In short, do what is possible to repair any damage created by the offense and work hard to keep it from reoccurring.

Also, Basik, Warner, and Keene, 2009 offered guidance specifically for leadership educators desiring to create a culture of behavioral integrity among the students and/or groups they serve. Leadership educators may work to earn the right to provide coaching and feedback for students by first allowing students to provide evaluation and feedback for the leadership educator. This vulnerability inducing process should begin with the teachers’ critical self-evaluation of their own integrity. Teachers must then be willing to model openness, trust, and a desire to progress in order to identify their current state of integrity as a target for evaluation. Student feedback may be gathered and utilized to determine and discuss the students’ perceptions and the leadership educator’s potential areas for improvement as well as to create an educational climate in which integrity is discussed and potentially developed. After creating an culture in which behavioral integrity is openly discussed, the instructor can lead their students through a similar process of identifying and sharing their espoused values and promises and receiving continual supportive feedback and coaching from classmates or other partners.
Limitations in Context
Having made a case for pervasive implementation of a behavioral integrity approach to character development, it is critical to acknowledge a few limitations. Behavioral integrity is not a complete moral framework. It is about how well and how visibly one enacts espoused values – it is not about the content of those values. Discussions of what those values are and should be, and how they translate to action, are supremely important. Likewise, behavioral integrity is not a complete leadership model. There are many other skills and practices that must also be developed if one is to become an effective leader. However, you cannot be ethical, and you cannot be an effective leader, without behavioral integrity. Further, the process of striving for behavioral integrity forces a learner to come to terms with his moral values and his presented leadership style as he becomes more aware of aligning actions with them.

Summary
Behavioral integrity offers a science-based approach to character development that facilitates learning in a few profound ways. It does not encompass all that is character or all that is leadership, but a lack of behavioral integrity would undermine either profoundly. And unusually strong behavioral integrity would enhance either. Behavioral integrity can serve as an excellent basis on which to build. I propose that anyone interested in developing effective, ethical leaders, use it as that.

References
Building Resiliency: Assessing The Effectiveness Of School-Based Mentoring On At-Risk Youth

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Abstract
Mentoring is a critical element in a child’s social, emotional, and cognitive development (MENTOR, 2006). Mentors through their leadership can help in creating positive outcomes. This study investigated the impact of school-based mentoring on academic achievement, at-risk behaviors, and attitudes toward school.

An evaluation research methodology was conducted to investigate the effectiveness of school-based mentoring in addressing impacts on at-risk youth. The evaluation design incorporated a multi-method approach using both quantitative and qualitative methods to evaluate the impact of a school-based mentoring program.

The research revealed significant improvement in overall grade point average of students involved in mentoring. Findings also showed significant differences in math grades from pre to post program analysis. Quantitative results converged with qualitative data gathered from focus groups on changes in academic performance. Results were mixed in the area of decreased at-risk behaviors. Finally, comparison of student perceptions of attitude towards school indicated statistically significant change.

Introduction
Many youth are at risk of not achieving a successful future. Mentoring is proving to be successful in improving school attendance, increasing protective factors, and decreasing risk factors such as substance abuse, truancy, and juvenile delinquency (Herrera, Sipe, McClanahan, Arberton, and Pepper, 2002). Mentoring youth can be effective in enhancing positive youth development, decreasing school absences, improving attitudes toward school, and reducing at-risk behaviors (Jekielek, Moore, Hair, and Scarupa, 2002). Mentoring has been described as a critical element in a child’s social, emotional, and cognitive development (MENTOR, 2006). The leadership and guidance that mentors provide can create positive outcomes, especially for youth who are at risk of not successfully passing through adolescents (Rhodes, 2002). High academic achievement, the mastering of important basic skills to real world situations is critical to a successfully future. Many youth, however are at-risk of not succeeding in school and, consequently compromising their future success. Multiple risk factors contribute to the lack of academic achievement in childhood and success in later adulthood. Researchers agree that enhancing academic success and preventing failure in school lead to decreasing at-risk behaviors and contribute to strengthening youth, families, and communities (Miller, 2003).
Background
Mentoring refers to the process of having a more experienced person develop an extended relationship with a junior person (mentee or protégé) for the purpose of providing information, advice, and emotional support (Henry, 2002). Throughout history, mentoring has been part of society’s effort to provide both formal and informal relationships that fosters guidance in terms of social learning. Several studies have shown that mentoring is more beneficial to youth who are most vulnerable and at risk (Dubois, Holloway, Valentine and Cooper, 2002; Herrera et al., 2002). Rhodes (2002) provides a “Conceptual Model of Youth Mentoring” as a way to explain the mentoring process. This model shows the pathways of the mentoring influence. Rhodes research concludes that mentors influence their mentees in three ways: 1) enhancing social skills, 2) improving cognitive skills, and 3) serving as role models. These influences are dependent on the formation of an emotional bond with a mentor. Rhodes contends that attachment theory also plays a role in mentoring relationships. Mentors can influence youths’ working models of relationships. The result of mentors enhancing social and emotional development has impacts on improved relationships with parents, peers, and others as well as positive youth development outcomes in general. Newer forms of mentoring models have seen increasingly popularity. Several studies have identified peer mentoring, work-based mentoring, and school-based mentoring as new emerging models. Other theoretical frameworks related to mentoring include positive youth development which is defined as “the engagement of pro-social behaviors and avoidance of health compromising and future-jeopardizing behaviors” (Roth, Brooks-Gunn, Murray, and Foster, 1998) and the ecological framework introduced by Urie Bronfenbrenner which looks at relationships that influence the development of a child.

The purpose of the study was to evaluate the impact of school-based mentoring on academic achievement, at-risk behaviors, and attitude toward school. The study explores how mentoring programs in school settings help facilitate the academic success of at-risk students. Recent increases in school-based mentoring calls for research to understand the dynamics and implications of mentoring of at-risk youth and academic outcomes. The study focused on the following research questions: 1) What differences in academic achievement, as demonstrated by school grades, occur among students enrolled in Project SOAR school-based mentoring?, 2) What differences in at-risk behaviors, as demonstrated by measures of attitude of students and parents, occur among students enrolled in Project SOAR school-based mentoring program?, and (3) What differences in attitudes toward school, as demonstrated by measures of attitude, occur among students enrolled in Project SOAR school-based mentoring.

Method
An evaluation research methodology was conducted to investigate the effectiveness of school-based mentoring in addressing impacts on at-risk youth. The evaluation design incorporated a multi-method approach using both quantitative and qualitative research methods to evaluate the impact of a school-based mentoring program on academic achievement, at-risk behaviors, and attitudes toward school. The quantitative method included analysis of grades as well as surveys administered to students and parents. In addition, focus groups constituted the qualitative analysis to gain insight from student and parent perspectives.
The population for this study included students enrolled in 4th, 5th, and 6th grades in an elementary school in the southwestern United States. A total of 27 students were accepted to the program with a total of 23 involved in the study. A total of 15 mentors were recruited to the program.

This study employs collection of archival data from Project SOAR school-based mentoring program at an elementary school and uses grades, pre-and post- test analysis, and focus groups to assess changes produced by the program. The researcher used triangulation of data to increase the credibility of this study. In order to assess internal consistency of the mentoring research instrument, reliability statistics using the Cronbach’s alpha was conducted on student and parent surveys. All scores except for the factor of attitude were within the acceptable score of .70.

**Results to Date**
The research revealed significant improvement in overall grade point average of students enrolled in Project SOAR, afterschool mentoring program. Findings also showed significant differences in math grades from pre to post program analysis. See Quantitative results converged with qualitative data gathered from focus groups on changes in academic performance. Results were mixed in the area of decreased at-risk behaviors for students. Finally, comparison of student perceptions of attitude toward school indicated statistically significant change from pre to post test scores. See Tables 1, 2, 3, 4.

**Discussion**
This study adds to the literature and suggests that school-based mentoring models using peers and young adults as mentors is a promising strategy in providing positive outcomes for at-risk youth. Students participating in Project SOAR afterschool mentoring program showed increases in academic performance, changes in at-risk behaviors and changes in attitude toward school. In particular, students showed improvement in math and overall GPA. Students and parents indicated mixed perceptions of changes in at-risk behaviors. This study reflects other studies in showing that youth benefit from school-based mentoring. However, more research is needed to document the impacts of peer mentoring and school-based mentoring. Further research could also clarify key elements that contribute to specific mentoring outcomes.

**References**


Capstone ePortfolios: Framework and insight from a newly implemented leadership course

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Abstract
The world of higher education is demanding evidence for student gains and proof of programmatic performance. Capstone courses have proven to be a valuable experience in leadership education, as well as a valuable tool for programmatic assessment. Within the capstone course, ePortfolios are an excellent tool to collect evidence, reflect on coursework, and apply formal class concepts to nonformal experiences. This poster explains the framework for a newly implemented capstone course, including learning objectives, reflection prompts, and evaluation rubrics. Insights from this innovative practice will be communicated as improvements are made for future implementation of ePortfolios in leadership courses.

Introduction
With increased scrutiny on educational programs, the need for evidence of student gains has never been greater. Arum and Roksa’s (2010) book, titled Academically Adrift: Limited Learning on College Campuses, is one prominent example of the call for greater accountability in higher education. While a capstone course does not in itself change the learning that occurs during an academic program, it can help to clarify those gains for the students and stakeholders. Research reveals that many leadership educators consider a capstone experience to be an essential component of leadership education programs (Morgan, King, Rudd, & Kaufman, 2012). As explained by Moore, Odom, and Weid (2011), “capstone courses in leadership provide students with opportunities to synthesize prior knowledge about various aspects of leadership” (p. 123). Shavelson (2010) recommends the use of portfolios and capstone courses as a form of achievement evaluation. Capstone experiences help to facilitate integration, reflection, transition, and closure for students completing higher education.

Background
A portfolio is a “purposeful collection of student work that exhibits the student’s efforts, progress and achievements in one or more areas. The collection must include student participation in selective
contents, the criteria for selection; the criteria for judging merit, and evidence of student self-reflection” (Paulson, Paulson, & Meyer, 1991, p. 60). As supported by Chen and Light (2010), portfolios uniquely capture student reflection of their own learning while encouraging integration between formal and nonformal learning. Portfolios also provide an excellent opportunity to assess performance in such a way that both the teacher and the student learn from this experience. The purpose of this poster is to share the implementation of a newly developed leadership capstone course that uses ePortfolios as a way for students to collect, select, and reflect on their work in the academic minor.

**Method**

[University] newly implemented a capstone course with an ePortfolio requirement for a leadership minor. As explained by Mason (2008), ePortfolios are an innovative way to assess student learning while encouraging students to take ownership of their learning and reflection. The conceptual framework for ePortfolios by Chen and Light (2010) was adopted as a guide for course development as displayed in Figure 1.

*Figure 1. Conceptual framework for portfolios*

Learning outcomes for the minor were integral in developing the capstone course objectives. Students used a variety of ePortfolio platforms and an evaluation rubric guided the assessment (see Appendix A). Reflective posts on key events were formatted according to Sessa, Morgan, Hammond, and Kalenderli (2012). Students were also asked to provide evidence for their understanding and application of the seven social change values following a reflective format, adopted from Ash, Clayton, and Atkinson (2005), designed to improve student learning and reflection. The completed ePortfolios will be used as a means of academic programmatic assessment.

Results to Date
Results include anecdotal evidence of student learning within the capstone course and the academic minor. Reflection and critical thinking will also be analyzed and reported as observed by the course instructors.

Discussion
Recommendations for future implementation of ePortfolios in capstone courses are emerging. The value of leadership capstone courses will be determined based on the evidence provided. Reflection prompts and evaluation rubrics will be reevaluated and discussed for course improvement. The capstone course will provide vital insight into student learning in the minor courses while establishing a basis for academic evaluation, which will lead to increased program accountability.

References


Creating Leaders Affecting Positive Change through State Youth Leadership Boards

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Abstract
The 4-H Youth Development program is committed to developing leadership skills in youth by providing opportunities for youth voice. One of the methods in which leadership skills are developed and enhanced is through the State 4-H Leadership Board experience. These Leadership Boards give youth the opportunity to work together on a common focus, develop leadership skills and enhance statewide 4-H programs. Five statewide youth boards are offered and engage 125 youth on an annual basis as well as numerous adult volunteers and youth development professionals. Program evaluations indicate that 100% of participants were able to think independently and have a positive feeling about their future. Ninety-seven percent (97%) increased their subject matter knowledge related to the Board they served on; mastered leadership skills, and improved their ability to communicate with others.

Introduction
In the 4-H youth development program, youth have the distinctive opportunity to influence the success of various parts of the program (Astroth, 1996). 4-H State Leadership Boards provide an excellent and
rare opportunity for youth to influence the outcome of program objectives and activities. According to researchers, opportunities, such as youth leadership boards, challenge prevailing negative beliefs about youth empowerment in the decision-making process; furthermore, they promote youth empowerment through high expectations for youth (Bruce, 2003; Bruce, Boyd, & Dooley, 2005; Fitzpatrick, Gagne, Jones, Lobley, & Phelps, 2005; Jones, 2009; Radhakrishna & Sinasky, 2005). However, Camino & Zeldin (2002) pointed out that youth empowerment reflects the fact that youth rarely can, or should, go it entirely alone. When adults serve as partners to the youth, youth gain the support and power that help them achieve both their individual and group goals. Fox, Schroeder & Lodl, (2003) found that when 4-H alumni were asked to identify the most important thing learned through the 4-H Club experience, leadership skills were often alluded to.

Background
The State Leadership Boards were established to ensure that youth are included in all facets of the Louisiana 4-H Youth Development Program. Enrollment trend data including membership numbers and project areas have provided important information regarding retention and project interest. Due to the significant decline in teenage 4-H members, the State 4-H Program wanted an avenue to better engage high school level youth. By engaging youth on these State Boards, youth are given a voice and role in needs assessment, program development, implement and evaluation. Through self-identified needs, youth serving on the boards have a voice in planning a program that reaches their needs and goals. In this process, youth have indicated that they feel true ownership of the program. Through their service, board members serve as role models for younger youth helping them become aware of the opportunities within 4-H and encouraging them to remain involved in 4-H program.

Description of the Practice or Discussion/Interaction
The State Executive Committee consists of the state officers, regional representatives who are elected by their 4-H peers, and National Conference Delegates. The board’s structure allows for youth to become involved in the decision-making process while also allowing for successful youth-adult partnerships. The 4-H Executive Committee members serve as youth representatives on all state committees. The 4-H Executive Committee focuses on providing leadership to statewide activities such as 4-H Junior Leadership Conference and 4-H University and coordinating the state-wide service-learning project. Executive Committee members are involved in making decisions about contests, programs, and speakers for 4-H University, an event that reaches over 1500 teens from across the state. During 4-H University, Executive Committee members preside over assemblies and conduct officer elections.

State Leadership Board Members for Citizenship, Fashion, Food and Fitness and SET Boards are selected through an application and interview process that indicates their experience and interest in their chosen areas. Each board is responsible for hosting a state camp for 4-H members, conducting quarterly business meetings and marketing, and each board plays a major role in planning, conducting, and evaluating the state’s largest activity, 4-H University. Board members are trained and encouraged to plan regional and local activities throughout the state. In the fall, the University recognizes the 4-H leadership boards at a football game with a promotional video shown on the large screens. In the
Spring, the State 4-H program hosts 4-H Day at the Capitol in which 4-H members are recognized on the State Capitol’s steps and visit with elected officials. In conjunction with this function, board members participate in a Governor’s Mansion dinner. At the end of the year, the boards conduct award trips ranging from white water rafting to industry exploration to community service experiences.

**Foreseeable Implications**
Through Leadership Boards, youth get connected to a larger context than their immediate circle. Through leadership development, youth can be part of community building becoming change agents for the future (Nitzberg, 2006). A challenge underlying this approach is to help communities engage youth in change efforts that are meaningful to them. The State 4-H Leadership Boards expose youth to the leadership development experiences they need to develop youth voice and ownership within the 4-H youth development program. In doing so, youth are expanding the ways that they influence organizational opportunities and community behavior. Through leadership boards, youth can develop, enhance, and use leadership skills to influence change.

**Recommended Next Steps**
Participants in the session will receive an overview of the State Leadership Boards learning from the lessons shared about developing and supporting State Leadership Boards. Through idea sharing and hands-on leadership activities, participants will be provided the resources and ideas needed to move forward in organizing or enhancing a leadership board.

**References**


Developing Leaders in Communities through CLPs: How Do They Do It?

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Abstract
A growing need for leadership development is evident across all areas of society, with rural areas being no exception. Realizing the need for effective community leaders within the community setting, many local communities and counties across the United States are developing their own local leadership development programs. Community Leadership Programs (CLPs) can be defined as any program seeking to develop the skills and knowledge of local community leaders, towards a more successful future. This exploratory study sought to provide baseline data describing CLPs within Kentucky and Virginia. A researcher-developed, online survey was developed and administered. Upon examination of the data, several similarities emerged. Overall, findings seem to indicate potential opportunities for university faculty to collaborate with CLPs, particularly in improving the use of theory-based curriculum and designing more effective program evaluation.

Introduction
Realizing the need for effective community leaders within the community setting, many local communities and counties across the United States are developing their own local leadership development programs. Community Leadership Programs (CLPs) can be defined as any program seeking to develop the skills and knowledge of local community leaders, towards a more successful future. Pigg (2001) establishes that successful community leadership involves “leaders who can address community problems effectively by mobilizing the human and social capital in the community to achieve common purposes” (p.4). CLPs are often lead by directors located within the county chamber of commerce or Cooperative Extension offices and can have a variety of objectives; however, in general they seek to increase participants’ leadership skill and knowledge, their community awareness, and serve as overall professional development (Earnest, 1996).

Many argue that leadership can be the catalyst through which positive changes occur. With increased responsibilities being passed down to local governments and community organizations, we continue to
need more and more individuals stepping into leadership roles at the community level (Bell & Evert, 1997; Kelsey & Wall, 2003). So individual leadership development (through CLPs) is obviously necessary. But what are CLPs teaching our future leaders? What is their curricular basis? And how many of our community members are participating in these programs? Finally, are local CLPs really developing the skills and knowledge necessary to successfully lead our communities into the future? In order to answer these questions and several others, an exploratory study of community leadership programs across two states was undertaken.

Background
A leadership oriented special interest group of the American Association for Agricultural Education began a conversation of how to best address the new National Research Agenda for the association, with attention to Research Priority #6: Vibrant, Resilient Communities (Doerfert, 2011). One item discussed included a realization of the vast number of CLPs across the country being administered by county boards and city chambers of commerce claiming to develop leaders; however, little was known about the operations of these programs. Taking the perspective of these programs offering a leadership curriculum, the authors were guided by Finch and Crunkilton (1999) to develop an initial survey to determine the types of leadership curricula being used and the scope of these programs situated in their local community. Finch and Crunkilton (1999) advocate collecting this initial data to identify the current status of educational programs to inform future curriculum and program decisions.

Method
An exploratory study was undertaken to determine the current status of CLPs in Virginia and Kentucky. An online survey was developed to collect descriptive data relating to the CLPs. The programs were identified through Internet searches and contact was made with programs which maintained a website, or listed in a directory. Initial contact was made via phone to ask program leaders to complete an online survey. Once the program leader agreed to participate, a web link was emailed to the participant.

Results to Date
Of the 68 CLPs identified in the two states, 24 participated (37% response in Kentucky, 38% response in Virginia). Of these programs, an average of 8.70 sessions were held each year for the cohort leadership class; each session lasting as average of 7.57 hours (or a full day). Each cohort class tended to last eight to nine months ($M = 8.23$). The average cohort size was 22.70 students. The average budget for student participation in these programs was $811 per student. According to responding program directors, CLPs tended to be ongoing for 16.89 years, with directors being in their positions for an average of 5.68 years. Additional demographic data were collected on the program leaders and will be shared on the poster.

Of the 24 responding programs, 17 had a formal application process while the remaining seven programs relied on nominations from various groups. None of the programs had a formalized and active alumni group; however six programs indicated alumni had limited involvement with the program, either by attending special meetings, events, or donating money.

Regarding program curriculum, directors were asked if there was a theoretical foundation to their
program. Fourteen indicated “no”. Two suggested they used servant leadership as the foundation for their curriculum, and one program focused on integrating leadership styles and effectiveness. It was interesting to note, however, that twelve programs had students complete a local community-service project. When considering curriculum revision, seven directors indicated teachers or presenters made revisions as needed. Other program revision strategies included: borrowing from other successful programs, basing changes on student and community needs assessments, and utilizing a steering committee. Concerning evaluation, only one director indicated they used a pre-test/post-test evaluation to measure program outcomes. One program indicated they look for successful alumni to determine if stated outcomes were being met. Other programs either ignored the question, or admitted to no program evaluation.

Discussion
Findings are limited to this group of CLPs due to low response rate and the nature of the communities associated with the data. It was perceived by the authors that the low response rate may be due to the sensitive nature of the data. When examining the findings, there appears to be many potential opportunities for university faculty to collaborate with these CLPs in the areas of improving the theoretical frameworks of the curriculum, and evaluating the program to determine if outcomes are being realized.

As CLPs continue to contribute to vibrant and resilient communities, it is important to encourage the development and maintenance of community-based leadership development programs. They play an important role in the development of leadership skills and knowledge within a community. Still, the mere presence of a program isn’t the key to a resilient community. As leadership educators, it is critical that we open a line of communication with CLP directors and offer assistance to enhance their leadership development programming, encourage theory-based curriculum development, and provide troubleshooting when necessary. In addition, to continue assisting in developing a “critical mass” of leaders within a community, it may also become important to assist programs with ideas on successful recruitment strategies, and how to effectively get alumni groups to step up and become engaged contributors to the overall leadership development process. Future research should focus on effective program evaluation of CLPs, the individual and organizational impact of these programs, and the role CLPs play as community citizens.

References


Developing Leadership Competencies Through an Undergraduate Teaching Assistant Experience

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Abstract
Undergraduate students are presented with numerous opportunities to develop their leadership skills. Future employers search for specific skill sets and competencies when trying to hire potential employees. The purpose of this study was to determine the skills developed by Undergraduate Teaching Assistants (UTAs) as a result of a 15-week teaching assistant experience. This study used a qualitative content analysis of two UTAs’ reflexive journals through the lens of the Skills Model of Leadership to identify developed leadership competencies. This study found that UTAs develop problem-solving and social judgment skills.

Introduction and Background
Leadership competencies and skills can be gained through various components of an undergraduate student’s college career. Leadership skills and competencies are always an important focus for employers when attempting to hire new employees. (National Association of Colleges and Employers, 2011)

In the leadership classroom, educators provide opportunities for students to develop leadership aptitudes through a variety of instructional techniques. Instructors rely on discussion groups, team projects, and case study assignments (Coers, Williams, & Duncan, 2010; Barbour, 2006; Moore, Boyd, & Dooley, 2010). The use of peer facilitators in the college classroom helped develop students social, communication and teamwork skills (Velez, Simonsen, Cano, & Connors, 2010). Students also develop leadership abilities through extracurricular activities (Hancock, Dyk, & Jones, 2012). While students gain knowledge through foundational leadership coursework and developmental activities, another medium is through an undergraduate teaching assistant experience. Students serving as an undergraduate teaching assistant (UTA) for leadership courses can be an example of a high impact practice. The UTA experience may be an opportunity to develop leadership competencies. High impact educational practices lead to higher levels of student engagement (Kuh, 2008). Undergraduate teaching assistants can benefit greatly from the experience by deepening their understanding of leadership subject matter and by teaching their peers in the classroom. This not only
benefits the student participating in the undergraduate teaching assistant role, but also the professor who might need assistance with some less desired portions of teaching in a classroom setting. This becomes even more important as universities and other institutions are being required to prove students have a high impact experience and funding for programs becomes more of an issue.

**Conceptual Framework**

The Skills Model of Leadership focuses on the skills of leadership and is divided into three components: individual attributes, competencies and leadership outcomes (Mumford, Zaccaro, Harding, Jacobs, & Fleishman, 2000). This study is specifically framed in the competency category of this model. The competency category includes problem-solving skills, social judgment skills, and knowledge. Problem solving skills are the creative abilities to solve complex problems. Social judgment skills are the abilities to understand and work with others. Knowledge is the gathering and categorizing of information learned through experience. This study uses the UTA experience as a career experience in the development of competency skills (see Figure 1).

![Conceptual Framework Diagram](image)

*Figure 1. Leadership Competencies through UTA Experience*

The purpose of this study is to determine the skills developed by UTAs as a result of a 15-week teaching assistant experience.

**Methods**

This study was conducted in the qualitative paradigm. Qualitative studies seek to understand experiences held by the participants (Merriam, 2009). The sample for this study was two undergraduate students (UTA1-2) in the [department] at [institution] who completed a 15 week UTA experience. As part of the experience, both participants kept reflexive journals about five leadership competencies and were required to provide analysis of their progress, successes, and failures in each competency throughout the experience with literature support. A content analysis (Ary, Jacobs, & Sorensen, 2010) of the journals was conducted through the lens (Holsti, 1969) of the competency component of the Skills Model of Leadership. Because each UTA chose their own leadership competencies, seven total competencies emerged: envisioning, problem solving, communication, professionalism and ethics, working with change, teamwork, and mentoring.
Findings
The UTAs revealed developed skills in problem-solving and social judgment. All seven of the chosen competencies fit directly into two of the three competencies in the model, problem-solving and social judgment based upon our analysis. While all three of the competencies in Mumford’s Skills Model of Leadership are useful to career and undergraduate teaching experiences, we found that the student responses best fit only two of the three competencies.

Problem-solving skills
The problem solving skills students articulated were: envisioning and problem-solving.

Envisioning.
Exposing me to the unknown has been quite rewarding, and has enabled me to learn what I do not want to do and what I want to do. The main thing that I have gained from it all is that this semester has played a big role in my envisioning of what my plan is for the next two years. (UTA2)

Problem-Solving.
It was a combination of critical thinking, being creative as well as using my personal judgment in order to be accurate and help the students with any questions of concerns. (UTA2)

Social Judgment skills
The social judgment skills students articulated were: communication, professionalism and ethics, working with change, and teamwork.

Communication.
I feel that I have become more confident in being and active listener, more articulate in my presentation skills, and more competent in new technologies. (UTA1)

Professionalism and Ethics.
Throughout the semester I also honored my values of responsibility and helping others by making sure that whatever task I was given, such as taking attendance and putting in grades was done. (UTA2)

Working with Change.
Serving my peers in a direct academic leadership role were not shoes I had walked in before. It required me to step out of my comfort zone at times and use my creative mind to help further foster student learning. (UTA1)

Teamwork.
Not only have I been a part of teamwork alongside the students, I have been a collaborative member alongside fellow teaching assistants and [author]. (UTA1)

The seventh competency chosen that seemed to fit in both problem-solving and social judgment skills was mentoring.
Mentoring.
At times I felt like I was a cheerleader, cheering both individual students and/or teams to attain their goals, while simultaneously coaching them along the way. Ironically, through the process of assisting the students in ascertaining their goals, Dr. Odom was mentoring me. (UTA1)

Discussion and Educational Importance
As a result of the findings, it can be concluded that the UTAs developed problem-solving and social judgment skills in accordance with the Skills Model of Leadership (Mumford et al., 2000). The UTA experience provides a unique opportunity for faculty to utilize undergraduates as assistants in the classroom and at the same time provide multiple forms of learning for students taking the class. The UTA experience was one way for students to develop necessary skills that employers look for in potential employees. Serving as an undergraduate teaching assistant can greatly enhance skills and experience that can be valuable in future careers based upon the Skills of Leadership Model.

References


Empowering Trust in International Contexts: A Foundation for Community Leadership Development for Future Sustainable and Resilient Communities

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Abstract
A sustainable community is “economically, environmentally, and socially healthy and resilient as it meets challenges through integrated solutions” (Institute for Sustainable Communities, 2013, para. 1). Many governments, their agencies, and NGOs are working to build sustainable communities across the globe, and the establishment of trust between volunteers and community members creates an environment where leadership skills can be developed. These relationships allow for those future opinion leaders to create a more resilient and sustainable community, and an opportunity for leadership educators to train future volunteers for this experience. The purpose of this research proposal is to look at possible development tools for volunteers to utilize in building trust with local communities when working in an international setting to foster an environment that creates future opinion leaders who will go on to create a more sustainable and resilient community.

Introduction
In a time where the world, as a whole, is in economic constraints through rapid population growth, declining resources, and financial instability, countries are investing in sustainable communities to help secure their futures. A sustainable community is “economically, environmentally, and socially healthy and resilient as it meets challenges through integrated solutions” (Institute for Sustainable Communities, 2013, para. 1). Many governments, their agencies, and NGOs are working to build sustainable communities across the globe, and the relationships these entities have with each other as well as the community members they are working alongside is important. Leadership plays an important role through those relationships, and it starts with building trust among all parties. Trust is “one of the most important synthetic forces within society,” and “makes it possible to maintain peaceful and stable social relations that are the basis for collective behaviour and productive cooperation” (Simmel, 1950; Newton, 2001, p. 202). The establishment of trust between volunteers and community members creates an environment where leadership skills can be developed, especially in establishing relationships with future community opinion leaders. These relationships allow for those future opinion leaders to create a more resilient and sustainable community, and an opportunity for leadership educators to train future volunteers for this experience.
Background

In Francis Fukuyama’s book Trust (1995), non-kin relationships, voluntary associations, are the key to allowing a society to develop economically in the world. In order to build that trust, volunteers must not only meet with the community members, but they must develop relationships through accompaniment. Accompaniment, as stated by Anthony Andenoro and Caitlin Bletscher (2012), is “where both parties come together for mutual learning, understanding, and collaboration” (p. 53). Ausland (2005) states that through accompaniment, the volunteer and community member “build trust and become vulnerable together,” (p. 1) which affords the volunteer the ability to operate at “eye level with the community” (p. 1).

The initial stage of trust building is the foundation for future development within a community. Ausland’s (2005) definition of accompaniment aids in Kreitzmann and McKnight’s (1993) asset-based community development framework which has been penetrating international development practices (Popa, 2012). This alternative approach to needs-based assessments, hyper-fixation on the problems within a community, focuses on how “recognition of strengths and assets is more likely to inspire positive action for change in a community” (Mathie & Cunningham, 2003, p. 477 as cited in Popa, 2012, p. 74). The Asset-Based Community Development Institute at Northwestern University has a project entitled Building the Community in North Chicago, where their first objective is to “develop trusting relationships” (ABCD Institute, 2009, para 5).

A former Peace Corps volunteer working with coffee farmers in Guatemala stated that she had to establish relationships with many people in the town, including members of the cooperative and their families by eating meals, attending churches, playing sports, and just chatting about the weather before she ever engaged in developmental projects or programs (Parker, 2013). She goes on to state that the initial period of building trust was pivotal for her future endeavors with the cooperative, including facilitating the creation of a new brand image for the cooperative’s coffee and developing better business practices that the cooperative initiated (Parker, 2013). That initiation by the cooperative to create better business practices, shows just how important accompaniment lends to building trust and fostering an environment of sustainable leadership. Some members later go on to run for leadership positions within the cooperative. Therefore, the purpose of this research proposal is to look at possible development tools for volunteers to utilize in building trust with local communities when working in an international setting to foster an environment that creates future opinion leaders who will go on to create a more sustainable and resilient community.

Discussion/Interaction

How do you build trust between volunteers and community members through accompaniment?
What are some applicable practices of accompaniment?
How do you use that relationship to build leadership skills within community members?
What type of modules can be created to develop leadership skills?
What type of modules can be created to develop accompaniment skill sets for future international volunteers?
The following types of research could be conducted:

- Ethnographically examine perspectives of farmers related to the constructs of resilience, which would lead to relationship building, forming trust, and possibly be used for programmatic initiatives.
- Conduct community focus groups to engage in participatory needs assessments that can help establish who are the current opinion leaders and who will be the future opinion leaders.
- Establish modules for some international volunteers to use for a case study.

**Foreseeable Implications**

By building trust through accompaniment, volunteers in international communities will create long-term relationships that will transform them into change agents. Those agents will then work together to find and develop opinion leaders within the community, who will in turn, diffuse sustainable information, practices and standards to build a more sustainable and resilient community.

**Recommended Next Steps**

Further research should look at measuring trust between the initial community members; measuring leadership skills of those members engaged in trust-building against those they have not engaged in trust-building; and compare community sustainability measurements of those engaged in trust-building against those communities that have not. The purpose of these studies is to validate the hypothesis that building trust through accompaniment would increase leadership within the community, which will help create a more sustainable community.
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Getting to Know Tomorrow’s Leaders: Connecting Leadership Skills to Personality and Emotional Intelligence

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Abstract
The transfer of leadership to younger generations is an important factor in agricultural communities and is likely one reason developing leaders is a central mission of many youth organizations. In adults, researchers have extensively explored the relationship between personality traits and leadership (Judge, Bono, Ilies, & Gerhardt, 2002), but a clear profile of youth leaders has not been developed. This profile could help in planning for and developing the next generation of community leaders. In this study, we explored the relationship between traits, including the Big-Five model of personality and emotional intelligence, and self-perceived leadership skills in youth participating in summer leadership conferences. Emotional intelligence and age predicted the youths’ self-perceived leadership skills. The potential need for youth leadership development programming to include, and perhaps even focus on, emotional intelligence is outlined.

Introduction
It is naïve to assume that the upcoming generation of young leaders will exercise their leadership in similar ways to older generations of leaders. The field of leadership would be prudent to study the “profile” of the youth leader so as to more accurately predict and plan for the leadership landscape in the coming decades.

Background
Two areas of leadership scholarship that have been researched among both youth and adult populations are trait leadership (Judge, Bono, Ilies, & Gerhardt, 2002) and emotional intelligence (Harms & Credé, 2010). Trait leadership examines innate personality traits and their relationship to leadership, postulating that some traits are indeed common among effective leaders (Yukl, 2006). Emotional intelligence (EI) is broadly defined as “the set of abilities (verbal and non-verbal) that enable a person to generate, recognize, express, understand, and evaluate their own and others’ emotions in order to guide thinking and action that successfully cope with environmental demands and pressures” (Van Rooy & Viswesvaran, 2004, p. 72). EI serves as an important construct for understanding how individuals can marshal their emotions and the emotions of others to effectively interact and influence in a myriad of social settings, including work settings.
In this study we will explore the relationship between self-perceived leadership skills in youth and personality and trait-based emotional intelligence.

Hypothesis 1a: Neuroticism will be negatively related to self-perceived leadership in youth. Hypothesis 1b: Extraversion will be positively related to self-perceived leadership in youth. Hypothesis 1c: Openness to experience will be positively related to self-perceived leadership in youth. Hypothesis 1d: Agreeableness will be positively related to self-perceived leadership in youth. Hypothesis 1e: Conscientiousness will be positively related to self-perceived leadership in youth. Hypothesis 2: EI will be positively related to self-perceived leadership skills in youth.

Methods

Population
Two groups of youths were surveyed in this study during two summer leadership training programs conducted in the Midwestern region. The first group was comprised of incoming sixth graders who participated (n=74) in a week-long, three-hour per-day leadership training program. The second group of youth (n=83) was comprised of sixth- through twelfth-grade students who participated in one of two three-day leadership training conferences. Students in this group self-selected to attend, and the organizers of the training targeted youth participating in 4-H, FFA, FBLA, FCCLA, DECA, SkillsUSA, and HOSA.

Procedure
Upon arrival, the youth were asked to complete a survey packet which included the Youth Leadership Life Skills Development scale (YLLSDS), the Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire – Adolescent Short Form (TEIQue-ASF), the Big Five Inventory – Youth Form (BFI), and demographic questionnaires.

Scales Used
Emotional intelligence. The TEIQue-ASF is a free trait-based measure of EI (Petrides, 2009a) that has been reported as having sound psychometric properties in several different populations (Pérez, Petrides, & Furham, 2005; Petrides, 2009b), including adolescents as young as 10 years old (α = 0.84; Petrides, Sangereau, Furnham, & Frederickson, 2006).

Personality. The BFI (John, Naumann, & Soto, 2008; John, Donahue, & Kentle, 1991; Benet-Martinez & John, 1998) is a personality assessment measuring the five-factor model of personality: neuroticism, conscientiousness, openness to experience, agreeableness, and extraversion. The BFI is written at a fifth-grade reading level (Benet-Martinez & John, 1998), and strong internal consistency has been reported with samples as young as 10 years old (Soto, John, Gosling, & Potter, 2008, 2011), and was used in this study.

Demographics. When conducting leadership research with youth, Van Linden and Fertman (1998) recommended that researchers control for three important factors: (a) gender, (b) socio-economic status (SES), and (c) race and ethnicity. Gender, race, and ethnicity were collected using single response
items. We also controlled for age. Youth Leadership Skills. The YLLSDS was developed to reliably measure youth leadership skill development (Seevers, Dormody, & Clason, 1995). The scale has been used with youth as young as 12 years old (Seevers & Dormody, 1994). Using different samples, Seevers et al. (1995) and Smith, Genry, and Ketring (2005) reported strong internal consistency with the YLLSDS (Cronbach α=0.98 and 0.93 respectively).

**Results**

Of the 157 conference participants, 115 (73% response rate) consented and fully completed the surveys. The age ranged from 10 to 17 (mean=13.02). The final sample included 74 girls (64%) and was 91% white.

To test whether the BFI and EI predicted a significant amount of variance in YLLSDS scores while controlling for age, gender, race/ethnicity, and SES, we conducted a regression analysis using the GLM and GLMSELECT procedure within SAS 9.3. The results from the regression analysis are reported in Table 2. These results further support hypothesis 2, but provide support to reject hypothesis 1a, 1b, 1c, 1d, and 1e. When all the variables were included, the model accounted for 43% of the variation in YLLSDS scores.

Table 2 Standardized parameter estimates and sums of squares (n=115)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parameter</th>
<th>Standardized Estimate</th>
<th>Type III Sums of Squares</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>0.22*</td>
<td>208.96*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>-0.13</td>
<td>104.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>American Indian or Alaskan Native</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>71.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian or Pacific Islander</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hispanic, Latino, or Spanish</td>
<td>-0.00</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BFI-extraversion</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>-0.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BFI-agreeableness</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>0.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BFI-conscientiousness</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BFI-neuroticism</td>
<td>-0.01</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BFI-openness</td>
<td>0.18</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EI-total</td>
<td>0.47**</td>
<td>R^2 0.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>5.77**</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Race/Ethnicity-White and Gender-Girl are the reference groups. *p < .05. **p < .001.

**Discussion**

**Conclusions**
While the model, including all variables, explained nearly 43% of the variance in self-perceived leadership skills among the youth surveyed, age and emotional intelligence were the only significant predictors. Furthermore, emotional intelligence explained over four times the amount of variance in self-perceived leadership skills than age. Thus, one can reasonably conclude from these findings that trait-based emotional intelligence is the strongest and most reliable predictor of self-perceived leadership skills among sampled youth leaders.

But why was emotional intelligence a significant predictor of self-perceived leadership skills and not personality? Correlation analyses from the current study revealed a significant relationship between age and each of the personality factors, but revealed a non-significant relationship between age and emotional intelligence. Thus, the results of the current study suggest that emotional intelligence could be a stable and reliable predictor of self-perceived leadership skills in youth.

Practical Recommendations

Youth participants in leadership programs may benefit from reviewing the results of their personal trait-based emotional intelligence assessment during leadership development activities. Considering the predictive power of trait-based emotional intelligence compared to personality factors, youth participants may derive more benefit from examining their personal emotional intelligence than examining their personality type.

References


0.51 13.38 118.02 1.01 154.60 863.91**


Petrides, K. V. (2009b). Psychometric properties of the Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire
In C. Stough, D. H. Saklofske, & J. D. Parker (Eds.), Assessing emotional intelligence (pp. 85-101). Springer US.


Importance versus Competence: Identifying the Needs of Leadership Students

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Oregon State University

Aaron J. McKim
Oregon State University

Jon C. Simonsen
University of Missouri

Abstract
The goal of this research was to identify perceived areas of student need, rank those needs, and use the data to revise the curriculum in a yearlong leadership academy program. The authors modified and adapted an existing leadership assessment in order to assess both student competence and perceived importance. Assessment in this manner allowed for use of the Borich needs assessment model which both identifies and ranks student needs. The instrument assesses student perceptions in 13 foundational leadership constructs which are clustered into four key domains. Results indicated that the greatest student needs were in the interpersonal and group and organizational leadership development domains. Students perceived the greatest needs for growth in managing conflict, managing projects, enhancing communication, practicing citizenship, commitment to serving others, and developing teams. The authors encourage the use of this instrument in a pre/posttest format to assess student needs and subsequent growth in a leadership program.

Introduction
Identification of importance is fundamentally important to whether or not students will actually learn, process, and implement material (Eccles, 2005). Eccles, in the Expectancy-Value theory, highlights the key nature of attainment value (importance) as a foundational component of whether individuals will be motivated to engage in a task. Eccles indicated that people filter attainment value through their personal sense of self and if the task meets an individual’s social or personal identity, they are more likely to view the task as important (Eccles, 2005). Recognizing the vital role of attainment value (importance) in student development, the authors sought to assess both student competence and perceived importance. The authors modified and adapted a leadership self-assessment instrument (Ayers, 2010), which was intended to assess 13 different leadership constructs clustered within four key domains of leadership development, including personal, interpersonal, group & organizational and community development. This 87 question instrument was modified to solicit student perceptions of importance and competence in 13 key areas: understands leadership, awareness of self, practices ethical behavior, sustains leadership (Personal), values diversity, enhances communication skills,
manages conflict (Interpersonal), develops teams, leads change, manages projects (Group & Organizational), practices citizenship, understands community complexity, committed to serving others (Community Leadership). A pilot test of the revised instrument revealed Cronbach reliabilities on the four domains ranging from $\alpha = .89-.96$. The authors used this instrument on students enrolled in a yearlong leadership academy program. The leadership academy program had 13 participants, each of which completed the needs assessment questionnaire.

Program Design
The Borich (1980) needs assessment model was used for the analysis of leadership needs in this study. The Borich model determines the needs of respondents by having them identify both the importance of a task and their perceived competence. The discrepancy between the importance and their competence is multiplied by the importance mean and then divided by the number of observations creating a mean weighted discrepancy score (MWDS). Each area of interest is then ranked based on the MWDS with larger MWDS indicating a higher level of need.

Results of this assessment provide key insight into the areas where students feel strong and the areas of significant need. The authors use the results to provide programmatic input into a yearlong leadership development program. Students also are encouraged to view their results on an end-of-year pretest and posttest comparison. This allows students to identify their individual changes in both competence and perceived importance as a result of participation in a leadership development program. Results are also used to provide validation for the continued existence and further development of the program.

Results
The MWDS reveal areas of strength and areas of need. Specifically, a large MWDS indicates a large disagreement between the students’ abilities and their perceived importance. It means that they view the construct as important, yet do not believe they possess the needed competence. Initial results revealed the largest MWDS related to managing conflict and the smallest related to awareness of self. Table 1 highlights the 13 constructs ranked from the areas of highest need to the area of lowest need.

Table 1
MWDS on 13Leadership Constructs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Construct</th>
<th>MWDS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Manages Conflict</td>
<td>6.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manages Projects</td>
<td>6.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enhances Communication</td>
<td>6.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Practices Citizenship</td>
<td>5.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Committed to Serving</td>
<td>5.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Develops Teams</td>
<td>5.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sustains Leadership</td>
<td>5.51</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Discussion

The results provide important data as the authors look to revise the leadership academy curriculum. The most relevant and needed areas for improvement are in the interpersonal and group and organizational leadership domains. While there are need areas scattered throughout the 4 key domains, these are the two areas that evidence the greatest need.

This data represents a pretest, prior to involvement in the leadership academy program, and comparison to posttest data will yield valuable information for program development. As leadership development programs continue to grow, it is vital that we develop effective means to assess where students are both prior to and following leadership development opportunities. This instrument and the Borich needs assessment model allow for an innovative and effective way to assess leadership growth and development.

References

Ayres, J. (2010). Leadership Development Self-Assessment: Developed by Dr. Janet Ayres, Department of Agricultural Economics, Purdue University, for Purdue’s Leadership Development Certificate Program. Unpublished instrument.


Practice Poster: Incorporating Critical Reflection in Youth Leadership Organizations

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Chelsey Ahrens, Ph.D.  
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Abstract
The concept of leadership education has gained momentum over the last 10 to 15 years in both high schools and colleges, thus creating a need for how to further improve upon these programs. Research has revealed that critical reflection is essential in leadership development. However, a major obstacle is figuring out how to incorporate this key concept into leadership education and teaching students about the relationship between critical reflection and leadership development. This manuscript reviews how researchers incorporated critical reflection into [State] Leadership Conferences.

Introduction
Leadership organizations, such as FFA and 4-H, are focused on building quality leaders in agriculture, science, citizenship, and healthy living through various leadership opportunities. Critical reflection, which encourages students to reflect upon past events and how they can improve upon similar situations in the future to continuously develop them as a leader is a key concept. “Experience leads to observation, reflection about that experience, and ultimately the development of new insights or conclusions which shape different action in the future” (Roberts, 2008, p. 117). Incorporating critical reflection into leadership education programs and leadership opportunities provided by organizations is one way to ensure that the participants are learning “what it means to be an effective leader as one practices how to be an effective leader” (Roberts, 2008, p. 117).

Background
The National FFA Organization’s mission is to make “a positive difference in the lives of students by developing their potential for premier leadership, personal growth, and career success through agricultural education” (National FFA Organization, 2012, para. 1). This mission is accomplished through
participation in activities and conferences where students learn and practice leadership principles. “Participation in FFA activities reinforces the knowledge learned through classroom lessons and supervised agricultural experiences” (Rutherford, et al., 2002, p. 23).

According to Kolb’s model of experiential learning, reflective observation is “an integral part of the learning cycle” (Roberts, 2008, p. 117). Critical reflection serves to “maximize individual potential by allowing students to evaluate the significance of their experiences from a leadership perspective” (Densten & Gray, 2001, p. 119). Students who engage in critical thinking expand their approaches to thinking and problem solving (Guthrie & Thompson, 2010). Boud, Keogh and Walker (1985) emphasized the role of the instructor in critical reflection. Instructors should engage students in reflection by allowing them to offer their own observations through detailed accounts of events, giving consideration to feelings, and assisting them in identifying overlooked intentions and unnoticed events (Boud et al., 1985).

While educators can guide students in the right direction by providing valuable experiences and using the strategies outlined by Boud et al. (1985), time needs to be allocated to engage in reflection. Densten and Gray believe that taking the time to reflect upon experiences “provides leaders with a variety of insights into how to frame problems differently, to look at situations from multiple perspectives or to better understand followers” (2001, p. 120). When leaders fail to reflect on their experiences, they face “constant risk of making poor decisions and bad judgments” (Densten & Gray, 2001, p. 119).

The purpose of this project was to identify the value of critically reflecting upon past events, learn various methods of critical reflection, and teach students within the [State] Association to critically reflect on their week at the [State] Leadership Conference and how the skills they acquired and/or improved upon.

**Method**

A proposal was presented and accepted by the [State] FFA staff, which created an opportunity to provide a 30-minute reflection workshop during each of the three four-day 2012 [State] Leadership Conferences. An undergraduate student with FFA experiences and an interest in leadership was identified and asked to develop and deliver the workshops. The student worked directly with leadership faculty from two institutions to ensure the workshop met the outlined objectives.

The workshop began with introductions and an overview of the workshop objective. An obstacle course with three simple challenges was set up prior to the workshop using materials from the conference location. This obstacle course was in open view to all participants. Two volunteers were selected and one volunteer was blindfolded and guided through an obstacle course with only verbal directions from the other volunteer. At the end of the activity, the facilitator asked both volunteers questions regarding the success or failure with the tasks. The facilitator asked for details about the experience, avoided offering personal interpretations, and encouraged the participant to consider the feelings of both volunteers. An open conversation among all students about the exercise was then facilitated.
A computer-based presentation was used to project questions and to guide participants as they explored the topic of critical reflection. The definition of critical reflection, ways to reflect, and pitfalls of not engaging in reflection were presented and questions were issued to the group to guide discussion. Good reflection practices were reviewed and questions were posed to get the students thinking more about their actual conference experiences during the workshop wrap-up. The workshop was facilitated in approximately 30 minutes leaving the remaining time for students to complete the reflection instrument.

**Results to Date**

Approximately 400 [State] FFA members participated in the workshops presented during the 2012 [State] Leadership Conferences. As a result of the project, the students who participated were provided information about critical reflection and given the time to reflect upon their experiences during the conference. This also resulted in maximizing the individual potential of each student, which according to Densten and Gray, is a major result of critical reflection (2001, p. 119). The workshop challenged the students to think about how they could apply what they learned to future experiences as well “expand their approaches to thinking and problem solving,” which is also a result of critical reflection and is an opportunity not traditionally offered during the conference (Guthrie & Thompson, 2010). The workshop presenter received requests, from the agricultural science teacher and FFA staff members attending the workshop, to share the presentation for use in secondary classes and FFA programs.

**Discussion**

The team plans to write reflection curriculum and implement the curriculum through workshops during future [State] Leadership Conferences and other conferences and activities put on by the [State] Association to ensure that time is allotted for students to reflect. Opportunities are being explored to integrate the developed reflection workshop at [State] 4-H leadership conferences to help enhance their programs. Evaluation of the reflection curriculum should be conducted to validate its effectiveness.

Research should be conducted to see if particular leadership conferences, or if completing a workshop on critical reflection before completing an evaluation or leadership skill assessment have an impact on scores.

**References**


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Abstract
In a span of nearly a decade, Lance Armstrong has evolved from an inspirational cancer survivor, record setting athlete, and one of the most highly revered leader of our time to someone many consider a scam artist, imposter, and public disgrace. Not only did he bolster his performance by cheating and deceit, he also tugged at our heartstrings by empowering cancer patients with a sense of hope, which later proved to be false. This study seeks to construct a timeline of Lance Armstrong’s leadership; what contributed to both his rise and demise? Public figures, such as Tiger Woods, for example, are considered resilient, bouncing back from the worst of accusations. Armstrong’s fate in the public eye has a less likely prognosis, as details from the past intertwine in this synthesis of literature to tell the tale of his fall from grace.

Introduction
In 2008, US News acclaimed Lance Armstrong one of America’s best leaders for both his athletic and humanitarian accomplishments (Hobson, 2008). His physical resilience was of utmost regard at the time, surviving cancer to cycle his way to a record seven Tour de France victories (Hobson, 2008). An unwavering positive attitude was said to have contributed greatly to his performance in competition as well as his role as a leader (Carmichael, 2005). Today, an Internet search for Lance Armstrong returns much less pleasant results. October 2012 marked the beginning of the end for Lance Armstrong as allegations of doping and deceit were brought to light, only to be confirmed by an interview in January with Oprah where he ceased to deny the rumors (Jensen, 2013). However, it could be argued that his decline has been a long time in the making. There were suspicious claims regarding Armstrong’s integrity dating back to 1999 when he allegedly began using EPO, steroids, growth hormone, testosterone and cortisone (Collins, 2013). Throughout Armstrong’s time in the spotlight, there have been repeated instances where he vehemently denies drug use, treats others in a less than respectful manner, and is documented to be egotistical to the point of detriment to his own success.

Background
Public figures and celebrities are essentially emergent leaders; they are on a pedestal because we put them there. An emergent leader is defined as someone who is perceived by others as influential and is often classified as dominant, confident, and intelligent (Northouse, 2013). This type of leader rises to
their status organically, without the need for an assigned title (Northouse, 2013). Similar to Bass’ definition of an informal leader, Armstrong was considered confident and authentic by his followers, gaining influence as a result of personal traits and achievements (Bass, 2008). While Armstrong may have been assigned titles regarding his athletic performance, the choice to view him as a role model is an independent decision made by individuals. Armstrong was able to tap into three of the five bases of power set forth by French & Raven; Alas, this type of leadership is vulnerable to public perception, and when the leader no longer exhibits qualities admired by their followers, a demotion is sure to follow.

Method
Through a synthesis of literature in regard to all stages of Armstrong’s life in and out of the public eye, the researchers were able to study his leadership repute through a variety of angles and lenses. By investigating further both peer-reviewed works covering his professional career as well as newspaper and magazine articles that provide a glimpse into his personal life, a greater understanding of the underlying strengths and weaknesses that factored into his dealings as both an athlete and role model has emerged. To take the study one step further, attention was given to the leaders he has been compared to, such as Oscar Pistorius, Tiger Woods, and Joe Paterno, to name a few, in order to foster greater understanding of how public figures can or cannot be resilient and regain their positive reputation after tainting their image.

Results to Date
In the same article that mentions Armstrong’s “honored” leadership skills, an interesting acknowledgement arises; his implied arrogance and independence were chronicled as his downfall, preventing him from beating lesser competitors (Carmichael, 2005). It is somewhat suspect for a leader of this caliber to harbor characteristics that conflict greatly with the traits attributed to all great leaders. Collins (2001) states that Level 5 Leaders are known for humility and “channel their ego needs away from themselves (p. 21).” It is no surprise that Armstrong’s web of lies will be the deciding factor in his inability to regain a following, superseding the actual act of utilizing performance enhancing drugs. Studies by Kouzes and Posner have proven trustworthiness to be the foremost characteristic of admired leaders; honesty has held the highest ranking among respondents since their earliest results from the Characteristics of Admired Leaders checklist in 1987 (Kouzes and Posner, 2012).

Discussion
It has yet to be determined if Armstrong will be able to live up to his second of seven Principles of Leadership: Come back from your low point (Armstrong, 2007). Unfortunately, his physical resilience is not directly translating into resilient leadership, and there is much knowledge to be gained regarding the public’s willingness to “forgive” a role model. It is essential for leaders to understand that their stay at the top will only last so long as they continue to exhibit attributes of strong leadership, assuring they rise from any falls, and create a sustainable reputation that ensures their integrity in the eyes of their followers. Equally imperative, leaders need to be able to see the warning signs in others, such as dishonesty or any incongruence with their words and their actions, regardless of their fame or fortune. After all, where there is smoke there is often fire, and you are judged by the company, and colleagues, you keep.
References


Collins, L. (2013, January 23). It's 'unthinkable' that sheryl crow didn't know lance armstrong was doping - whistleblower blasts 'weak women' around shamed cyclist. MailOnline UK.


Appendix A: Poster Proposal Review Form

Indicate your evaluation by marking an X in the appropriate box (SA-strongly agree, A-agree, D-disagree, SD-strongly disagree). Please include comments providing objective remarks and/or suggestions for improvement.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Submission Evaluation</th>
<th>SA</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Comments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. The content of the proposal will have practical or research applications that would be of interest to ALE members.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. The proposal adds to the body of knowledge in leadership education and provokes thought among ALE conference participants.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. The problem/idea proposed is clear and concise.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>4. The author links the proposal to existing literature/discussion in the field of leadership education.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>5. The discussion is sufficiently developed and relevant.</td>
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<tr>
<td>6. The author’s findings, conclusions and/or recommendations are sufficiently justified, linked to the review of literature, and presented concisely.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. The proposal is written clearly (grammar, organization, flow)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Overall Evaluation  | Reviewer Rating | Comments |
---------------------|-----------------|----------|
Accept and nominate for outstanding poster |                  |          |
Accept for presentation |                |          |
Accept with minor revisions |               |          |
Not acceptable for presentation |              |          |
Leadership Competency Training Certificate for Extension Leaders

Chris Mott
University of Florida

R. Kirby Barrick, Ph.D.
University of Florida

Abstract
The Cooperative Extension system is the world’s largest non-formal adult education provider, working in American communities to solve local problems and improve lives. The majority of Extension leaders, including those in state director and administrator positions, is promoted exclusively from their performance in previously-held positions and has not had any prior leadership competency training. The purpose of this project is to develop an online Certificate in Leadership Competency for Leaders in Extension to meet the needs of Extension Directors in the state and nationally.
Effectiveness of Agricultural and Extension Education Department Heads

Katharyne A. Ingerson
North Carolina State University

Jackie Bruce, Ph.D.
North Carolina State University

Abstract

Effective leadership is necessary at all levels of an institution of higher education. The position of department head has been regarded as one of the most challenging positions to hold in academia because of the various roles one must play in the university setting (Bennett & Figuile, 1993; Stanley and Algert, 2007). While many people admire the responsibilities that department heads have, there is a general lack of research associated with department head leadership (Knight and Holen, 1985; Leaming, 2007). The purpose of this study was to discover a holistic view of factors influencing the leadership effectiveness of agricultural and extension education department heads from 1862 land-grant universities.

Introduction

Many researchers have attempted to define leadership throughout history. Recent studies of leadership can be broken down into a variety of sub-dimensions including: how leaders ensure worker task completion (Amagoh, 2009), behavioral studies (Yukl, 1999), and leadership effectiveness (Yukl, 1999). According to Lewis (2000), “the more complex organizations become, the more traditional either/or thinking oversimplifies management practices and demands” (p. 769). In order to meet the demands of an ever-changing society, leaders can no longer rely on only one aspect of leadership (Leithwood et al., 1999; Gibson & Birkinshaw, 2004). In fact a balance of versatile leadership aspects should be desired (Kaiser et al., 2010). The world of academia is no different. Effective leadership is necessary at all levels of an institution of higher education. The position of department head has been regarded as one of the most challenging positions to hold in academia because of the various roles one must play in the university setting (Bennett & Figuile, 1993; Stanley and Algert, 2007). While many people admire the responsibilities that department heads have, there is a general lack of research associated with department head leadership (Knight and Holen, 1985; Leaming, 2007).

Background

Quinn and Rohrbaugh’s (1981) Competing Values Framework (CVF) and Lipman-Blumen’s Connective Leadership and Achieving Styles (1996) were the theoretical frameworks used to base this study. The first portion of the theoretical framework for this study was Quinn & Rohrbaugh’s (1981) Competing Values Framework. Quinn & Rohrbaugh (1981) believed that many of the established leadership
effectiveness theories would not work because they were paradoxical in the way they worked. Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1981) said there were three dimensions to a leader that should be considered in order to decide effectiveness: organizational focus (people vs. task), structure (flexibility vs. control), and closeness to desired organizational outcomes (means vs. ends). After comparing these three dimensions, Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1981) found four models that effective leaders can fall into. The models included Human Relations, Open System, Internal Process and Rational Goal. The second theoretical frame was Lipman-Blumen’s (1996) Connective Leadership and Achieving Styles. Three overarching sets of behavioral sets make up the Connective Leadership Model with three achieving styles making up each of the sets: Direct (intrinsic, competitive, power), Relational (collaborative, contributory, vicarious), and Instrumental (entrusting, social, personal). Lipman-Blumen (1996) described achieving styles as “personal technologies for accomplishing our tasks or achieving our goals” (p. 24).

Since both faculty and students consider the department head the highest leadership position in the department and the head’s leadership influences the success or failure of a department (Gmelch and Miskin, 1993), department heads’ leadership effectiveness must be investigated. The purpose of this study was to discover a holistic view of factors influencing the leadership effectiveness of agricultural and extension education department heads from 1862 land-grant universities. In order to accomplish this purpose, six guiding questions were established:

1. According to university standards, what are the responsibilities of a department head in an AEE department?
2. According to department heads, what are the responsibilities of the position?
3. What administrative roles do department heads take on in their position?
4. In what way is communication utilized by department heads?
5. From an external standpoint, who or what influences what a department head does?
6. What internal factors influence what a department head does?

Methods

Using Quinn & Rohrbaugh’s (1981) Competing Values Framework and Lipman-Blumen (1996) Connective Leadership Model as the frames, a qualitative study of leadership effectiveness of Agricultural and Extension Education department heads was completed. This study was designed as a three-step, basic qualitative research study using document analysis, semi-structured interviews and constant comparison (Merriam, 2009). The population for this study was Agricultural and Extension Education Department Heads from 1862 land-grant universities in standalone departments. The department heads were established through the American Association for Agricultural Education’s directory. According to Corbin and Strauss (1990), “analysis begins as soon as the first bit of data is collected” (p. 6). Analysis in this study took place on both documents and interviews. Constant comparative method was used in analyzing the data. The researcher took precaution in proving trustworthiness of the research by increasing credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability of this study (Dooley, 2007).

Results to Date
In understanding expectations of AEE department heads, two considerations were taken – personal and external expectations. Personal expectations include those set by the department head or how the department head views his/her responsibilities within the department. External expectations come from the university, other administrators or other people aside from the department head. In answering the research questions, six categories emerged with subcategories funneling into each:

**Administrative**: All work in relation to university requirements. Includes the subcategories of academic, outreach, research, leadership, management, collaboration and required attributes. Examples:

“My philosophy is really that servant level...How can I serve this faculty to advance them as their leader, and really, that’s something different” (DH6)

“My responsibility indicates that I have responsibility for people and resources of this department and to ensure that the programs administered through this department are as effective, well planned and efficient as possible” (DH14)

“Provide oversight of all departmental programs and activities” (JD8)

**Responsibilities**: Day to day activities department heads do. Includes subcategories of recruitment, evaluations, strategic planning/goals, meeting attendance, balancing responsibilities, and other responsibilities. Examples:

“By far, the largest part of my job is working in personnel issues – conducting annual evaluations or managing the structure for all of the annual evaluations that occur” (DH14)

“My [family] always ask me how I get everything done because I always have so many meetings” (DH18)

“Has primary responsibility for budget development and sound fiscal management of funds apportioned to the department” (JD3)

**Communication**: Discussion of communication in any form. Types of communication, faculty engagement, and conflict resolution were the subcategories. Examples:

“Usually email takes up quite a lot of the day. I don’t know what we did before email” (DH7)

“Department heads need to be available when the faculty are ready to communicate or talk. And that availability can be a variety of ways, not just present” (DH10)

“Facilitates effective communication within the department and beyond” (JD6)

**External Influencers**: People/things within the department and beyond that affect the department heads’ job. Examples:

“The way I work with faculty and staff both, I see this office, we are a team” (DH5)

“If it is student related, it typically rises to the top of my to do list...without students, we wouldn’t have a program, whether it’s the undergraduates, the graduates. Without students, higher education does not exist” (DH15)

“Maintaining effective relations and communication with stakeholders, industry groups, professional organizations, and the public” (JD12)

**Internal Influencers**: Anything that the department head has experienced that has affected them and their job. Examples:
“I think the experiences I’ve had to draw upon now I think a lot of it is real world experience that I’ve gained, but I’d say that experience has been tempered by the education I’ve received” (DHS)

“What I see is the potential in everybody I work with, whether it’s faculty, staff or students. We try to get those people to the right places so that what they do can be enhanced...I can’t think of an attribute that’s any better” (DH10)

“I’ve had the chance to witness and be a part of different departments and identify what has worked well and what needs to be done in department with tight budgets, small faculty numbers” (DH9)

Conclusions & Implications

Conclusions include that AEE department heads complete a variety of tasks while playing different roles and that more than just university requirements influence their jobs. Because the department heads are influenced by different sources, they influence their department and the people in it, in different ways. The way they influence would, obviously, change, depending on the nature of their own influencers. Therefore, future research is suggested to interview department heads over a period of time to establish if there is a pattern to their leadership. Future research suggestions also include comparing self-sustaining AEE department heads to AEE department heads in non self-sustaining departments, all to discover similarities and differences to influence future training and development of department heads.
References


Leadership Minor Capstone Project

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Abstract

Employers of recent college graduates are often dissatisfied with the leadership skills and abilities of job applicants. In response, leadership courses and programs have been developed in higher education. A new Leadership Studies minor at [state] University is an interdisciplinary minor that requires students to complete courses in four curriculum areas. In addition, students are also required to complete a leadership capstone project. Capstone projects provide an opportunity for students to demonstrate their leadership knowledge and skills before graduating. Students are expected to plan, design, and implement capstone projects that meet their career interests. Faculty supervisors assist in mentoring students through the process. Capstone projects are assessed based upon satisfactory completion of a portfolio and a debriefing session with stakeholders.

Introduction

Feedback from employers of college graduates historically identify deficiencies in leadership concepts and skills of new hires (Cress, Astin, Zimmerman, & Burkhardt, 2001). Higher education institutions have recognized and targeted such deficiencies by developing leadership education programs (Eich, 2008). Leadership education programs in higher education should stimulate students to develop lifelong leadership skills, which can has been documented through practical applications (Cress, et al. 2001). Experiential learning opportunities for students clarify connections among academic learning through service learning, collaboration, and group projects, which, should be a priority in undergraduate education. Application activities directly impact student development (Cress, et al. 2001). Therefore, the Leadership Studies minor was structured to provide students with educational experiences to enable them to assess their strengths, understand important leadership theories, and ultimately extend their potential leadership influence among others.

Background

In response to a call for higher education to develop leadership skills in graduates, a new undergraduate minor in Leadership Studies was established in 2010 at [state] University. The Leadership Studies minor was designed to provide students with leadership knowledge and skills to enhance their future success in professional roles. The minor was structured to include theories and principles of effective
leadership, the importance of interpersonal communication in leadership processes, and development of human relations skills. Students complete courses in four curricular areas: (a) personal leadership foundations, (b) team and organizational leadership (c) community leadership, and (d) ethics and diversity. Course selection can be tailored to meet individual needs and interests of students, and to focus on personal, professional, business, community, political, and/or international applications. The Leadership Studies minor is an interdisciplinary minor that is available and appropriate for students across all majors (with the exception of Arts & Science majors) at [state] University. Students pursuing a minor in Leadership Studies complete a minimum of 15 semester credit hours. Additionally, students design and complete a leadership capstone project under the direction of a faculty member from the student’s academic major or career interest area.

Method
The leadership capstone project for the undergraduate Leadership Studies minor at [state] University was developed as a means for students to apply and demonstrate knowledge gained from courses taken in the leadership minor. A Leadership Studies minor advisory committee has primary curricular oversight responsibility for the program. The advisory committee created planning and assessment rubrics for the leadership capstone project for the Leadership Studies minor. Student advising is primarily provided by academic advisors in the students’ home department. Faculty and professional staff advisors who serve on the advisory committee are also available to provide advice to students regarding the Leadership Studies minor requirements. Upon completion of at least one course in each of the four curriculum categories, students are expected to complete a self-designed, experiential learning project.

Results to Date
A capstone is the last stone installed when constructing a structure. Similarly, the capstone project is intended to be the last component completed in the Leadership Studies minor. A successful capstone project should synthesize, apply, and evaluate the foundational leadership theories, principles, and concepts in leadership education. A capstone activity suitable to fulfill the Leadership minor requirement should be a substantial semester-long project. The student-designed experiential learning projects would ideally be planned in the context of the student’s career interest area and provide opportunities for students to demonstrate their leadership knowledge and skills. Completed projects are evaluated using a satisfactory or unsatisfactory grade scale, based on an assessment rubric.

Discussion
Students should begin their capstone by developing and submitting a capstone proposal to their faculty supervisor. Proposals consist of a situational analysis, specific goals and measureable objectives, and a detailed action plan and strategies aligned with each objective. Prior to starting the capstone project, the faculty supervisor should discuss their expectations for the project and provide feedback on the proposal. After the proposal has been approved, students implement the project in accordance with their action plan. During project implementation, students are expected to document project outcomes and impact, personally reflect on their experiences, and connect their experiences to the themes of the Leadership Studies minor. Upon completion of the capstone project, students participate in an oral
debriefing of the results with stakeholders. A one-page summary report is submitted to the coordinating advisor of the Leadership Studies minor. Assessment of the Leadership Studies minor capstone project is evaluated based on six different categories: (a) situational analysis, (b) goals and objectives, (c) action plan and strategy, (d) results/outcome/impact, (e) reflection, and (f) communication of results. Situational analysis is assessed based on a description of the situational context and/or problem statement with clear justification and need statements. Goals and objectives should specify the change or outcome sought. A plan of action to fulfill each objective should identify resource needs, timelines, and the person(s) responsible for each objective. The results component should clearly describe measures attained for each objective with a clear explanation of the extent of goal attainment, and the overall impact of the project. Communication of results may involve an oral or multimedia report clearly documenting the leadership capstone, including specific recommendations. A reflective journal should provide an in-depth reflection on the processes and activities, including alternative strategies/decisions, and an explanation of factors influencing the change process, with clear linkages to leadership theories.

**References**


Organizational Climate: The Leader’s Influence

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Abstract
It is said that organizational climate has a direct impact on the motivation of members within an organization (Stringer, 2002). This longitudinal study sought to determine the differences in organizational climate and leadership behaviors as perceived by the members of the Vocational Agriculture Teachers Association of Texas (VATAT) before and after a change in leadership occurred.

Introduction
Leadership is “a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal” (Northouse, 2013, p. 5). The style approach conceptualizes leadership as the behaviors exhibited by the leader, focusing exclusively on what they do and how they act (Northouse, 2013). Those day-to-day behaviors of the leader are “the single most significant determinant of climate” within an organization (Stringer, 2002, p. 12).

Organizational climate can be described as the environment perceived by the members of the organization and can be measured indirectly through the perceptions of the organization’s members (Stringer, 2002). It is the quantifiable product of organizational culture and a direct reflection of the leader’s attitude (Schein, 2010). Because climate has a direct impact on the aroused motivation of workers within the organization (Stringer, 2002) an organization’s performance can be profoundly impacted when leadership stimulates a change in climate.

“The Vocational Agriculture Teachers Association of Texas (VATAT) is a professional organization for agriculture science teachers and supporters of agriculture education” (VATAT website, 2012). The organization provides professional development specifically for agriculture teachers and represents a unified voice for agricultural education in the state legislature (VATAT website, 2012). They are led by a Board of Directors representing the membership from 10 FFA Areas and an Executive Director that is employed by the Association. The Association plays a vital role in providing continuing education opportunities to help keep agriculture teachers abreast of current and emerging technologies in the agriculture industry as well as effective methods of teaching and learning. The VATAT’s effectiveness in
accomplishing its stated mission is essential for the success of agriculture educators served by the Association.

Background
Organizational climate is described in terms of the following six dimensions (Stringer, 2002): “structure” indicates members’ feeling of having clearly defined roles and responsibilities along with a sense of being well-organized; “standards” reflect members’ perceived feeling of pressure to improve their performance and the degree of pride taken in a job well done; “responsibility” reveals the degree to which members feel a sense of autonomy in their work and freedom to make decisions without double checking with the leader; the “recognition” construct is reflected in whether or not members feel they are rewarded for good performance; the feeling of mutual trust and support within the group is indicated by the “support” construct; “commitment” describes members’ commitment to and pride in the organization. Leadership behaviors are described utilizing the same six constructs, indicating that specific leadership behaviors can be employed to influence specific dimensions of the organizational climate (Stringer, 2002).

Methodology
This was a descriptive longitudinal study. A census of the VATAT Board of Directors present at the meeting conducted during the annual professional development conference was used for data collection in 2011 (N = 51) and again in 2012 (N = 49). The climate questionnaire developed by Stringer (2002) was used. Twenty-four items in Part I referred to the perceived organizational climate, resulting in four questions per climate dimension. Part II contained 18 questions regarding perceived leadership behaviors of the Executive Director, with three questions per climate construct. Items in Part I were measured in a 4-point Likert-type scale, while Part II items were measured on a 5-point Likert-type scale.

Results
Means and standard deviations were calculated for each of the climate constructs for both years. In 2011, mean scores for organizational climate ranged from 1.96 to 3.84 with “responsibility” being lowest and “commitment” being highest. Mean scores for the 2011 Director’s practices ranged from 4.21 to 4.61, also with “responsibility” being lowest and “commitment” being highest. In 2012, mean scores for organizational climate ranged from 2.23 on the construct “responsibility” to 3.76 on “commitment”. Mean scores for the 2012 Director’s practices ranged from 3.79 on the construct “responsibility” to 4.36 on “support”.

T-tests were used to determine significant differences between 2011 and 2012 on each of the twelve constructs. Regarding organizational climate, significant differences were identified between the two years on the constructs of “structure”, t(97) = 2.66, p < .05 and “responsibility” t(97) = -2.75, p < .05. In regard to the Director’s practices, significant differences were identified on five of the six constructs, with “support” being the only construct without a significant difference. Effect sizes ranged from r = 0.21 to r = 0.33, indicating a nearly medium effect (Cohen, 1988) on all constructs showing significant differences between years.
Discussion
This longitudinal study described differences in organizational climate and leadership behaviors as perceived by the members of the [organization] before and after a change in leadership occurred. Members of the Board of Directors perceived differences between the former and current Executive Directors’ behaviors on five of the six climate constructs, however, they only perceived differences in the organizational climate on two of the six constructs. This provides only partial support for Stringer’s (2002) suggestion that leadership behaviors directly influence organizational climate. It may be that more time is needed following a change in leadership for members to begin perceiving a change in organization climate. Further research is recommended to determine if perceptions of the organizational climate eventually change and if that can be attributed to leadership.
References


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Abstract
Youth leadership life skills are the “development of life skills necessary to perform leadership functions in real life” (Miller, 1976, p.2). A model developed by Kapostasy indicates life skills should be taught through FFA (Staller, 2001). Thus, it is important to evaluate the youth leadership life skills developed to determine the effectiveness of leadership curriculum and its quality and impact. This research study surveyed [State] FFA members after attending the 2012 [State] Leadership Conference to determine the leadership life skills developed while at the conference. Furthermore, this study looked at relationships between FFA participants and FFA participation with youth leadership life skills.

Introduction/Conceptual Framework
Youth leadership life skills development is a necessary tenant of youth leadership programs. Miller (1976) defined youth leadership life skills as the “development of life skills necessary to perform leadership functions in real life” (p. 2). FFA involves students in leadership development activities, education, and experiences. However, [State] lacks data regarding FFA impact on respective participants’ leadership life skills. FFA programs claim leadership development occurs through participation in state conferences, camps and trainings, completion of supervised agricultural experience programs, holding offices at local and state levels, committee work, competitive events and state and national trips (Dormondy & Seevers, Rutherford, Townsend, Briers, Cummins, & Conrad, 2002; Townsend & Carter, 1983; Wingenbach & Kahler, 1997).

FFA in [State]
When FFA camps were being established in the late 1920s and early 1930s, they included recreational, social, and leadership activities. Leadership development is the central focus at modern FFA camps in
most states (Connors, Falk, & Epps, 2010). [State] was the second state chartered by the National FFA Organization in 1928 and maintains a permanent FFA camp still today. The original 35-acre land area was donated in the early 1930s by Honorable Harvey C. [Name], Director of the Reconstruction Finance Corporation (Smith, 1933). The first building to be erected at Camp [Name] was the chapter house. A fireplace was built on the inside by various chapters placing stones with their chapter name etched in them. The other building created at the time was the Yell County chapter house which was a two-story building with living quarters.

In 1935, the camp was deeded to the [State] FFA Association. Since the camp’s inception near Lake Catherine, you can still find the chapter house which has been renovated to include air conditioning, but a dining hall, cabins, recreational facilities, and leadership conference centers have been added (“Brief,” 2012). In order to help maintain the camp, Camp [Name] Clean Up has been implemented. Chapters from across the state travel to Camp [Name] for landscaping efforts as part of a partnership with the Keep [State] Beautiful campaign and the [State] Green Industry Association (“Camp,” 2012).

When the FFA camp was first established, a main component was “to teach boys how to organize and accept group responsibility under new and difficult conditions” (Smith, 1933, p. 46). Today, the camp is organized “to promote personal growth and enhance leadership skills” (“Activities,” 2012). The [State] Leadership Conference is a four-day conference where participants participate in large and small group sessions, reflections, team challenges, a service project and a banquet. The 2012 theme was I Believe. Participants learned how to be agricultural advocates, positively promote the industry, participated in a service learning project, and reflections. [State] Leadership Conference curriculum is developed by non-[State] staff and facilitated by current state officers and staff. This conference is not only important to [State] FFA members by developing their leadership skills, but also creates a networking opportunity. Until 2011, the [State] Leadership Conference was only offered for two, four-day sessions, but increased to three, four-day sessions to accommodate the growing number of attendees. During the three weeks of the 2012 conference, 413 members representing 55 chapters attended, of which 44.8% of attendees were male and 55.2% were female (“2012 [State],” 2012).

**FFA on a National Level**

Starting in 1928, the FFA was only open to Caucasian, males. If African American, males wanted to join the FFA, they had to join the New Farmers of America (NFA). For 37 years, the FFA and NFA were conducted separately until they merged to form one organization – FFA – in 1965. Still, women were not admitted into the FFA until 1969 (“Historical,” 2012). Today, there are over 540,000 FFA members between 12-21 years of age. Of the members, 43% are female and hold about 50% of state leadership positions. Furthermore, 76% of the membership is Caucasian and 88% of FFA members are in grades 9-12 (“FFA,” 2012). But, who are the youth who attend leadership conferences? Shinn, Briers, Christiansen, Edwards, Harlin, Lawver, Lindner, Murphy, and Parr (2003) concluded that it is important to provide age appropriate content. However, Ricketts, Priest and Lastly (2007) recommended that states may not need to create age appropriate curricula, but rather reserve it for age groups that have a definite variance.
Agricultural education is built on a three-circle integrated model: instruction, Supervised Agricultural Experience (SAE) and FFA. The instruction is provided through classroom and laboratory instruction in a contextual learning environment. In addition, SAE projects provide an opportunity for students to have a work-based learning experience. Finally, FFA serves as the student leadership organization where agricultural education students can be involved (“Agricultural,” 2012). The 2001 Director of Business and Information Services at the National FFA was Tom Kapostasy (Staller, 2001). Kapostasy developed a model to better understand the roles of classroom, SAE and FFA in accordance with knowledge and life skills. From this model (see Figure 1), the darker the shaded area the more important the “what” and “how” instructors teach agricultural education. This model clearly indicates the importance of life skills and FFA and how life skills should be taught through FFA.

Figure 1. A Model of Agricultural Education

Figure 1. Adapted from “What in the World Does Integral Mean Anyway? Is FFA Optional?” by B. Staller, 2001, February/March, NAAE News & Views, XLIII (3), p. 3.

An integral part of experiential youth leadership organizations, such as FFA, is leadership education (Real & Harlin, 2006). The National FFA Organization’s motto “is dedicated to making a positive difference in the lives of students by developing their potential for premier leadership, personal growth and career success through agricultural education” (“Mission and Motto,” 2012, para. 1). Furthermore, in order to accomplish this mission the National FFA Organization plans to “develop competent and assertive agricultural leadership; strengthen the confidence of agriculture students in themselves and their work; develop interpersonal skills in teamwork, communications, human relations and social interaction; and promote cooperation and cooperative attitudes among all people” (“Mission and Motto,” 2012, para. 2). [State] FFA strives to embody the mission of the National FFA Organization by developing leaders through the [State] Leadership Conference.

What We Teach

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Knowledge</th>
<th>Life Skills</th>
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<tr>
<td>Classroom/Laboratory</td>
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<td>SAE</td>
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<td>FFA</td>
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Note: The darker the shading, the more intense the strength of learning the “what” via the “how.”
Youth Leadership Life Skills
Studies have shown that involvement in leadership activities had a positive relationship with youth leadership skill development (Boyd, Herring, & Briers, 1992; Dormody & Seevers, 1994; Real & Harlin, 2006; Rutherford, et al., 2002; Seevers & Dormody, 1994; Townsend & Carter, 1983; Wingenbach & Kahler, 1997), females have higher leadership life skills scores than males (Dormody & Seevers, 1994; Real & Harlin, 2006; Seevers & Dormody, 1994), and there is no statistical difference in leadership life skills and age (Dormody & Seevers, 1994; Seavers & Dormody, 1994; Wingenbach & Kahler, 1997). However, few studies have determined if individual conferences aid in developing youth leadership life skills.

Not only can FFA help promote personal growth and enhance leadership skills, but participation in FFA activities has also been found to help further collegiate experiences. Past FFA members are more likely to participate in collegiate clubs and organizations and hold officer positions as compared to their non-FFA member counterparts (Allen, Ricketts, & Priest, 2007; Park & Dyer, 2005; & Smith, Garton, & Kitchel, 2010).

Two studies have been conducted (Rutherford et al., 2002; Real & Harlin, 2006) to determine if a specific activity has impact on leadership life skill development. Rutherford et al. (2002) conducted a study to understand the leadership self-perceptions of WLC participants. Real and Harlin (2006) conducted a study to see if Texas youth who serve as San Antonio Livestock Exposition school tour guides gained leadership life skills while serving as a tour guide. Both studies utilized the Leadership Skills Inventory (LSI) developed by Townsend and Carter (1983). However, no studies been found utilizing the Youth Leadership Life Skills Development Scale (YLLSDS) developed by Seevers, Dormody, & Clason (1995) to evaluate leadership life skills gained from a particular activity or conference.

Purpose and Objectives
The leadership life skills [State] FFA members develop from attending the [State] Leadership Conference have not been researched. Priority 5 of the National Research Agenda: American Association for Agricultural Education’s Research Priority Areas for 2011-2015 emphasized the need for “accurate and reliable data that describe the quality and impact of educational programs” (Doerfert, 2011, p. 24). Additionally, Ricketts and Newcomb (1984) found leadership and personal development were relatively low in FFA members. So, it was recommended “there needs to be a critical review of the instructional process in teaching leadership and personal development abilities” (p. 58). It was also determined, there needs to be evaluations of programs to determine their successfulness (Newcomb & Ricketts, 1984).

Hence, it is important to evaluate conferences such as the [State] Leadership Conference to understand what participants are gaining and to ensure what is being gained is of value. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to evaluate the [State] Leadership Conference on the development of perceived youth leadership life skills. The evaluation was guided by these objectives:

1. Describe the demographics of [State] FFA members at the 2012 [State] Leadership Conference.

2. Describe YLLSD of selected [State] FFA leaders.

3. Describe leadership participation in FFA of participants who attended the 2012 [State] Leadership

5. Explore relationships between FFA participants and YLLSD.

6. Explore the relationship between FFA participation and YLLSD.

**Methodology**

Descriptive survey methodology and correlational design was used for this study. A three section modified- researcher developed instrument was distributed to FFA members who attended the 2012 [State] Leadership Conference. The first section of the instrument, Youth Leadership Life Skills Development Scale (YLLSDS), was developed by Seevers, Dormody, and Clason (1995). This is a 30-indicator, unidimensional instrument that uses a four-point sub-scale ranging from 0 = no gain to 3 = a lot of gain, and has yielded a Cronbach’s alpha of .98. The researchers chose the YLLSDS as the dependent variable to be used as an evaluation tool to measure self-assessed scores of youth leadership skills gained through participation in the 2012 [State] Leadership Conference. The second and third sections of the instrument are researcher developed questions pertaining to involvement in FFA and demographics. This instrument was designed for [State] FFA Staff to evaluate leadership life skills FFA members gained by attending the conference. The instrument was reviewed by a panel of experts including five faculty members, two doctoral candidates and one [State] FFA state staff member for face and content validity. Due to recommendations by the expert panel, minor revisions were made. A pilot test was then conducted to ensure reliability. A sample of 29 participants who attended the Texas Area I Leadership Camp completed the instrument. After discarding incomplete instruments, the final pilot group (n = 18) was tested for reliability using a Cronbach’s alpha on the YLLSDS modified portion of the instrument and yielded an alpha of 0.954.

There were 413 registered participants at the three [State] Leadership Conference sessions. Three hundred twenty-eight surveys were completed, of which 290 instruments were deemed usable (n = 290) resulting in a 70.22% response rate. During the conference, participants attended a reflection workshop where workshop presenters asked them to critically reflect upon their time at the [State] Leadership Conference. Participants completed the instrument as a component of the reflection workshop in which responses pertained to the conference. To achieve the objectives of this study, means, frequencies, standard deviations and percentages were calculated as well as correlations. All calculations were calculated utilizing SPSS© version 20.

**Results**

Objective one sought to describe the demographics of participants of the 2012 [State] Leadership
Conference (see Table 1). Of those who responded when asked about gender \((n = 288)\), 163 (56.2%) were female and 125 (43.1%) were male. When asked about ethnicity, \((n = 286)\), most were white (270, 93.1%) with 5 (1.7%) African Americans, 4 (1.4%) Other, 3 (1.0%) Native American, 2 (0.7%) Asian/Pacific Islander, and 2 (0.7%) Hispanic participants. The average length of membership was 2.48 years \((SD = 1.29)\). The average age of participants was 15.88 \((SD = 1.05)\). When asked about what grade participants had just completed, the average was 9.90 \((SD = 1.00)\).

Table 1

*Characteristics of Students Who Attended the 2012 [State] Leadership Conference \((n = 288)\)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristic</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Ethnicity</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>African American</td>
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<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>163</td>
<td>5</td>
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<tr>
<td>Percent</td>
<td>56.2%</td>
<td>1.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>43.1</td>
<td>1.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Objective two sought to describe YLLSD of 2012 [State] Leadership Conference participants (see Table 2). Participants perceived their level of leadership as slight \((M = 2.13, SD = 0.274)\). The most favorable perceived life skills were, respect others \((M = 2.51, SD = 0.67)\) and have good manners \((M = 2.50, SD = 0.67)\), both moderate; and get along with others \((M = 2.45, SD = 0.72)\), slight. The least favorably perceived were have a positive self-concept \((M = 1.84, SD = 0.80)\), trust other people \((M = 1.79, SD = 0.94)\), and can express feelings \((M = 1.78, SD = 0.92)\).
Table 2

*Perceived Youth Leadership Life Skills of 2012 [State] Leadership Conference Participants (n = 290)*

Youth Leadership Life Skills Respect Others Have Good Manners a Get Along With Others Have a Friendly Personality Can be Honest With Others a Show a Responsible Attitude b Consider the Needs of Others Consider Input From all Group Members Can Listen Effectively b

Mean SD 2.51 0.67 2.50 0.67 2.45 0.71 2.43 0.72 2.35 0.74 2.22 0.72 2.19 0.72 2.18 0.73 2.17 0.79 2.16 0.77 2.14 0.75 2.12 0.74 2.12 0.75 2.10 0.80 2.08 0.81 2.07 0.85 2.06 0.79 2.05 0.86 2.03 0.74 2.03 0.77 2.02 0.76 2.01 0.91 1.99 0.75 1.96 0.81 1.92 0.67 1.87 0.68 1.84 0.80 1.79 0.94 1.78 0.92 2.13 0.37

5

------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------

Use Rational Thinking a Can Use Information to Solve Problems Can Set Priorities a Can Clarify my Values Can Solve Problems Create an Atmosphere of Acceptance Am Open Minded Can Set Goals a Am Open to Change Can Consider Alternatives Can Delegate Responsibility Can be Flexible Am Sensitive to Others Can be Tactful Can Handle Mistakes Can Determine Needs Can Select Alternatives Have a a Positive Self-Concept Trust Other People Can Express Feelings Total c Note. a (n=289), b (n=288), c (n=278), Scale was 1=No, 2=Slight, 3=Moderate, 4=ALot.

Objective three sought to describe leadership participation of FFA members who attended the [State] Leadership Conference (see Table 3). When asked about attending the [State] State FFA Convention (n = 290), 204 (70.3%) said they have attended. Of those who have attended, 25 (8.6%) have served as a Courtesy Corp member, 17 (5.9%) have been on the Nominating Committee, and 10 (3.4%) have been
on the Audit Committee. When asked about attending the National FFA Convention, 112 (38.6%) said they have attended. Only 8 (2.8%) have served as a national delegate. [State] provides opportunities for members to attend four conferences throughout the year: [State] Leadership Conference, 360° Leadership Conference, Advanced Leadership Development (ALD) Conference, and the Washington Leadership Conference (WLC). For the [State] Leadership Conference, 104 (35.9%) said they had participated in the conference previously. [State] has hosted the 360° Leadership Conference with 80 (27.6%) participating and the ALD Conference with 46 (15.9%) participating. For the WLC, 25 (8.6%) have participated.

When asked about chapter officer positions, Other (i.e. FFA representative, Junior Advisor) had the highest number with 59 (20.3%) followed by Reporter (55, 19.0%), and Sentinel (43, 14.8%). Members can hold more than one degree and the researchers asked the participants of the survey to only indicate the highest degree held. The highest degree held was the Chapter degree (110, 37.9%), meaning these students also held the Greenhand and if recognized by their chapter the Discovery degree as well. The Greenhand degree followed the Chapter degree as the highest degree members have been awarded (101, 34.8%). Forty (13.8%) participants reported they did not hold a degree.

Table 3

*Summary of Participation in Leadership Opportunities (n = 290)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>Conference Participation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>[State] State FFA Convention</td>
<td>Courtesy Corp Nominating Committee Audit Committee</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter Office Held</td>
<td>President Vice-President Secretary Treasurer Reporter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sentinel</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Other Highest Degree Held

| Discovery Greenhand Chapter State American | 0 0 0 0 No Degree 40 13.8 |

The researchers also included SAE projects in leadership (see Table 4 and 5). There were 226 (77.9%) participants who reported having an SAE project. Most had an SAE project in the area of entrepreneurship (150, 51.7%) followed by placement (85, 29.3%), exploratory (24, 8.3%), and research and experimentation (11, 3.8%).

Table 4
Student’s Involvement in Supervised Agricultural Experience Projects (n = 290)

6

Frequency Percent

204 70.3 25 8.6 17 5.9 10 3.4
112 38.6 8 2.8 109 37.6 104 35.9 80 27.6 46 15.9 25 8.6
41 14.1 40 13.8 44 15.2 42 14.5 55 19.0 43 14.8 59 20.3

SAE Project Have Do Not Have

Table 5

Frequency Percent 226 77.9 64 22.1

Students’ Involvement in Supervised Agricultural Experience Project Areas (n = 290)

SAE Project Area Frequency Percent Entrepreneurship
Entrepreneurship

Placement 85 29.3

Exploratory 24 8.3 Research and Experimentation 11 3.8 Note. Students could select multiple answers.

Objective four sought to describe CDE participation of FFA members who attended the 2012 [State] Leadership Conference (see Table 6). [State] offers 23 CDEs for FFA members to participate in either individually or as a team. For individual CDE participation, Creed Speaking had the highest participation (District – 20, 6.9%; State – 5, 1.7%; National – 1, 0.3%). For team CDE participation, Opening & Closing Ceremonies had the highest participation (District – 56, 19.3%; State – 25, 8.6%; National – 1, 0.3%) followed by Livestock Evaluation (District – 46, 14.8%; State – 23, 7.9%; National – 2, 0.7%) and Parliamentary Procedures (District – 32, 11.0%; State – 13, 4.5%; National – 3, 1.0%). Of those who had participated in a CDE, the level of highest participation
reported was district.

Table 6

_Students’ Participation in Career Development Events (n = 290)_

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>District</th>
<th>State</th>
<th>National Event</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

_Individual Competition Creed Speaking Prepared Public Speaking Extemporaneous Public Speaking Agriscience Fair_

_Team Competition Opening & Closing Ceremonies Livestock Evaluation Parliamentary Procedures Poultry Evaluation Milk Quality & Products Floriculture Horse Evaluation Land Judging Nursery & Landscape Forestry Ag Mechanics Farm Business Management Agronomy Electricity Ag Communications Meats Evaluation & Technology Food Science & Technology Agriscience Fair Ag Issues Forum_

_Note. Students could select multiple answers._

| 20 | 6.9 | 6.2 | 1.4 | 1.4 |
| 56 | 19.3| 46.8| 14.8| 3.2 |
| 11 | 3.8 | 9.3 | 1.0 | 3.4 |
| 10 | 3.4 | 6.2 | 1.4 | 1.4 |
| 10 | 3.4 | 9.3 | 1.0 | 3.4 |
| 5  | 1.7 | 1.0 | 3.3 | 1.0 |
| 5  | 1.7 | 4.1 | 4.1 | 4.1 |
| 25 | 8.6 | 1.0 | 3.2 | 23.9|
| 3  | 0.7 | 13.4| 5.3 | 3.1 |
| 1  | 0.7 | 2.6 | 9.0 | 0.0 |
| 1  | 0.3 | 13.4| 5.0 | 0.0 |
| 9  | 3.1 | 1.0 | 3.1 | 1.0 |
| 9  | 3.1 | 0.0 | 10.3| 4.0 |
| 9  | 3.1 | 0.0 | 2.0 | 7.1 |
| 1  | 0.3 | 1.4 | 0.0 | 6.2 |
| 1  | 0.3 | 1.4 | 0.0 | 6.2 |
| 1  | 0.3 | 1.4 | 0.0 | 6.2 |
| 1  | 0.3 | 1.4 | 0.0 | 6.2 |
| 1  | 0.3 | 1.4 | 0.0 | 6.2 |
| 1  | 0.3 | 1.4 | 0.0 | 6.2 |

Objective five and six sought to explore relationships between FFA participants and FFA participation with YLLSD (see Table 7). There are negligible relationships between age, gender and years of membership with YLLSD. While the relationships between involvement and YLLSD are low, there is a stronger relationship found between CDE involvement and YLLSD.
Table 7

*Relationships Between FFA Participation and FFA Involvement with YLLSD (n = 288)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Years of Membership Gender Age</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>b Leadership Involvement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b</td>
<td>CDE Involvement (n=283)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b</td>
<td>YLLSD (n=289)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

YLLSD

| 0.04 | -0.08 | 0.08 | 0.12 | 0.17 |

**Conclusions**

Just over half of the participants in this study were female (56.2%) and most (93.1%) were Caucasian. On average, the participants had been a member of FFA for 2.48 years, were 15.88 years old, and had just completed the 9th or 10th grade. This is similar to what Ricketts et al. (2007) found when determining the practices of Georgia FFA members who attended the Success Conference. Participants were over 16 years old, and half were male and half were female in their study.

When it comes to leadership participation, participants are fairly active in the [State] State FFA Convention with 70.3% indicating they had participated, but only 38.6% had participated in the National FFA Convention. Furthermore, 35.9% of participants had previously attended the [State] Leadership Conference, 27.6% have attended the ALD Conference and only 8.6% have attended the WLC. This could be due to participants being relatively young or being members of FFA for a short period of time. When discussing leadership positions held, it is interesting to find that the highest percentage (20.3%) have held an officer position other than the six typical officer positions for FFA. Examples included Junior Advisor, Class Representative, and FFA Representative. Also, the highest degree reported was the Chapter degree (37.9%).

In addition, even though the agricultural education model is a three-circle integrated model, 77.9% of participants reported having an SAE. Of the project areas, entrepreneurship had the most responses with 51.7% followed by placement. This differs from what Wilson and Moore (2007) found when they asked agricultural educators who attended the North Carolina summer teacher conference about SAE programs. They found teachers to believe SAE is important in agricultural education and the most common type of SAE students participated in was placement closely followed by entrepreneurship. Also,
less than 1/3 of teachers had 75% or higher of students participating in SAEs.

[State] FFA members are only very active in a few CDEs. With Opening & Closing Ceremonies (82, 28.2%), Livestock Evaluation (71, 23.4%) and Parliamentary Procedures (48, 16.5%) being the most popular. Also, the highest level of participation was the district level. This follows suite with Talbert and Balschweid (2004) finding the highest level of CDE participation to also be the district level.

There was no relationship found between age, gender and years of FFA membership with YLLSD. This differs from Dormody & Seevers (1994), Real & Harlin (2006), and Seevers & Dormody's (1994) findings of females having higher scores than males. However it does follow suit with Dormody & Seevers (1994), Seevers & Dormody (1994), and Wigenbach & Kahler’s (1997) findings that there is no difference in age and YLLSD. Furthermore, there were low relationships found between FFA involvement and YLLSD. CDE involvement; however, did have a stronger relationship with YLLSD than leadership involvement. Therefore, FFA members in [State] should continue competing in CDEs.

**Recommendations**

Researchers should explore if particular leadership conferences have an impact on YLLSD scores and report the findings to state FFA staff. It is also important that workshop developers have access to information regarding the specific demographics and leadership involvement of previous participants to develop relevant curriculum for the audience.

Likewise, it is imperative to understand if age is a factor to leadership life skill development at other conferences hosted by the [State] FFA Association. Such information would help determine if the curriculum FFA members receive is best for all age or membership levels.
References


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Perceived Youth Leadership Life Skills Developed in Selected [State] FFA Leaders

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Abstract
Understanding youth leadership life skills also allows for the understanding of leadership involvement. This study utilized survey methodology and correlational design to describe youth leadership life skill development (YLLSD) of selected [State] FFA leaders after attending the [State] Leadership Conference. Researchers also explored relationships between FFA participants and participation and YLLSD.

Introduction/Conceptual Framework
Miller (1976) defined youth leadership life skills as the “development of life skills necessary to perform leadership functions in real life” (p. 2). FFA programs claim leadership development occurs through participation in state conferences, camps and trainings, completion of supervised agricultural experience programs, holding offices at local and state levels, committee work, competitive events and state and national trips (Dormody & Seevers 1994, Rutherford, Townsend, Briers, Cummins, & Conrad, 2002; Townsend & Carter, 1983; Wingenbach & Kahler, 1997).

Studies have shown that involvement in leadership activities had a positive relationship with youth leadership skill development (Boyd, Herring, & Briers, 1992; Dormody & Seevers, 1994; Real & Harlin, 2006; Rutherford, et al., 2002; Seevers & Dormody, 1994; Townsend & Carter, 1983; Wingenbach & Kahler, 1997), females have higher leadership life skills scores than males (Dormody & Seevers, 1994; Real & Harlin, 2006; Seevers & Dormody, 1994), and there is no statistical difference in leadership life skills and age (Dormody & Seevers, 1994; Seevers & Dormody, 1994; Wigenbach & Kahler, 1997).

The leadership life skills [State] FFA members develop has not been researched. Research Priority Area 5 of the National Research Agenda: American Association for Agricultural Education’s Research Priority Areas for 2011-2015 (Doerfert, 2011) emphasized the need for “accurate and reliable data that describe the quality and impact of educational programs” (p. 24). This study aimed to describe the impact of FFA participation on FFA members’ individual leadership skills. The purpose of this study was to evaluate the
development of perceived youth leadership life skills development (YLLSD) of selected [State] FFA leaders. The objectives were:

1. Describe YLLSD of selected [State] FFA leaders.
2. Explore relationships between FFA participants and YLLSD
3. Explore relationships between FFA participation and YLLSD.

**Methodology**

Descriptive survey methodology and correlational design was used for this study. This modified-researcher developed instrument is comprised of three sections – YLLSDS, FFA Involvement and Demographics. The first section of the instrument, YLLSDS, was developed by Seevers, Dormody, and Clason (1995). A pilot group \( n = 18 \) was tested for reliability using a Cronbach’s alpha on the YLLSDS modified portion of the instrument and yielded an alpha of 0.95. Selected [State] FFA leaders who attended the [State] Leadership Conference compiled the sample used for this study. There were 413 participants at the [State] Leadership Conference. Only 328 surveys were received, of which 290 instruments were deemed usable \( n = 290 \) resulting in a response rate of 70.22%. SPSS© version 20 was utilized for calculations.

**Results**

Objective one sought to describe YLLSD of selected [State] FFA leaders (Table 1). Participants perceived their level of leadership as slight \( (M = 2.13, SD = 0.274) \). The most favorable perceived life skills were, respect others \( (M = 2.51, SD = 0.67) \) and have good manners \( (M = 2.50, SD = 0.67) \), both moderate; and get along with others \( (M = 2.45, SD = 0.71) \), slight. The least favorably perceived were have a positive self concept \( (M = 1.84, SD = 0.80) \), trust other people \( (M = 1.79, SD = 0.94) \), and can express feelings \( (M = 1.78, SD = 0.92) \).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Youth Leadership Life Skills</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Top</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Respect Others</td>
<td>2.51</td>
<td>0.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have Good Manners</td>
<td>2.50</td>
<td>0.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Get Along With Others(^a)</td>
<td>2.45</td>
<td>0.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Bottom</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have a Positive Self Concept</td>
<td>1.84</td>
<td>0.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trust Other People</td>
<td>1.79</td>
<td>0.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Can Express Feelings</td>
<td>1.78</td>
<td>0.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total(^b)</strong></td>
<td>2.13</td>
<td>0.37</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note. \(^a\) (n = 289), \(^b\) (n = 278), Scale was 1 = No, 2 = Slight, 3 = Moderate, 4 = A Lot.*
Objective two and three sought to explore relationships between FFA participants and FFA participation with YLLSD (Table 2). There are negligible relationships between age, gender and years of membership with YLLSD. While the relationships between involvement and YLLSD are low, there is a stronger relationship found between Career Development Event (CDE) involvement and YLLSD.

Table 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Relationship Between FFA Participation and FFA Involvement with YLLSD (n = 288)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Variable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Years of Membership a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leadership Involvement b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CDE Involvement</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note.  a (n = 283), b (n = 289)

Conclusions/Recommendations

There was no relationship found between age, gender and years of FFA membership with YLLSD. This differs from Dormody & Seevers (1994), Real & Harlin (2006), and Seevers & Dormody's (1994) findings of females having higher scores than males. However, it does follow suit with Dormody & Seevers (1994), Seevers & Dormody (1994), and Wigenbach & Kahler’s (1997) findings that there is no difference in age and YLLSD. There were low relationships found between FFA involvement and YLLSD. CDE involvement; however, did have a stronger relationship with YLLSD than leadership involvement. Therefore, FFA leaders in [State] should continue competing in CDE’s. Furthermore, researchers should explore if particular leadership conferences have an impact on YLLSD scores and report the findings to state FFA staff.

References


Miller, R. A. (1976). *Leader/agent’s guide: Leadership life skills.* Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, OK.


Quack Leadership: Analyzing the Three Skills Approach through an Analysis of Duck Dynasty

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Abstract
In an introductory leadership and service-learning course at [University] students were asked to evaluate leaders from the reality television show Duck Dynasty based on the Three Skills Approach. The use of popular culture assisted with the learning process and knowledge retention by providing the student with a medium that was easily obtained and readily understood. An increase in student participation and engagement was witnessed after the introduction of the pop culture assignment.

Introduction
The United States has seen a surge in the number of reality television shows. From reality contests such as Dancing with the Stars, The Amazing Race, and Project Runway, to relational reality shows such as Keep Up with the Kardashians, Here Comes Honey Boo Boo, and The Bachelor(ette), reality shows have infiltrated prime time television.

Popular culture “sets the stage for applying theory to practice. By providing examples where one can observe and recognize how theories are being applied helps provide a ‘real’ context in which a great understanding can occur (Callahan & Rosser, 2007, p. 272). Popular culture appeals to students because it weaves current events, movies, television shows, music, and entertainment into the academic classroom. Therefore, incorporating popular culture into the classroom can be identified as a best practice for classroom delivery of course concepts (Williams & McClure, 2010). Therefore, leadership educators should strive to incorporate popular culture into leadership courses to actively engage students in the learning process.

Background
An example of pop culture is the Duck Dynasty phenomenon. This hit reality television show focuses on the Robertson family, a Louisiana family whose values are very simple: “faith, family, and ducks, in that order” (Beall, 2013, p. 17). The hit A&E television show is meant to highlight the family-run and very
successful business of Duck Commander. Duck Commander is a business that was pioneered by the head of the Robertson Family, Phil Robertson. As a leader, Phil was a visionary and a dreamer. He set a goal to begin making duck calls that sounded like actual ducks and did all he could to support his family while pursuing his dream of creating a revolutionary duck call. While trying to get Duck Commander off of the ground, the help of the entire family was enlisted to aid in the making, packaging and distributing of the duck calls. His son Willie Robertson recalls an assembly line made up of family members gathering together on the porch of Phil and Kay’s home to put together the calls (Robertson & Robertson, 2012, p. 111). Willie Robertson now runs the family business with the enlisted help of his brothers Jase and Jep Robertson and his wife Korie. In third season premiere, Duck Dynasty has drawn record numbers of 8.6 million viewers for the A&E network, making the show one of the number one reality shows on television (Kenneally, 2013).

An introductory leadership and service-learning course at [University] utilized episodes of Duck Dynasty throughout the semester to illustrate leadership theories, models, and concepts. Specifically, the Duck Dynasty season 2, episode 11 “Duck No, We Won’t Go” was used to illustrate and foster discussion on the Three Skills Approach to leadership. The three skills this includes are administrative skills (organizational skills), interpersonal skills (people skills), and conceptual skills (cognitive skills) (Northouse, 2013).

Method
With a class of around 20 students, “Duck No, We Won’t Go” fit perfectly into the short 50 minutes allotted for class meeting time. The students were first instructed to choose one character from the show justify why they classified this person as a leader. Students picked one individual as a leader based on position power, whereas other student selected a leader based on emergent leadership. After the student identified the leader, there were asked to rate the selected leader according to the individual’s administrative, interpersonal, and conceptual skills on a scale ranging from poor to very good. Additionally, students were asked to provide justification for the scores. After the episode of Duck Dynasty concluded, the instructor began a discussion with the students focused on leaders and the Three Skill Set Approach.

Results to Date
While many students were aware of Duck Dynasty, few students had seen an entire episode. Therefore, students were focused during the episode. Students were also able to make leadership applications by identifying leadership attributes and skill sets of the characters. During the discussion, students who typically did not participate were tuned into class and actively participated in the class discussion. Moreover, students identified other leadership concepts not specifically highlighted in the discussion questions. Overall, students were engaged and responded well to the activity.

Discussion
The show Duck Dynasty is an excellent tool to use to illustrate the Three Skills Approach. However, it should be noted this reality television show could also be used to illustrate other a variety of other leadership theories, models, and concepts such as leadership style, creating culture, ethical leadership,
values, and team leadership. Leadership educators should analyze episodes from seasons 1 and 2 to make additional applications to leadership. Moreover, leadership instructors could challenge students to identify leadership concepts and make applications from season 3 episodes that are premiering each week on the A&E network.

By using popular culture in the classroom, educators are able to actively engage students in the learning process by using illustrations such as Duck Dynasty that is easily obtained, widely recognized, and universally understood (Callahan & Rosser, 2007). It is a win-win situation for both the instructor and the students.

References


Self-Directed Leader Development: A Case Study of Student Engagement and Resilience in Interdisciplinary Leadership Programs

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Abstract
Informed by the Situational Leadership Approach (Hersey, Blanchard, & Johnson, 1988) and Grow’s (1991) Staged Self-Directed Learning (SSDL) Model, this session highlights a case study of teaching assessment within interdisciplinary leadership programs. A number of variables including student and teacher engagement, teaching styles, and student evaluation of instructors were considered in correlation to retention and integration of core leadership concepts. It was determined that student engagement correlated most to retention and integration. Using the SSDL, our recommendations focus on helping students develop resiliency through self-directed learning of leadership concepts. This practice session aims to present a theoretical framework and case study of our journey through this assessment process so others can learn from our struggles and successes and implement similar assessments within their own interdisciplinary leadership programs.

Introduction
From the earliest conception of Higher Education in the new world, faculty members within institutions of higher learning were concerned with creating resilient leaders within the American colonies (Thelin, 2011). Later, this resiliency would prove vital as these states united to became a nation. As the industrial revolution took hold globally, the focus of many U.S. colleges and universities began to focus on more technical and vocational aspects of training (Lucas, 2006; Noble, 2001). In short, colleges became less about creating leaders and more about creating workers (Noble, 2002). Today, interdisciplinary leadership programs serve to help students achieve the best of both worlds. That is, to help students gain the necessary experiences and foundational skills to be resilient leaders without sacrificing an excellent technical preparation. Such a marriage between leader/leadership development and technical preparation seems ideal; however the paradigm has its challenges. One significant problem centers on the extent that students retain foundational concepts and integrate programmatic experiences into their major area of study during college and post-graduate praxis.

The organizational structure of leadership programs varies greatly from institution to institution, however it is rare that all students in the program benefit from identical instruction. In our program courses are divided in sections taught by separate professors, adjuncts, and graduate teaching assistants. Students have given feedback suggesting that inconsistencies encountered in separate sections might impede their own leadership development. In response, we sought to measure the effectiveness of the experience across programmatic inconsistencies by using an exploratory quasi-experimental design (Johnson & Christensen, 2008). While this method is certainly limited in its generalizability and statistical power, it serves well in an exploratory capacity preceding more detailed program assessments.
In our implementation of this method, data were collected across three sections of a course linked to our program. We focused on several independent variables including student engagement, faculty engagement and teaching styles, and student evaluation of instructors and how each correlated to dependent variables such as participant retention and integration of core programmatic concepts. We ultimately found student engagement had the strongest correlation with retention and successful integration of concepts. While student engagement literature (e.g. Barkley, 2010) leads us to suspect that such findings may be generalizable to interdisciplinarily leadership programs across various regional and cultural boundaries, the exploratory design of the study does not allow us to say for sure. Rather, we seek to present a theoretical framework and case study of our journey through this assessment process so others can learn from our struggles and successes.

**Background**

As a conceptual framework for our exploratory analysis we rely on an outgrowth situational leadership (Hersey et al., 1988) to categorize exhibited teaching behaviors. Situational leadership is not only relevant as a well-known and discussed framework within leadership studies and leadership education, but it has also been historically used to successfully categorize teaching and learning in higher education settings (e.g. Grow, 1991; Hersey, Angelini, & Carakushansky, 1982). Specifically, we cite Grow’s (1991) adaptation of situational leadership; the Staged Self-Directed Learning (SSDL) Model. The SSDL holds 6 assumptions to be true:

1. The goal of the education process is to produce self-directed, lifelong learners…
2. There is more than one way to teach well (teaching is situational)…
3. The ability to be self-directed is situational in that one may be self-directed in one subject (and) and a dependent learner in another …
4. Self-direction is advantageous in many settings…but there is nothing inherently wrong with being a dependent learner…
5. Just as dependency and helplessness can be learned, self-direction can be learned – and it can be taught…
6. A theory does not have to be right to be useful. Nearly every action (one) take(s) results from a workable convergence of misconceptions.” (Grow, 1991, p. 127)

The model suggests that teaching is an extension of leadership. Just as the Situational Leadership (Hersey et al., 1988) suggests the ultimate goal of a leader is to match his/her leadership style to the level of dependence or self-directedness, so must the teacher adjust his/her teaching style to that of the learner. In other words, there is no teaching style that universally proves more meaningful to all students. Rather, it is the teacher who consistently adapts to meet the needs of the learner that is more successful. Another important feature of the framework can be found in the third assumption of the model. Specifically, the model suggests that self-directedness is not universal and that we may develop self-directed learners in leadership concepts independently of a given student’s readiness to be self-directed in other aspects of their technical preparation.

**Description of the Practice or Discussion/Interaction**

The sixth assumption of SSDL suggests that all theories are flawed and must be interrogated (Grow, 1991). In part, our exploratory study confirmed that the theoretical framework explicated in SSDL tended to hold up in our analysis. During this session we intend to share the conceptual framework (SSDL) for our assessment method and analysis as well as a case study documenting our journey through the assessment process. We will articulate our programmatic structure clearly so as to explicate our rationale for choices regarding measurement and correlational data analysis. Ultimately, we hope to assist participants to adapt similar assessment strategies to their own programs if warranted.
**Foreseeable Implications**
Analysis of our data suggests that our students’ levels of engagement have a relatively strong correlation to retention and integration of core leadership concepts into their own worldview. As a result, time will be spent addressing solutions for improving student engagement in interdisciplinary leadership programs. Secondarily, we will address strategies for meeting programmatic needs in hypothetical cases wherein other independent variables appear to correlate more powerfully to retention and integration of core leadership concepts (e.g. teacher engagement, teaching style, or student evaluation of the instructor).

**Recommended Next Steps**
In light of the quasi-experimental, exploratory nature of this work, further experimental quantitative and qualitative research is necessary to interrogate methodology and establish a consistent process of evaluating and studying resiliency of leadership development core concepts within the broader context of student learning in higher education. Of specific importance to us is developing a more sophisticated method of coding and interviewing teachers regarding teaching practices in interdisciplinary leadership programs in order to track how adaptations of teaching methods are altered – sometimes mid-lesson – to engage student learning styles.
References


Self-Perceived Leadership Life Skills Assessment of Animal Science Majors

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Abstract
Leadership and its associated skills have been identified as important soft skills desired by employers hiring graduates in the field of agriculture (Crawford, Lang, Fink, Dalton, & Fielitz, 2011). This study examined self-perceived leadership skills of senior animal science majors at two universities. The Leadership Skills Inventory (LSI) was used to collect data from 110 students. The LSI consists of five internal scales: working with groups, understanding self, communicating, making decisions, and leadership. Students scored lowest in the leadership scale. No significant differences were found in self-perceived leadership and life skill ability between students with FFA experience and those without.

Introduction
Research has shown skills such as solving problems, communicating effectively, working on teams, thinking critically, and possessing interpersonal skills, are the employability skills most desired by employers (Billing, 2003; Schmidt, 1999). Leadership and its associated skills have been identified as important soft skills desired by employers hiring graduates in agriculture (Crawford, Lang, Fink, Dalton, & Fielitz, 2011). In a web-based survey completed by 53 engineering employers, respondents indicated that not only is development of leadership skills by engineering students appreciated, it is required if they are to meet the demands of the engineering workforce. From agriculture to engineering, one factor holds true, leadership skills are a desired trait in employers and can increase job opportunity (Dunn, 2009).

Researchers have found students who have been members of FFA possess more leadership and personal development abilities than do nonmembers (Stewart, Smith, Ehlert, & Milhalevich, 1985). Previous studies on youth development have found a positive relationship between leadership development and participation in school and community organizations (Wingenbach & Kahler, 1997). Leadership skills are important for new college graduates in agriculture to develop (Crawford et al., 2011). Assessment measures should be used to evaluate leadership skills attainment upon graduation.

Background
Leadership and life skills have been measured and analyzed (Townsend & Carter, 1983; Dormody & Seevers, 1994; Thorp, Cummins, & Townsend, 1998; Rutherford, Townsend, Briers, & Conrad, 2002; Boyd, Herring, & Briers, 1992). Townsend and Carter (1983) found a significant relationship between FFA participation scores and leadership scores for 12th grade vocational agricultural students in Iowa. In a similar study, Dormody and Seevers (1994) concluded leadership life skills development was not related to self-esteem, years in FFA, age, ethnicity, or place of residence. The factors more directly related to life leadership skills development were leadership activities, achievement expectancy, and gender (Dormody, et al., 1994).

Overall, students in the agricultural field perceive they possess leadership skills at a higher level (Layfield, Radhakrishna & Andreasen, 2000). Additionally, students who participated in leadership programs significantly rated their leadership skills higher than those students who did not participate in leadership programs (Layfield et al., 2000). This conclusion mirrors the results of Birkenholtz and Schumacher’s (1994) study. Rutherford et al. (2002) conducted a study further supporting the positive relationship between FFA participation and self-perceptions of leadership.

Two notable instruments used to assess leadership and life skills are the Leadership Skills Inventory (LSI; Townsend & Carter, 1983) and the Youth Leadership Life Skills Development (YLLSD). While the YLLSD has been primarily used on youth (Dormody & Seevers, 1994), the LSI has been utilized on multiple audiences (Thorp et al., 1998).

This study sought to examine the self-perceived leadership and life skills of animal science majors. Animal science departments are interested in assessing their students in terms of their leadership and life skills attainment because they want to ensure they are prepared to enter the workforce.

**Methods**

Descriptive survey methodology was used in this study to examine the self-perceived leadership skill abilities of students in their last semester of completing an animal science degree. Students at [university] and [university] were given the LSI at the end of the semester in a seminar course in which they were enrolled. A census sample was attempted in the two courses. A total of 110 [university 1=79, university 2=32] surveys were completed.

The LSI was the instrument used in this study. This instrument measures leadership and life skills using 21 statements and a Likert-type scale for participants to respond. The instrument contains five internal scales: (a) Working with groups, (b) Understanding self, (c) Communicating, (d) Making decisions, and (e) Leadership. Responses for each statement are averaged to create an individual response for each scale. The instrument reliability has good reliability estimates as reported from previous researchers (Thorp et al, 1998; Boyd, 1991) using Cronbach’s alpha of .63 to .83 and .65 to .83.

**Results to Date**

Table 1 illustrates the descriptive statistics of the overall LSI constructs. Students in animal science majors at [university] and [university] perceived their highest construct in the LSI area to be
understanding self (M=4.62). Students mostly agreed with statements related to understanding self. The lowest construct reported was leadership (M=3.51).

Table 1

Descriptive Statistics of Leadership Skills Inventory Constructs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Construct</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>Max</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Understanding Self</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>4.62</td>
<td>.41</td>
<td>3.40</td>
<td>5.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Working with groups</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>4.58</td>
<td>.37</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>5.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Making Decisions</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>4.45</td>
<td>.48</td>
<td>3.33</td>
<td>5.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communicating</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>4.34</td>
<td>.47</td>
<td>2.75</td>
<td>5.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leadership</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>3.51</td>
<td>.51</td>
<td>1.83</td>
<td>4.17</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

This study also sought to examine whether students with or without FFA experience differed in their self-perceived leadership and life skills. As indicated in Table 2, there was not a significant difference in any construct (p<.05). All students scored lowest in the leadership construct of the LSI (M=3.52 and M=3.49).

Table 2

Descriptive Statistics of Leadership Skills Inventory Constructs by FFA Participation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Construct</th>
<th>FFA Experience</th>
<th>No FFA Experience</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>n</td>
<td>M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Working with groups</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>4.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understanding Self</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>4.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communicating</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>4.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Making Decisions</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>4.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leadership</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>3.52</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

Discussion

Because leadership and its associated skills have been identified as important soft skills desired by employers hiring graduates in agriculture (Crawford et al., 2011), it is important for colleges of agriculture to assess the leadership and life skills of their students. In this study, animal science majors assessed their leadership and life skill ability. Students rated their leadership and life skills moderately high as indicated by the means of 4.0 or higher on every construct but leadership.

Agricultural leadership organizations such as FFA offer countless opportunities for its members to learn and develop leadership life skills (Real, 2004). These soft skills are seen as a competitive advantage for
college graduates in the field of agriculture. In this study, there was not a difference in the self-perceived leadership and life skill ability of those who were in FFA or not. This finding is consistent with other studies who found there was no difference (Dormody & Seevers, 1994).

Given that the construct of leadership was the lowest construct score and students were neutral about their perceived ability, more attention should be given to the leadership abilities of animal science students. Animal science majors may benefit from leadership experiences and instruction.

References


Service Learning: The Legacy That Continues

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Abstract
Service-learning is an innovative way to engage students in leadership curriculum. This form of experiential learning is increasing in popularity because of its benefit to the student and the community. The application of service learning integrates community service with course concepts. Moreover, students gain a sense of civic responsibility as well as demonstrate an increase in self-efficacy. Throughout the course of service-learning activities, leadership attributes are built upon, specifically, the six character pillars of an ethical leader. This poster focuses on the positive effects of a service-learning project when it is implemented in a service-learning course at [University].

Introduction
Service-learning is a unique form of experiential learning as it “integrates meaningful community service with instruction and reflection to enrich the learning experience, teach civic responsibility, and strengthen communities” (“Learn and Serve” 2011). The National Research Council “declares service learning [as] one of the most effective approaches for engaging students and boosting learning” (“Learn and Serve” 2011). Service learning allows students to engage in an initial act of service that can result in continued service and community outreach, leading to a positive change in the community and within one’s self. Because of the positive outcomes, more higher education institutions are creating a center or office of service-learning. Additionally, it is estimated that nearly 45,293 students are participating in service-learning projects on a nation wide level. The participation in service learning is a critical component of leadership. According to Northouse (2012), the key to ethical leadership is the fulfillment of the six pillars of character of a leader. It is important to note that three of the six pillars, including responsibility, caring and citizenship, are constructed through service-learning.

Background
Students who participate in service-learning activities are not only being engaged in and outside of the classroom but they are also increasing their knowledge about the responsibility of civil duty. It is estimated that 25% of elementary and secondary schools participate in service learning, with 70% of the
states adopting a service-learning policy ("Learn and Serve" 2011). As a form of experiential learning, service learning not only benefits the community but also benefits students by encouraging them to step out of their comfort zone (Lee, 2010). Moreover, Lee (2010) also found a correlation between service learning and the ability to perform more effectively.

Service learning provides a concrete means by which institutions of higher education can educate students to become more concerned and involved citizens (Vogelgesang & Astin, 2000). Not only are these students developing ethical leadership principles but “as students grow cognitively, emotionally and socially over their undergraduate years, their participation in community service and service-learning [activities] builds the foundation for them to enact a deeper understanding of themselves” (Colby, Bercaw, Clark & Galiardi, 2009).

Prentice and Robinson (2010) identified three primary benefits of service-learning: development of future and academic goals, ability of students to identify and replace previous biases with correct information, and the ability of the instructor to create an interesting classroom environment as well as create a better relationship between students and teachers. Moreover, students who participate in service-learning opportunities are more likely to continue participating in community service and pursue a career that is service oriented (Vogelgesang & Astin, 2000).

**Method**

The Leadership and Service course at [University] is based around the idea of service-learning. Therefore, a student’s grade is heavily weighted by their performance in a service-learning project. This project serves as a catalyst for positive change in the community and in the leadership ability of each student. For this project, students are asked to self-select teams of four or less members, identify an organization that would benefit from the strengths of each team member, and conduct a needs assessment and develop a list of possible solutions. Students must then select a solution to implement, determine service objectives and implement the solution by serving the organization for a minimum of 10 active hours.

Throughout the project, students are required to track the progress of their team and will be prepared to evaluate the leadership styles, observe how the team goes through the stages of team development, and assess how the skill sets and strengths of each team member work or detract from group cohesiveness. Periodically throughout the semester, students are provided with class time to work on their service-learning projects. Team work days are typically followed by class check points, which allows the instructors to monitor the progress of each team. Although there is a heavy emphasis on the team leadership aspect of this project, the primary goal is to make a lasting contribution to the organization, organizational members and the community as a whole.

**Results to Date**

Because this is emerging research, the results of this study are limited to observations from a half way checkpoint in the semester. At this point, students have been engaged and have reflected positive attitudes towards the service-learning project. Many students were elated to be able to self select their
service-learning group. By empowering students to choose their workmates, students are able to form groups with common interests and group members who work well together. Additionally, the freedom to self-select team members has created a positive and engaging learning environment within the classroom.

In discussions during the checkpoints students have expressed their excitement and willingness to work one on one with their chosen organization. It is interesting to note that many students selected organizations that tie into their major. Perhaps these students are using this as an opportunity to also gain knowledge about their future professions. For students whom this is their first experience serving the community its critical that it is a positive experience so that they are more likely to engage in an act of service again.

Finally, the students’ self-efficacy is on the rise. When the assignment was first introduced students were quick to underestimate their ability to perform well. However, throughout the semester the self-efficacy of the students has dramatically increased. The ambition that students have to heighten their performance, coupled with their growth in self-efficacy, is apparent through the strengthening of their ability to lead one another during the course of this project.

**Discussion**

The implementation of service-learning in an introductory leadership course has yielded positive results to date. In future semesters, the course instructors might think about increasing the amount of hours required with the student’s selected organization. Additionally, additional reflections besides the final portfolio should be added to capture student’s thought process and experiences throughout the project. Finally, the instructors should have a service-learning reception to invite organizational members into the classroom to witness students’ final presentations over their service-learning projects.

Additionally, more research should be conducted about service-learning in the context of this course. A qualitative study could be conducting by utilizing focus groups to record and analyze the thoughts and experiences of students to determine leadership traits and skills utilized during the service-learning project.
References


Spark Learning with Effective Leadership

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Background

According to the research of Waters, Marzano and McNulty (2004) effective school leadership can substantially boost student achievement (p. 48). Furthermore, McREL’s study, School leadership that Works stated exclusive evidence in the third series of meta-analytic studies of the classroom, school, and leadership practices connected to academic achievement (p. 48). The purpose of the planned discussion session will begin with thought provoking probing questions, which ignite conversations that create resiliency and lead leaders toward affecting positive change in their perspective roles. For years, principals requested they must be instructional leaders. However, this term has and continues today as a vague concept, supported only by anecdotal evidence. How can effective leadership be replicated when specific training call for principals to become more effective leaders. Some principals have experienced unsuccessful attempts to replicate others, attempting successful techniques. However, they failed and achieved minimal-or worse results negative consequences at best. Still the questions remain such as “What stimulates effective leadership?” “What factors create and build resiliency?” Which measureable goals can be set for leaders to begin the process of creating resiliency and affecting positive change?

Description of the Discussion

In my facilitated discussion with participants, probing questions according to recent literature by Waters, Marzano and McNulty (2004) such as “Does leadership make a difference in schools?” Is effective leadership that creates resiliency sustains student academic and affects positive social change an art or science?” This discussion build on substantive conversations addresses two important questions, furthering the McRel’s study of School Leadership That Works. Questions such as “do the focus, and quality of leadership has a significant relationship to student achievement? How can leadership responsibilities and practices have the greatest impact on student academics? How does the practices create and sustain resiliency, thus help leaders promote positive change and impact the school climate?

Foreseeable Implications

Foreseeable implications of how participants will benefit from this discussion by learning what is effective leadership, the characteristics interrelated, and 21 defined key areas concluded in McREL meta-analysis demonstrated relationship distinct responsibilities of leaders. The focus of change as stated by Havard scholar Richard Elmore noted, “knowing the right thing to do is the central problem of school improvement” (p. 2003, p. 9). Participants will learn the focus and order of change by recognizing the signs of how leaders act like effective leaders, but sometimes fail to guide their schools in making corrective positive changes. More importantly, the changes can diminish or have a negative impact on student achievement.
Recommended Next Steps

Once the session is complete, participants will have an opportunity to extend discussions at their prospective campuses by applying effective practices. In turn, this will accomplish a guaranteed and viable curriculum, challenge goals and incorporate valuable feedback, with education stakeholders such as parents, community business leaders and initiate community involvement, lending toward a safe and orderly environment, collegiality and professionalism relationships. Other applicable opportunities at the teacher level, entail incorporating effective instructional strategies, classroom management and enriched classroom curriculum design. At the student level, entail positive home environment, learned intelligence, background knowledge and building intrinsic motivation. A final note, which, furthers more investigative measure is if leaders fail to acknowledge the positive change needed to create resiliency within their organization, then they could struggle to acquire support needed from state and federal education officials for successful implementation of needed changes. As a result, failed acknowledgements and neglect initiatives may fail to improve student academic growth and achievement.

References:


Strengthening the connection between undergraduate leadership development programs and research using the Collegiate Leadership Development Model

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Abstract
Researchers have identified the disconnect between research and practice and suggested a comprehensive framework to implement leadership development programs and conduct leadership development research. However, a review of the literature revealed that a comprehensive model was missing from the literature. The primary purpose of this study was to synthesize the literature related to undergraduate leadership development. The study resulted in the development of a model that includes precollegiate experiences, collegiate experiences. The leadership development construct was conceptualized using the Social Change Model.

Introduction
Research has examined the need for leadership education (Astin & Astin, 2000; Boatman, 1999; Dugan & Komives, 2007) and the role of precollegiate (Dugan & Komives, 2007; Kimbrough, 1998; Phinney, 1990; Schumacher & Swan, 1993) and collegiate experiences (Birkenholtz & Schumacher, 1994; Cooper, Healy, & Simpson, 1994; Dugan & Komives, 2007; Layfield, Radhikrisha, & Andresen, 2000) in reaching leadership outcomes. However, a review of the literature revealed that a comprehensive model for program development and research related to collegiate leadership was missing. The primary purpose of this study was to analyze the collegiate leadership development literature and develop a comprehensive framework that could be used for program development and research.

Methods
A six-step integrative inquiry process identified by Roberts (1983) was used to synthesize and interpret the findings. First, the lack of a comprehensive framework was identified as the need for the study. Second, one hundred and seventeen books and scholarly articles from a variety of sources, including the Journal of Agricultural Education, Journal of Leadership Education, Journal of College Student Development, and NASPA Journal were retrieved. Third, studies were screened and organized. Fourth, an existing model (Terenzini and Reason, 2005) was modified to match the emerging themes. Fifth, the model was developed with supporting literature. And finally, the dissemination of the model is planned.

Results
The Collegiate leadership development model was adapted from Terenzini and Reason's (2005) Comprehensive model of influences on student learning and persistence model, which expanded the inputs (I), environment (E), and outcomes (O) concepts found in the College impact model (Astin & Astin, 2000), incorporated the organizational context (i.e., structure, policies and procedures and faculty culture) and has three components (Figure 1). The first two components are precollegiate (I) and college experiences (E), which previous literature suggested contribute to leadership development in undergraduate college students. The third component, leadership development, is the outcome of the model (O) and was conceptualized using the social change model (SCM; Higher Education Research Institute, 1996).

The pre-collegiate construct includes socio-demographics (Phinney, 1990; Kezar & Moriarty, 2000) and pre-collegiate experiences (Astin & Astin, 2000; 1977; Park & Dyer, 2005) that have been linked to leadership development. The college experiences construct includes classroom experiences, curricular experiences, and extracurricular experiences all of which contribute to leadership outcomes based on previous literature (Birkenholz & Schumacher, 1994; Ewing, Bruce, & Ricketts, 2009; Layfield, Radhakrishna, & Andresen, 2000; Dugan & Komives, 2007). Finally, leadership was used as the outcome construct of the model. While many different theoretical frameworks have been used to study leadership, the Social Change Model (SCM) (HERI, 1996) was chosen as the leadership outcome because it is a widely cited model of student leadership development in higher education (Haber & Komives, 2009) and has a reliable instrument (i.e., SRLS-R2) to measure the core values.
Conclusions/recommendations

The Collegiate Leadership Development Model that evolved from this study reflects the interrelationship between precollegiate characteristics and experiences and collegiate experiences, including classroom, out-of-classroom, and curricular experiences, and their influence on leadership development outcomes as measured by the Social Change Model. This model provides a conceptual framework for developing and assessing leadership outcomes across college campuses and serves as a model for conducting research related to collegiate leadership development.

The College Leadership Development Model addresses a significant gap that 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. This model may also serve as a framework for conducting research related to collegiate leadership development.

References


The Generational Leadership Model: Classifying and Demystifying the Leadership Differences in Generations

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Abstract
With the millennial generation’s coming of age, it is possible for up to four different generations to be present in the realm of academia. Faculty not only contend with generational diversity among their colleagues, but also among their students. That is why it is imperative for leadership educators have a conceptual model for generational differences in leadership. This poster provides this model as well as the conceptual framework, which was utilized in its creation.

Introduction
Within higher education, diversity continues to grow and drastically change the demographics, including ethnicity, religion, and age. With the millennial generation’s coming of age, it is possible for up to four different generations to be present in the realm of academia. Faculty not only contend with generational diversity among their colleagues, but also among their students. “The changing demographics of the U.S. population (and of other nations) has quietly but profoundly begun to pull higher education in different directions and to cause the introduction of new academic programs, practices, and personnel policies” (Keller, 2001, p. 234). With multiple generations present in higher education, multiple preferred leadership styles and leadership traits emerge. Current business trends suggest multigenerational leadership will increasingly become the norm, increasing the importance of understanding the differences in generations and leadership (Cufaude & Riemersma, 1999; Kakabadse & Kakabadse, 1999).

Background
Generation has been best defined as “a group of the same age in similar social location experience similar social events” (Mannheim, 1972). People of the same age group tend to experience similar social and historical processes, “predisposing them for a certain characteristic mode of thought and experience and a characteristic type of historically relevant action” (Sessa, Kabacoff, Deal & Brown, 2007, p. 49). These life experiences tend to distinguish one cohort from another, hence Generational Cohort Theory. The eldest generation still living is the Silent Generation born from 1922-1942, followed by the Baby Boomers born from 1944-1960, then Generation X born from 1961-1980, and then the Millennials born from 1981-2000 (Zemke, Raines, & Filipczak, 2000).
It comes as no surprise that different generations value different leadership characteristics. Sessa et al. (2007) found Millennials ranked “dedicated” as the most important attribute and “credible” as less important, which differed from all other generations. The study also found the attribute of “delegating” most clearly differentiated the Millennials from other cohorts, whereas Gen-Xers valued attributes that suggested an “optimistic leader” with experience. Xers also prefer flexibility, money and benefits, harmonious work environments, and fulfillment (Joyner, 2000).

Results
Leaders are expected to make each generation feel accepted in the workplace. This can be difficult with such varying preferred leadership styles. What if there was a leadership model that encompassed each generation’s strongest leadership characteristics?

The Generational Leadership Model (Figure 1) brings together the best traits from the Silent Generation, Baby Boomer, Gen X, and Millennial Generations. The model is based on seeking wisdom from seniority (Silent), becoming a team player (Baby Boomers), treating everyone with honesty (Gen Xers), and actively participating in the organization (Millenials). With the Generational Leadership Model, each generation’s leadership traits work together to make a model that includes everyone in the workplace. This model can be used in any multigenerational workplace.

Figure 1

The Generational Leadership Model is based on a number of leadership theories and concepts. The model takes parts of different theories and leadership concepts that reflect each generation and
brings them together into a cohesive model. The first segment of the model is based on the Traditionalists’ need for hierarchy. Traditionalists thrive in organizations that have a clear, well-defined hierarchy and highly respect authority (Zemke et al., 2000; Conger, 2001). However, the other generations present in the workplace do not respect authority as much as the Traditionalist. To find common ground, this leadership model requires adherents to seek wisdom from seniority. While this doesn’t require a strict hierarchy, it still gives the Traditionalists the respect that they believe and rightfully deserve.

The next component of the Generational Leadership Model is becoming a team player like the Baby Boomers. To achieve this, Blake and Mouton’s Managerial Grid “The Sound” can best be incorporated. At the 9,9 coordinates on the grid, the Sound style of leadership requires leaders to have a high concern for people and a high concern for production. Leaders encourage teamwork and commitment among employees (Blake & Mouton, 1985). Baby Boomers relate well to this leadership style because they are pro-teamwork and are committed to their jobs, often times working more than 40 hours a week. This commitment to teamwork and to their jobs is a strong trait that the Baby Boomers bring to this leadership model.

The third part of the Generational Leadership Model is treating each employee with honesty. The Gen Xers tend to be fair, competent, and straightforward (Zemke et al., 2000; Conger, 2001). The leadership theory that most accurately represents the Gen Xers is the authentic leadership theory. The Generational Leadership Model requires leaders to be honest and open with employees. Avolio, Luthans, and Walumbwa (2004, p. 4) define authentic leaders as “those who are deeply aware of how they think and behave and are perceived by others as being aware of their own and others’ values/moral perspectives, knowledge, and strengths; aware of the context in which they operate; and who are confident, hopeful, optimistic, resilient, and of high moral character” (as cited in Avolio & Gardner, 2005). Gen X’s honesty and authentic leadership work closely together.

The last segment of the Generational Leadership Model is becoming an active participant in the organization. Millennials are the newest member of the workforce and their leadership styles are still being determined. From the research that has been done, Millennials believe in collective action and a will to get things changed (Zemke et al., 2000; Conger, 2001). For this part of the model, Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) leadership theory best reflects the Millennials leadership styles. Millennials are more open to relationships with authority and want to be valued for their participation. “The primary variable (LMX) is defined by them as involving mutual respect, reciprocal trust, and mutual obligation, thereby making it a relational concept” (Dansereau, Yammarino, & Markham, 1995). By participating in the leadership process and fostering relationships with their superiors, Millennials also find a place in the Generational Leadership Model.

Discussion
Although studies show the usefulness in understanding and taking advantage of generational differences, there are many misconceptions about generations that keep leaders and even researchers from further exploring the differences in generations. The main misconception is the belief that “people
change their values, attitudes, and preferences as a function of age” (Arsenault, 2004, p. 125). Lack of empirical research that validates generational differences has led to misunderstandings and a lack of appreciation for these differences. By creating a model, which classifies and differentiates leadership types by generation, those focusing on researching generational leadership and its implications can have a common language. This model also serves as the basis for the researcher’s work in the impact of generational leadership differences in higher education.

References


The Influence of Extra-Curricular Activities on Undergraduate Students’ Communication Competencies

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Abstract
Because college is a time for professional and personal growth, undergraduates have a plethora of opportunities to hone their communication and leadership skills. For institutions of higher education to be effective in assisting students in honing their communication skills, the factors contributing to an undergraduate students’ communication skill development must be known. Communication competence in college-aged students is related to college success (Rubin, Graham, & Mignerey, 1990). The purpose of this descriptive study was to determine if extra-curricular activities that undergraduates participated in influenced their perceived communication and leadership confidence. Of the 122 respondents, 108 (88.5%) said they had been involved in extra-curricular activities in their undergraduate careers. Respondents who were involved in extra-curricular activities believed their involvement had a moderate to high impact on their communication skill improvement. Students who participated on Executive Boards and Committees also noted a high impact on their communication competencies.

Introduction
The time spent in college is an intellectual growing period for undergraduate students. Personal growth can eventually mean success for students in terms of job placement and the pursuit of advanced degrees. During a student’s tenure in college, they have a cadre of opportunities to polish their leadership skills (communication, critical thinking, problem solving, etc.) so as to be more competitive in the marketplace upon graduation. At perhaps all levels of education, strong leadership skills are often equated with the ability to engage in effective oral and written communication. To succeed as an effective leader, one must be able to effectively communicate with a diverse audience. Communication skills are closely tied to a leader’s ability to build an authentic relationship with followers and cultivate a vision for the group or organization (Gill, 2011). Because college is a time for professional and personal growth, undergraduates have a plethora of opportunities to hone their communication skills. For institutions of higher education to be effective in assisting students in honing their communication skills, the factors contributing to an undergraduate students’ communication skill development must be known. Additionally, institutions of higher education have a responsibility to provide undergraduate
students with knowledge and exposure to experiences necessary for success in America’s society (Coers, Williams, & Duncan, 2010) and the ever evolving workplace (Cassidy, 2006).

Extra-curricular activities are one of the many opportunities college students have to hone and polish their leadership skills, and more specifically their communication skills. College student organizations (extra-curricular opportunities) generally fall under the following categories: governing bodies, Greek letter social organizations, student government groups, academic clubs and professional honor societies, publication and media groups, service groups, intramural sports clubs, religious organizations, and special interest/cultural groups (Astin, 1993; Montelongo, 2002).

Extra-curricular activities add different dimensions to a students’ college experience and can reinforce the goals of higher education (Tchibozo & Pasteur, 2007). Additionally, extra-curricular activities can help undergraduate students with the transition from college to the workplace. Students who are un-involved with extra-curricular activities have been found to have a lower occupational status than those students who were involved with out of class activities (Tchibozo & Pasteur, 2007). Additionally, participation in extra-curricular activities has also been shown to be a strong predictor of work-place competence—even stronger than grades (Kuh, 1995).

Extra-curricular activities have been positively associated with student persistence and educational attainment (Ullah & Wilson, 2007). Undergraduates’ involvement in student organizations enhances intellectual development, increases college experience satisfaction, and increases campus and community involvement (Montelongo, 2002). Participation in extra-curricular activities gives students the opportunity to apply classroom knowledge to “real-world” situations that will in turn help them succeed in life after graduation (Astin, 1993).

New industry hires are expected to have polished communication skills, as well as leadership and teamwork skills, initiative, interpersonal and social networking skills, and problem solving skills (Employers, 2010). These skills are often referred to in the literature as “soft skills”. “Employers, colleges and universities have become more cognizant of the role that such so-called “soft” or non-cognitive skills play in successful performance in both academic and nonacademic arenas” (Dwyer, Millett & Payne, 2006, p. 18). According to Brungardt (2011), numerous studies between 1986 and 2006 provided evidence that soft skills would be critical to future workplace effectiveness.

A study completed in 2008 by the Center for Agribusiness and Economic Development at the University of Georgia showed that job candidates (undergraduates seeking positions) were overly focused on technical skills and not soft skills such as communication and leadership. They found that job candidates had poor communication skills, needed more emphasis on leadership skills, critical thinking, problem solving, and analytical skills. Similar results were found in a study conducted by Crawford, Lang, Fink, Dalton, and Fielitz (2011) for the Association of Public and Land Grant Universities (APLU). The APLU study concluded that universities are providing the necessary technical skills for students to succeed in industry, but are deficient in providing ample opportunities for students to gain the soft skills necessary to be successful in the 21st century work environment. Of a series of seven soft skill clusters ranging from communication, teamwork, leadership, decision making/problem solving to self-management skills, over 50% of 282 employers surveyed from across the U.S. ranked communication as the most important soft skill. Within the communication cluster, employers ranked listening, communicating accurately, and effective oral communication as the top three characteristics (Crawford, et al., 2011).
Theoretical Framework

For the purpose of this study, student involvement is defined by Astin’s Theory of Involvement (1999) as the amount of physical and psychological energy the student devotes to the academic experience including extra-curricular activities. Astin suggested that involvement is “not so much what the individual thinks or feels, but what the individual does, how he or she behaves, that defines and identifies involvement” (Astin, 1999, p. 519). Astin’s Theory of Student Involvement has been noted to have similarities to the Freudian concept of *cathexis*. Freud believed that people place physiological energy in objects and other people, which relates directly to being involved with something or someone (Astin, 1999). Astin also suggests that involvement relates to effort, vigilance, and time-on-task.

Astin’s Theory of Involvement comes from his research in student persistence. The findings of Astin’s longitudinal study of undergraduate student persistence suggested that uninvolved students were more likely to drop out than those highly involved (Astin, 1975). Any positive factor contributing to a students’ college life contributed to retention. Positive factors included place of residence, extra-curricular activities, and holding a part-time job on campus (Astin, 1999). The Student Involvement Theory suggests that higher education influences students beyond the classroom. Faculty and administrators should focus on the more passive, uninvolved students to help them find their place in the university. This theory also advises universities to remember the students and not only the research and other obligations to the faculty (Astin, 1977). While the benefits of participation in extra-curricular activities to student retention are known, how does such participation influence communication competencies desired by employers?

Communication competence is broadly defined as the degree to which a communicator’s goals are achieved through effective and appropriate interaction (McCroskey, Booth-Butterfield, & Payne, 1989). Communication competence in college-aged students is related to college success (Rubin, Graham, & Mignerey, 1990). Rubin, Rubin and Jordan (1997) found that students in basic skills communication classes with low competence and high apprehension achieved large positive gains in communication competence. Communication competence has been linked to higher self-esteem in some groups. People with higher communication competence have also been noted to be more positive than others (McCroskey, Richmond, Daly, & Falcione, 1977). From the aforementioned research, does a college student’s involvement in extracurricular activities have a positive impact on their perceived competence in communicating effectively?

Purpose and Objectives

The purpose of this descriptive study was to determine if extra-curricular activities that undergraduates participated in influenced their perceived communication confidence. To accomplish this, the following objectives guided this research; 1) Determine the relationship between students’ involvement in extra-curricular activities and their perceived communication confidence; and 2) Determine if students’ demographic characteristics influence their involvement rates in certain extra-curricular activities.

This research project included a convenience sample of 122 undergraduate students at the University of [State] who were enrolled in selected leadership and communication courses. These courses were chosen because they attract students from a wide variety of majors and allowed the researchers to examine the potential influence of student demographics (home college, major, and year in school) on extra-curricular involvement. Additionally, this convenience sample represents a large percentage of upper classman who may have had an opportunity to be engaged in a cadre of extra-curricular activities during their tenure at the university. The participants were given an instrument developed by the researcher containing multiple constructs related to communication competencies. For the purposes of
this manuscript, only the communication competencies and extra-curricular activity constructs are reported.

The extra-curricular activity construct included yes/no, open-ended, and Likert type scale questions. Respondents were asked to rank their perceived improvement on their communication skill confidence using a ten point Likert type scale ranging from (1) no/low impact on improvement to (10) high impact on improvement. Respondents were asked a series of questions about their involvement in extra-curricular activities, executive boards, committees and their overall perceived communication confidence gained from extra-curricular activities. Results of the open-ended questions are not reported in this manuscript.

The researcher-developed instrument was reviewed by a panel of university faculty with expertise in leadership, communication, survey design, and evaluation to ensure face validity, content validity, and reduce the potential for measurement error on the instrument. Descriptive statistics, including frequencies, percentages, means, and standard deviations were calculated using SPSS Version 19.

Results
Of the 122 respondents, 55 (45%) were male and 67 (55%) were female. Eighty-seven percent were Caucasian, 5% were Black/African American, and 3% were Hispanic. Forty-one (34%) respondents reported being seniors, 30 (24%) were freshmen, 23 (19%) indicated being juniors, 16 (13%) were fifth-year seniors, and 11 (9%) were sophomores.

Of the total population, 108 (88.5%) had been involved in extra-curricular activities during college, 45 (36.8%) served on an executive board of one/more of the activities they were involved in, and 53 (43%) were involved in at least one committee (Table 1).

Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Extra-Curricular Activity Involvement</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>88.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>11.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Executive Board</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>36.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>63.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>President</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>10.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vice President</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>7.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Treasurer</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>5.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secretary</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other Exec. Position</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>26.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Committees</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>43.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>56.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Research objective one was conducted to determine the relationship between students’ involvement in extra-curricular activities and their perceived confidence in communication skills. Respondents were asked to rank their perceived improvement on their communication skill confidence using a ten point Likert type scale ranging from (1) no/low impact on improvement to (10) high impact on improvement.
Respondents were asked a series of questions about their involvement in extra-curricular activities, executive boards, committees and their overall perceived communication confidence gain from extra-curricular activities. Of the 108 respondents that indicated they were involved in extra-curricular activities, extra-curricular activity involvement had a significant impact on their communication skills confidence level (Table 2).

Table 2
Extra-Curricular Activities Effect on Communication Competence Improvement

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Question - How much has being involved improved your confidence in your communication skills?</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Extra-Curricular Activities (overall)</td>
<td></td>
<td>8.03</td>
<td>1.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Executive Boards</td>
<td></td>
<td>7.17</td>
<td>2.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Committees</td>
<td></td>
<td>7.52</td>
<td>2.04</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note: 1 = no/low impact on improvement; 10 = high impact on improvement.*

The respondents who held the office of President had the highest perceived improvement on communication skills ($M = 8.46; SD = 2.66$), followed by Treasurer ($M = 8.14; SD = 1.57$), and Other Executive Positions ($M = 8.00; SD = 3.00$) (Table 3).

Table 3
Executive Board Effect on Communication Competence Improvement

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Question - How much has being involved improved your confidence in your communication skills?</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Executive Boards</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall</td>
<td></td>
<td>7.17</td>
<td>2.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>President</td>
<td></td>
<td>8.46</td>
<td>2.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vice President</td>
<td></td>
<td>7.66</td>
<td>3.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Treasurer</td>
<td></td>
<td>8.14</td>
<td>1.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secretary</td>
<td></td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other Exec Positions</td>
<td></td>
<td>8.00</td>
<td>3.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note: (1) no/low impact on improvement to (10) high impact on improvement.*

The following is a sample of extra-curricular activities the respondents had participated in: Greek Life, Student Government Association, Relay for Life, Collegiate FFA, Wesley Foundation, Mentoring, Intramural Sports, Club Sports, Habitat for Humanity, Professional Societies, Orientation Team, Campus Tour Team, Honors Societies, College Ambassadors, and Collegiate 4-H

Research objective 2 was conducted to determine if student demographic characteristics influence student involvement rates for specific extra-curricular activities. As indicated in Table 4, females were more inclined to serve on Executive Boards (43%) compared to their male counterparts (29%). Additionally, more females reported serving on Committees (48%) than male students (38%).

Table 4
Gender and Involvement in Extra-Curricular Activities
No significant differences were found among student athletes, transfer students, students on scholarship, and honors students and their involvement in extra-curricular activities. Over 90% of the students in each classification reported being involved in extra-curricular activities.

Both female and male participants indicated that being involved in extra-curricular activities had a positive impact on their perceived communication competencies (Table 5). Females felt that being involved in Executive Boards and Committees had a greater impact on their communication competencies when compared to male students.

Table 5
Extra-Curricular Activities Communication Competence Gains and Gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Male SD</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Female SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Extra-Curricular Activities</td>
<td>How much has being involved in ECA’s helped your communication skills?</td>
<td>7.35</td>
<td>2.40</td>
<td>7.76</td>
<td>2.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>How much has being involved in Executive Boards improved your communication skills?</td>
<td>6.06</td>
<td>3.49</td>
<td>7.79</td>
<td>2.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>How much has being in committees improved your communication skills?</td>
<td>6.52</td>
<td>2.01</td>
<td>8.18</td>
<td>1.80</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: (1) no/low impact on improvement to (10) high impact on improvement.

Honors students ($M = 7.88; SD = 3.21$), scholarship students ($M = 7.47; SD = 2.92$), and student athletes ($M = 8.12; SD = 1.45$) felt that serving on Executive Boards and Committees had a positive impact on their communication skill competencies. When comparing transfer students to the other student groups, they were less inclined to agree that being involved in Executive Boards ($M = 6.11; SD = 3.10$) and Committees ($M = 6.87; SD = 2.64$) had a moderate to high impact on their communication competencies.
Conclusions/Recommendations

Of the 122 respondents, 108 (88.5%) said they had been involved in extra-curricular activities in their undergraduate careers. Respondents who were involved in extra-curricular activities believed their involvement had a moderate to high impact on their communication skill improvement ($M = 8.03; SD = 1.81$). Executive Board ($M = 7.17; SD = 2.90$) and committee members ($M = 7.52; SD = 2.04$) also noted a high impact on communication skills from being involved with extra-curricular activities. Students who responded they held an Executive Board position also showed high impacts on communication skills. The presidential position held the highest impact ($M = 8.46; SD = 2.66$) followed by treasurer ($M = 8.14; SD = 1.57$), other executive positions ($M = 8.00; SD = 3.00$), and vice president ($M = 7.66, SD = 3.20$).

Students in this study reported being involved in extra-curricular activities improves their perceived communication competence. Communication skill competence can also be improved by participating in select Executive Board positions, especially that of President. Being involved in extra-curricular activities not only can be a strong predictor of work-place competence (Kuh, 1995), but can also help improve their perceived communication skill competence. As reported in previous studies, undergraduates’ involvement in student organizations enhances intellectual development, increases college experience satisfaction, and increases campus and community involvement (Montelongo, 2002). This study found such involvement also impacts student communication competence.

Participation in extra-curricular activities gives students the opportunity to apply classroom knowledge to “real-world” situations will in turn help them succeed in life after graduation (Astin, 1993). Moreover, research showed leadership responsibilities came second only to peer interaction in positive changes in an undergraduate students personal development with academics, institutional ethos, faculty-contact, and work (Kuh, 1995). Students noted leadership positions gave them the opportunity to learn in the “real-world” classroom (Haber, 2006).

In terms of communication competence gain from involvement in extra-curricular activities, gender did not play a role. Both males and females showed a moderately high impact on communication competence from involvement in extra-curricular activities. On the other hand, females ($M = 7.79; SD = 8.18$) showed a higher gain in communication skill competence from being involved in Executive Boards and Committees than their male counterparts ($M = 6.06; SD = 6.52$). This higher mean of communication skill competence improvement in females may be attributed to the fact they are more involved in Executive Board positions then males.

For each of the specific student classifications, all categories showed a high gain in perceived communication skill competence from being involved in extra-curricular activities. Student athletes had the highest perceived communication competence gain ($M = 8.12; SD = 1.45$) followed by transfer students ($M = 7.95; SD = 2.47$), honors students ($M = 7.88; SD = 3.21$), and scholarship students ($M = 7.47; SD = 2.92$). Honors students found participation in committees was very important in their communication skill improvement ($M=8.83, SD=1.60$), while student athletes believed involvement in Executive Boards contributed substantially to their communication skill improvement ($M=8.80, SD=1.64$). Although honors students and student athletes benefitted the most from extra-curricular involvement, what about their involvement was so influential toward improving their perceived communication abilities? Additional research is needed to better understand the characteristics of extra-curricular activities that are most influential at improving student communication skills.

Student athletes may have reported a higher impact of extra-curricular involvement on communication skill competency because they are held to a high standard of academic and athletic excellence. Student
athletes spend required time on team activities, study hall, and practice other undergraduates are not subject to. This could promote a change in perceived communication competence because they are “forced” to participate in extra-curricular activities weekly. Some of those activities include service related projects that take them out into the community to work with non-profit organizations and local government leaders.

This study suggests regardless of the demographic make-up of the student, involvement in extra-curricular activities positively influences communication skill competence. Just as Astin’s Theory of Involvement suggests, participation in extra-curricular activities gives students the opportunity to apply classroom knowledge to “real-world” situations that will help them succeed in life after graduation (Astin, 1993). Involvement in extra-curricular activities at the University of [State] is helping to positively impact student communication skills. Specifically, the higher the office/position held by the student participating in the extra-curricular activity, the greater the perceived improvement in communication skills. This study suggests undergraduate students should participate in extra-curricular activities and volunteer to serve on executive committees because of the increased benefit of serving in a leadership role on communication competence. As countless other studies have reported, leadership growth and communication growth go hand-in-hand.

References
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The Role of Leadership Efficacy in Agricultural Education

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Jonathan J. Velez
Oregon State University

Abstract
Research into the leadership requirements of teachers, especially school-based teachers of agriculture, has identified a missing area of research, leadership efficacy. The current study seeks to identify the leadership efficacy of agriculture teachers in their first five years of teaching in five western states, as well as examine the relationship of leadership efficacy and years of teaching experience for these early-career teachers. A significant positive correlation was found between teachers’ years of experience and their leadership efficacy. The first year of teaching agriculture was found to be the lowest point for leadership efficacy. Recommendations are made for future research into the development of leadership efficacy in teachers as well as recommendations for efficacy-building workshops focused on improving the leadership efficacy of first-year agriculture teachers.

Introduction
Leadership efficacy refers to the “…knowledge, skills, and abilities associated with leading others” (Hannah, Avolio, Luthans & Harms, 2008, p. 669). When a teacher steps into a classroom they are stepping into a leadership role (Lieberman & Miller, 2005). In Agricultural Education teachers are expected to teach, model, and practice leadership skills in a variety of contexts. The objectives of this study were to investigate the leadership efficacy of early-career agriculture teachers as well as explain the relationship between years of teaching experience and leadership efficacy for teachers in their first five years of teaching agriculture in five western states.

Background
The theoretical framework of this study is the theory of self-efficacy (Bandura, 1986; 1997) which postulates that an individual’s belief in their abilities to successfully accomplish a given task is directly related to their success in that task. The theory of self-efficacy identifies four experiences which develop an individual’s self-efficacy: mastery experiences (successfully completing a task), vicarious experiences (observing someone else complete a task), social persuasion (external encouragement that you can successfully complete a task) and physiological and emotional states (the state you are in when preparing to complete a task).

Although Agricultural Education prides itself on including a leadership development component, this is the first known research to specifically investigate the leadership efficacy of agriculture teachers.
Method

Data were collected from 154 agriculture teachers in their first five years of teaching during the 2012-2013 school year in five western states: California, Idaho, Oregon, Utah and Washington. The respondents included 41 first year teachers, 33 second year teachers, 36 third year teachers, 25 fourth year teachers and 19 fifth year teachers. Data were collected using the Individual Leadership Factors Inventory Scale for Leadership Efficacy (Velez, et al, 2012). A six point Likert scale was used ranging from 1 = Strongly Disagree to 6 = Strongly Agree. The instrument was pilot tested with a group of early career agriculture teachers in a Midwestern state and was found to be reliable (Cronbach’s alpha = 0.95). The data were collected using the secure internet survey provider Qualtrics and analyzed using SPSS v.20 software. Data were first checked for normality using a Kolmogorov-Smirnov test which rejected the null hypothesis (p value = < .05) that the data were normally distributed; therefore a nonparametric Spearman’s Correlation was used to examine the correlation between years of teaching experience and leadership efficacy.

Results to Date

Table 1
Correlation of Years of Teaching Experience and Leadership Efficacy

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years of Experience</th>
<th>Leadership Efficacy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.208</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n=154</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2
Leadership Efficacy by Years of Experience

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teaching Experience</th>
<th>Leadership Efficacy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>First Year</td>
<td>4.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second Year</td>
<td>4.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third Year</td>
<td>4.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fourth Year</td>
<td>4.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fifth Year</td>
<td>4.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>4.79</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Note. Scores represent mean scores from six point scale; 1 “Strongly Disagree” to 6 “Strongly Agree”

\[ n = 41 (\text{first year}), 33 (\text{second year}), 36 (\text{third year}), 25 (\text{fourth year}) \text{ and } 19 (\text{fifth year}) \]

Discussion
A significant correlation, shown in Table 1, between leadership efficacy and years of teaching experience strengthens the argument that leadership focused efficacy building experiences occur during teaching agriculture. Due to the emphasis of leadership in agricultural education, and the role of teachers as leaders, it is presumed that mastery experiences dominate the efficacy development of early career agriculture teachers.

Table 2 identifies that first year agriculture teachers are least efficacious towards their leadership abilities. The novelty of leading students paired with a lack of mastery experiences in leading students may explain this lowered efficacy score.

Additional research is recommended to examine the development of agriculture teachers’ leadership efficacy throughout the teacher development process. Efficacy building workshops, which focus on the development of leadership efficacy through positive mastery and vicarious experiences, social persuasion and physiological and emotional states are recommended for first year agriculture teachers.

References


Exploring the mentoring relationship between academic advisors and distance-based graduate students

Felix Arnold

Abstract
Many universities are now turning to professional staff advisors to help advise distance students on academic issues and serve as mentors by providing a new perspective on mentoring as it relates to distance-based graduate students. This paper focuses on this relationship through a literature review with anecdotes from a qualitative study.

Introduction
The graduate student mentoring relationship is primarily thought of being between a faculty member and graduate students, but with the increased demand for advising coupled with the advent of DE this advising can also come from academic advisors. Today academic advisors are primarily professional staff members, who serve an administrative function compared to that of faculty advisors. Academic advising includes components of both mentoring and coaching (National Association of Academic Advising, 2006). This function carries over to the same mentoring aspect of faculty advisors, as both serve as liaisons for the student with their development and educational interests at heart (Stein & Glazer, 2003).

As the literature reveals there is an obvious gap in research related to the academic advising of distance-based students, especially by a staff advisor. This is also true for literature relating to the mentoring of graduate students, let alone distance-based students, by staff advisors. This paper will show that academic advisors, who are primarily staff members, both advise distance-based students and serve as mentors. The mentoring of distance-based graduate students is centered on the concept of formal mentoring and the theory of a community of inquiry (Stein & Glazer, 2003; Garrison, 2007). Academic advisors fill the mentoring gap often left by faculty members who have other responsibilities such as teaching, research and the demand of traditional on campus students. This leaves the distance-based student at a disadvantage and by filling the gap, the academic advisor helps connect them to the university and helps them to feel included in the community (Garrison & Cleveland-Innes, 2007, Garrison, 2009; & Zachary, 2002).
Literature Review

As distance education grows in popularity increased attention is being paid to the “community” that is often associated with higher education (Garrison, 2007). There is an increased need for distance education students to feel connected to their learning environment and experiences. This notion is based on the life work of John Dewey (1933) and his view on the learning process in higher education and Henri (1992)’s work on the social and cognitive dimensions of online learning. Combining these ideas, Garrison, Anderson, and Archer (2000) formulated a framework for the community of inquiry model. Using their framework as a basis for this study, a community of inquiry can be seen as combining the three dimensions (social, cognitive, and teaching) of traditional college experience for online learners.

In this framework, Garrison et al. (2000) combined three dimensions of learning: social presence, cognitive presence, and teaching presence. Social presence, as defined by Garrison et al. (2000) relates to establishing personal and purposeful relationships. These relationships include effective communication skills, open communication, and group cohesion. Cognitive presence incorporates the notion of reflection advocated by Dewey (1933). It is defined as “the exploration, construction, resolution and confirmation of understanding through collaboration and reflection” (Garrison, 2007). The final component in the framework is teacher presence. It contains the three components of design, facilitation, and instruction. Teacher presence is the most important component of the framework as it relates to online learning (Garrison, 2007; Swan & Shih, 2005; Swan, 2003). To confirm the structure of this framework Garrison, Cleveland-Innes, & Fung (2004) along with Arbaugh & Hwang (2006) used factor analysis.

Mentoring

The notion of mentoring has been around for a long time, first appearing in Homer’s the Odyssey. Mentor, in the context of the story, refers to a man who is asked to raise the son of Odysseus, a king and the lead character of the epic poem. Odysseus asks Mentor to raise his son, Telemachus, by serving as a role-model/advisor while he leaves to fight in the Trojan War. Unbeknownst to everyone, Mentor is actually Athena, the Greek goddess of wisdom, in disguise and imparts her wisdom on Telemachus. “By acting as a guide and counselor to Odysseus’ son Telemachus, Mentor became a model for centuries to come.

Mentoring in the post-industrial era started in corporations and governmental entities during the 1970s (Gibson, Tesone, & Buchalski, 2000; Healy & Welchert, 1990). From there, it moved in to the educational arena. In reference to higher education, administrators, to enhance the quality of faculty (Healy & Welchert, 1990), first used mentoring. Then in the 1990s, mentoring filtered down to the student level with both faculty and staff members providing the wisdom and guidance to students (Gibson et al., 2000). McLean (2004) suggests those students who receive mentoring are more likely to want to learn. Wanting to learn is not the only benefit received from mentoring, but it also contributes to personal and professional development (Kram, 1985).
Jekielek, Moore, and Hair (2002) suggest that mentoring is a relationship, cultivated over time, between people of different experiences, with the more experienced person providing support, guidance, and assistance which develops voluntarily (Allen, Eby, and Lentz, 2006). The relationship is founded on common interests, identification, trust, and understanding (Kram, 1985; Ragins & Cotton, 1999). Through their research, Jekielek et al. (2002) found mentoring is concerned with a caring relationship and if it is provided to a younger person, they are more likely to become a successful adult. This mentoring relationship is developmental and occurs between a more advanced or experienced individual (mentor) who advises and offers support to another individual (protégé) (Kram, 1985; Lyons Scroggins, and Rule, 1990).

According to Rosser and Egan (2003), many successful individuals point to mentoring as a critical component of their success. This is true, not only, in the business world, but also in graduate school, it is essential to success and is central to the graduate experience (Lyons et al., 1990). In these relationships, the individuals suggested the mentors provided them with support, guidance, and counseling at both the personal and professional level (Rosser & Egan, 2003). Kram (1985) concluded mentoring is an intense relationship and Scandura (1998) added there can be negative effects. It is interesting to note little research has focused on the negative aspects of mentoring (Eby, McManus, Simon, & Russell, 2000). These negative experiences commonly occur in healthy relationships, ranging from the benign to the severe (Duck, 1994; Marshall, 1994). Scandura (1998) and Duck (1994) point out mentoring should not be thought of as ‘positive’ and ‘negative’ because even good relationships have rough patches.

Other researchers, such as Higgins and Kram (2001) have shown there are many positive effects of mentoring on both the mentor and the protégé. These positive effects include increased performance, higher satisfaction rates, lower turnover, and increased advancement (Chao, 1997; Fagenson, 1989; Scandura, 1992). Research also has shown that mentoring can help increase attendance rates, improve individuals’ attitudes towards school, reduce negative barriers associated with school, and help build relationships (Jekielek at al., 2002; Mavrinac, 2005; Angelique, Kyle, and Taylor, 2002). Angelique et al. (2002) went on to conclude successful mentoring programs vary greatly in higher education, becoming more prevalent in recent years. According to Mavrinac (2005), mentoring continues to be a popular learning process that has endured over the years and has helped with both the recruitment and retention of students.

Mentoring is an important part of the graduate experience (Paglis, Green, and Bauer, 2006). This mentoring relationship adds value by encouraging, motivating, cultivating, and providing a sense of belonging to graduate students (Stein and Glazer, 2003; Paglis, et. al, 2006; and Buchanan, Myers, and Harding, 2005). These benefits are especially useful for distance education students who are often juggling other full-time commitments, in addition to going to school. Academic advisors provide one-on-one support for the learning needs of graduate students and provide encouragement and praise (Lyons et al., 1990). This is one of the primary functions of academic advisors. To accomplish this task, they help to create a bond between themselves and their school, peers, and instructors (Buchanan, et. al, 2005). This sense of belonging, coupled with the interaction between students, faculty, and staff help to create a community of inquiry for these distance students (Stein and Glazer, 2003).
These different interactions add to educational experience for students allowing them to receive advice and guidance from multiple people. Kram (1985) suggested individuals should receive mentoring from multiple people. The relationships created by an organization, such as the one at a college or in an academic unit, are influenced by the organizational culture (Aryee, Wyatt, & Stone, 1996). Higgins & Kram (2001) concluded from an extensive literature review on mentoring that the idea of traditional mentoring has just focused on one mentoring relationship, when actually the benefits of mentoring actually come from multiple relationships. An interesting phenomenon of mentoring research is the research primarily focuses on the perspective of the mentor and not on the protégée (Higgins & Kram, 2001).

The perspective of mentoring has changed over the years on exactly what a mentor does and who a mentor is (Mullen, 1998). New research suggests mentoring can come in many shapes and forms; being helpful for individuals to adapt to an organization, like higher education (Eby, 1997; Kram & Hall, 1996). Mentoring is now seen as a developmental process benefiting not just the mentor and the protégé, but the organization (Russell, 2004). This research, focusing on individuals naming their mentors, does not distinguish between formal and informal mentoring relationships (Ragins & McFarlin, 1990). Not being able to distinguish between the types of mentoring relationships has led some, such as Higgins & Kram (2001), to suggest mentoring occurs from multiple relationships. These relationships can be both formal and informal, with each offering different structures (Hansford, Ehrich, and Tennet, 2004). The idea of formal mentoring is new and offers structure to the mentoring relationship.

Formal mentoring.

Formal mentoring refers to established relationships created for a specific purpose. These relationships are usually structured and offer similar benefits to traditional mentoring relationships (Hansford et al., 2004). Unlike traditional mentoring relationships, which occur spontaneously, these relationships are structured and do not occur spontaneously (Ragins & Cotton, 1999). The relationship between an academic advisor and a student can be seen as a formal relationship, because it is established and serves as an intended response (Allen et al., 2006; Ragins and Cotton, 1999). This formal relationship allows the academic advisor to help develop the academic identity and competence of students at the same time giving the advisor a sense of purpose (Kram, 1985; Erickson, 1963).

To overcome compatibility issues that would be addressed with the spontaneity of the informal mentoring process, formal mentoring needs to allow both parties to make decisions on the process and have a voice (Burke & McKeen, 1990). The rationale behind this is to allow both individuals to feel as though the relationship was not forced and thus be less motivated to participate (Eby & McManus, 2004; Kram & Hall, 1996). When the formal mentoring process is set to mirror informal mentoring there is greater perceived satisfaction from both parties (Viator, 1999). To help increase satisfaction, their needs to be physical proximity between both the mentor and the protégé, which helps develop stronger psychosocial ties (Festinger, Schachter, & Back, 1950). However, a successful mentoring relationship can still occur between geographically separated individuals (Eby & Lockwood, 2005) by increasing the frequency of interaction (Garrison & Cleveland-Innes, 2005) creating a collaborative experience (Zachary, 2002). This frequent interaction requires a time commitment on both individuals’
Academic advising is closely related to mentoring and academic coaching. Trained professionals drawing on theories in the social sciences, humanities, and educational fields carry out these functions (National Association of Academic Advising, 2006). Either staff or faculty advisors, depending on the structure of the college or university, can carry out advising.

Academic advising is defined as an “intentional” process of educating someone requiring added by having a concern for fundamental goals (NACADA, 2004). Traditionally, a faculty member advises a graduate student, but a staff member can also serve in this role. Academic advising is a systematic, developmental process focused on the educational and career plans of a student through a close student-advisor relationship (Crockett, 1987; Winston, Enders, and Miller, 1982). It is a decision-making process facilitated by an academic advisor through communication, which coordinates the learning experiences of students through course and career planning (Crockett, 1987). Crookston (1972) expands on this by saying it also facilitates the student’s rational processes, interactions, behaviors, and problem-solving, decision-making, and evaluation skills.

Academic advisors for distance-based students need to have a slightly different skill set, as there is a difference between advising a distance-based student and a traditional on-campus (Finley & Chapman, 2011; Steele, 2005). According to a study by the Sloan Consortium (2004), the number of distance students will continue to grow, with no end in sight, and so far their experiences in higher education have been positive. Steele (2005) defines distance advising as using technology to help distance learners maximize their educational potential enabling them to reach their goals. Academic advisors for online students need to be able to respond to their unique needs and not try to make them fit in with traditional advising practices (NACADA, 2010). One of the most important factors for distance learners is having access to resources and help when they need it, which might be outside of normal hours (Finley & Chapman, 2011).
By using a full range of resources and collaborating with students in a developmental relationship, advisors facilitate online student’s goals (Winston et al., 1982). Properly utilizing these resources needs to be accomplished quickly as by 2018, distance education will surpass traditional education (Nagel, 2011). This population of students no longer fits the traditional 18 to 22 year old demographic who lives on-campus, as over 50 percent of students entering college today are nontraditional (Stokes, 2006; Siegel, 2011). As this demographic is changing, adult learning styles need to be incorporated with academic advising to better serve this new student population and help to reduce attrition rates (Starks, 2011). There are differences between non-traditional and traditional students. Non-traditional students are more focused on their learning and want to be there; while their family and work obligations can be a burden (Kantrowitz, 2011). Varney (2009) points out that attrition rates for distance learners tends to be higher, so it is up to the academic advisor to not only understand these students, but also help them succeed (Steele, 2005).

One way they can help students succeed is through developing microskills (Barnett, Roach, & Smith, 2006). “Microskills are the specific behaviors that constitute active listening (e.g. attending behaviors, open-ended questions, paraphrases, summaries); they are observed and can be learned in a relatively short amount of time” (Starks, 2011). Reynolds (2011) noted microskills as being one of the most important skills for student affairs professionals. These skills are especially helpful for mentors when it focuses on improving communication. Mentoring is an essential function of academic advising and incorporates the concept of academic coaching (NACADA, 2006; Jarvis, Lane, and Fillery-Travis, 2006).

The concept of academic coaching refers to a partnership between two individuals where there are mutually understood goals and objectives (International Coach Federation, 2008). This relationship according to Tee, Jowett, and Bechelet-Carter (2009) focuses on the development of a student, which is determined by their motivation through a mutual understanding of the objectives and goals. Research by the Nursing and Midwifery Council (2006) in the United Kingdom found the coaching relationship between the student and the university (i.e. academic advisor) contributed to supporting the students’ learning. This relationship allows the coach to facilitate the learning of the student by transferring their discussions into practice (Makenzie, 2007) and influence their development (Tee et al., 2006). Coaching allows the student to be placed in the middle of their learning by focusing on their specific needs and skills and encouraging them to take responsibility for their education (Jarvis et al., 2006).

By focusing on the student, coaching allows the individuals’ goals to align with those of the institution through a supportive relationship (Jarvis et al., 2006; Tee et al., 2006). This relationship allows students to assist in the learning process by developing skills necessary to succeed and then practice those skills in a supportive environment (Tee et al., 2006). Students have indicated that coaching allows the ‘experts’ to share their experience and knowledge (Claridge & Lewis, 2005; Mulec & Roth, 2005). To effectively utilize a coaching relationship, an academic advisor needs to be properly trained (Jarvis et al., 2006). This aligns with what Kram (1985) said about mentors needing training, so they know how to effectively empower their protégé and what their role is in the relationship.
Distance Education

According to the United States Distance Learning Association (USDLA), distance learning (i.e. Distance Education, DE, E-Learning, Remote Learning, and Distance Learning) is defined as acquiring new skills and knowledge by the use of all technology to deliver information and instruction at a distance. Distance education (DE) is becoming more prevalent in higher education (Starks, 2011). The United States Department of Education, The Condition of Education 2001, reports 9 percent of graduate students complete their degrees online and this number will continue to grow.

With the advent of new technologies, the experience of those participating in DE programs has increased the need for higher-level interaction (Garrison & Cleveland-Innes, 2005). These higher-level interactions can be both synchronous and asynchronous, but the communication needs to be both reciprocal and collaborative (Zachary, 2002). Each student varies on the level of interaction individually required, but the more interaction the students have with the university the more connected they feel. To better accommodate the increased interactions, academic advisors need to improve their communication skills (Nutt, 2000).

The community of inquiry created by these interactions closely resembles a traditional graduate experience, which can help with retention and motivation (Garrison & Cleveland-Innes, 2005). Building these strong relationships is essential for distance learners to succeed (Starks, 2011). As the students feel more connected with their education, it helps their overall experience (Garrison & Cleveland-Innes, 2005; Stein and Glazer, 2003). Lorenzetti (2006) concluded that because of today’s online learners have numerous experiences with the online environment and high expectations; they require a high level of interaction. These interpersonal interactions should focus on the strengths, reflect feelings, clarify concerns, and use open-ended questions to elicit student responses (Kramer, 2011; Starks, 2011).

Advising interactions at the graduate level are between students and faculty members. Faculty members play a major role in the motivation and mentoring of graduate students, historically being seen as the only mentors for these students (Paglis, et. al, 2006; Buchanan et. al, 2005). When you consider the definition of mentoring associated with graduate students provided by Buchanan, et. al. (2005) and combined it with the definition of mentoring distance-based students provided by Stein and Glazer (2003) staff can be seen as providing a mentoring role for distance-based graduate students. Academic advisors are aided by the fact that the online learning environment can be personalized adding to the learning experience (McCrea, 2012). Finley and Chapman (2011) term this personalization as “high touch”.

By using “high touch”, academic advisors are utilizing resources and technologies at their disposal to best reach, interact with, support, and encourage distance learners (Finely & Chapman, 2011). This ‘effective’ use of technology is important to advising distance students (Steele, 2005). Many colleges have greatly improved both their student information systems, learning management system (LMS), and resources for distance-based students (Starks, 2011), but there is still a long way to go (Habley, 2004). To overcome these drawbacks Habley (2004) suggests improving asynchronous communication tools and accessibility other than email. Once this barrier is overcome, academic advisors will be able to
effectively advise distance students (Steele, 2005; Habley, 2004). Another barrier between institutions is classroom instruction, which is typically seen as the only way a majority of student’s interactions with institutions. When these online resources are properly developed, attrition rates for distance learners decrease (Varney, 2009).

With graduate education focusing on the learning environment, faculty provide instruction and mentoring related to careers, research, and content (Green & Bauer, 1995). The academic advisor, on the staff side, provides mentoring related to courses, procedures, and university policies, which faculty are typically unaware (Buchanan, et. al, 2005). Staff advisors provide an important component to the graduate experience, perhaps even more so for distance-based students, as they have more interaction with them then faculty. The relationship and advice administered by staff is an ever-increasing factor in the mentoring of graduate distance-based students and should not be overlooked or undervalued (Steele, 2005; Nutt, 2000).

**Findings**

Based on this literature review and the finding from a qualitative study, currently under review, on it is evident that academic advisors can serve as mentors. Participants were pursuing degrees at a distance, focusing on ecology and natural resources relating to both wildlife and fisheries sciences. The primary researcher has worked with the participants for almost four years as an advisor and possesses a historical knowledge of the program and the students. Initially 35 students were contacted via email asking them to participate in a student on the mentoring relationship between themselves and their academic advisor. A total of eight students responded to the initial phase of the research by responding to semi-structured questions via Qualtrics around mentoring allowing the students to write, in their own words, what they thought about this relationship, and the possibility of the advisor serving as a mentor.

Findings showed that mentoring was an important part of graduate school. For the students enrolled in the program studied, a majority are already working in the field and using the degree to further their career. They seek advice on getting through the program and acquiring new skills. The new skills and technical aspects of the program come from the faculty member’s servings as their committee chairs and instructors. Academic advisors help students navigate the often confusing waters of higher education; serving as resources and making sure a student understands not only what the rule or policy is, but why it is there. This study showed graduate students are unaware of the many hurdles they face in obtaining a truly distance based degree and this is where the academic advisor can come in and play the role of mentor.

Highlights from this study also include distance-based students trust advisors and often refer to them before contacting their faculty advisor. Participants indicated the academic advisor is one of the only points of contact with the university and they enjoyed the flexibility of an online program. The participants viewed their relationship with their academic advisor as professional and were their “go to” source of information. From these findings participants also noted the standard definition of mentoring adding that the difference between an advisor and mentor is a mentor is more involved. Responses
from participants created a definition of academic advising tailored to distance-based students as a learning process in which the advisor facilitates students through their educational journey by providing consistent, two-way communication. Adding that for an advisor to serve as a mentor to distance-based student’s advisors also need to be experienced, respected, knowledgeable, and concerned with students well-being and success.

Conclusions
As distance education continues to grow distance advising will become a central element to retaining and communicating with these students. By practicing sound communication strategies such as micro skills, academic advisors can overcome the challenge of building relationships in the absence of direct face-to-face contact (Starks, 2011). Not only will academic advisors need to further develop their advising skills, but also they will have to learn a completely new skills set and way of advising. The “lifeblood” of higher education is the sharing of information and knowledge.

Academic advisors serve a special role in graduate education, which should not be overlooked or undervalued especially when it comes to mentoring. These advisors often serve as the only contact between a student and the school. When there are multiple points of contact, they are also usually the preferred source of information even over faculty. An academic advisor should serve as a guide to students and faculty by providing pertinent, timely and accurate information deem appropriate, in a friendly manner, to support students and ensure completion of the program. By adding a few additional steps to the advising process, an advisor can provide the needed respect and concern for graduate student’s well-being, creating a mentoring relationship. Students can and do view advisors as mentors, but additional interaction is required by both parties to make it a true mentoring relationship over an advising relationship.

References


