Annual Conference Proceedings

Association of Leadership Educators

29th Annual Conference

Building a Culture of Leadership

July 7-10, 2019

TABLE OF CONTENTS

POSTERS

+

1. **Assessing Program Learning Outcomes of an Undergraduate Dean's Leadership Fellow Immersion Program**
   Jennifer Moss Breen, Associate Professor, Creighton University
   Lydia Holtz, Program Coordinator, Creighton University Thomas Kelly, Professor, Creighton University

2. **University-Wide Approach to Leader Development: A Playbook**
   Stephanie Taylor, Assistant Director for Leadership Development, Rice University, Doerr Institute for New Leaders
   Lillie Besozzi, Senior Associate Director, Rice University, Doerr Institute for New Leaders

3. **One Seed at a Time: A Grounded Theory Study Exploring How an Urban Community Gardening Program Promotes Prosocial Development in Youth**
   Kristyn J. Dickey, Graduate Assistant, Texas Tech University
   Amy E. Boren-Alpizar, Assistant Professor, Texas Tech University
   Erica Irlbeck, Associate Professor, Texas Tech University
   Scott Burris, Professor, Texas Tech University

4. **Developing Cultural Intelligence: A Literature Review on the Empirically Evidenced Antecedents and Predictors of Cultural Intelligence**
   James Lee, Graduate Teaching Assistant, University of Nebraska-Lincoln
   Gina Matkin, Associate Professor of Leadership, University of Nebraska-Lincoln

ASSESSING PROGRAM LEARNING OUTCOMES OF AN UNDERGRADUATE DEAN'S LEADERSHIP FELLOW IMMERSION PROGRAM

ABSTRACT

This poster presents the results of an Ignatian leadership development program that utilized a senior-level immersion experience to the Dominican Republic as a culminating learning experience. Leadership constructs assessed included cultural awareness, self-awareness, humility and servant leadership. Preliminary results indicated that the immersion experience facilitated growth in each of these leadership areas.

INTRODUCTION

This project examined attainment of learning outcomes of a 4-year Ignatian leadership development program (Dean's Fellows) by assessing senior-level undergraduate Dean's Fellows College of Arts and Science students while nearing completion of the program. Because Creighton University is a Jesuit Institution, purposefully embedding Ignatian values, leadership, and social justice into the Dean's Fellows program was essential. As a final culminating experience, senior-level students travelled to the Dominican Republic. Prior to and in preparation for their immersion experience, Dean's Fellows participated in four lectures that included information on cultural intelligence, anticipatory reflection, Ignatian leadership, and discernment. They continued developing in these areas during the immersion experiencethrough lived experiences, reflection, and discussion. The goal of this poster session is to share the assessment results of the attainment of learning outcomes related to the immersionexperience.

BACKGROUND AND PROGRAM DESCRIPTION

The Dean's Fellow's Leadership Program focuses on the spirituality of St. Ignatius of Loyola, who like Gandhi, came from a background of some privilege. Ignatius embraced the notion that the human being is an imperfect agent whose will can choose God as its meaning giver in a graced act of freedom and faith. No human except Jesus of Nazareth, will ever make this choice perfectly. The key is to be constantly aware of the movements of one's heart. Ignatius taught us that human beings experience "consolation" when their affectivity, imagination and intellect move toward God. And alternatively, they experience "desolation" when their affectivity, imagination and intellect move them away from God. Thus, awareness of one's affectivity, imagination and intellect will suggest whether the terminus of one's orientation is or is not God.

Ignatian spirituality understands the human being as fulfilled only by a God who gives God's self to each of us. This God understood as perfect self-giving love is our end and purpose. We reverence, praise and serve that God by becoming free to enter into this love as we interact with other human beings in the world, refusing enslavement to anything that pulls us away from God. Ignatian leadership embodies this in a manner proper to each context.

The Dean's Fellow's leadership development program sought to develop students in five important areas, each of which lends itself to Jesuit values and Ignatian leadership, including a greater sense of the importance of service as leader, an in-depth understanding of Ignatian spirituality as it relates to leadership, an understanding of civic and community engagement, the

importance of intercultural awareness as it relates to leadership and the use of creativity and the arts in leadership. The overall program goals for the 4-year program are outlined in Table 1.

Program Goals	**Objective 1**	**Objective 2**
Deepened my understanding of the importance of service to my development as a leader	Ability to integrate service to others into leadership style or experiences	Demonstrate a commitment to service to others
Deepened my understanding of the importance of Ignatian spirituality to my development as a leader	Ability to integrate Ignatian principles into leadership style or experiences	Demonstrate competency in Ignatian values
Deepened my understanding of the importance of civic and community engagement to my development as a leader	Ability to integrate civic and community engagement into leadership style or experiences	Demonstrate leadership in the Creighton community
Deepened my understanding of the importance of inclusion and intercultural awareness to my development as a leader	Ability to integrate inclusion and intercultural awareness into leadership style or experiences	Demonstrate a commitment to and appreciation for inclusion and cultural awareness
Deepened my understanding of the importance of creativity and the arts to my development as a leader	Ability to integrate creativity and the arts into leadership style or experiences	Demonstrate appreciation for the arts and creativity

Table 1. Dean's Fellows Program Goals

Measuring the impact of a Jesuit/Ignatian leadership development program is difficult. Our goal was to link contemporary leadership constructs with Ignatian leadership, so we could measure the developmental growth of the Dean's fellows. While Rothausen (2017) provided a theoretical framework that aligned secular leadership development models with Ignatian leadership, unfortunately, validated measures of Ignatian leadership still do not exist to date. To address this limitation, this project utilized instruments drawn from the field of leadership studies. These instruments serve as proxies and help us measure the impact of student learning through the immersion experience. Because the senior-year immersion experience was a culminating experience, and because it included a strong inter-cultural component, it was deemed that cultural awareness, self-awareness, humility and servant leadership were logical assessments to utilize to capture pre- and post- self-assessments in each of these areas. When measuring the impact of any leadership development intervention, it is important to utilize valid and reliable measurement instruments to capture growth. A brief description of each construct is described below.

Leadership Humility

Leadership humility has been studied extensively and from multiple perspectives (Morris, Brotheridge & Urbansky, 2005). Leadership humility, overall, requires leaders to acknowledge the contributions of others, admit when they have made mistakes, and be able to learn and grow through both mistakes and successes. Humility asks us to reflect upon who we are in relation to others, and to reflect upon our impact on them. In the Ignatian leadership context, humility is thought of as the ability to appreciate the gifts that God has given us and discover how we might respond to that love in daily life.

Servant Leadership

Servant leadership, in the leadership context, requires that leaders put the needs of others ahead of their own (Greenleaf, 1998; Spears, 2010). Using the framework developed by Barbuto and Wheeler (2006), servant leadership includes five characteristics including altruistic calling, persuasive mapping, emotional healing, wisdom and stewardship. Ignatian leadership requires similar leadership characteristics including accountability, calling, influence, healing, sustainability through consciousness, and structural transformation for the good of others.

Cultural Intelligence

Cultural intelligence is described as the ability to function effectively in culturally diverse settings (Ang, Dyne, Koh, Ng, Templer, Tay & Chandrasekar, 2007) and can be measured in relation to meta-cognitive, cognitive, behavioral and motivational dimensions. Cultural intelligence allows leaders to accurately assess situations and make more effective decisions. Cultural intelligence also teaches us how the head, body, and heart work together in our daily lives (Earley & Mosakowski, 2004). Ignatian leadership also requires the ability to 'walk alongside others' from different cultures and build trust through compassion, active listening, and attentiveness.

Self-Awareness

Leaders must be able to look inside themselves and 'see' who they are in relation to others and the world around them in to be effective. Self-reflection, or looking inward to assess our internal world, is thought to be how our human race has advanced throughout history (Ashley & Reiter-Palmon, 2010). In terms of Ignatian leadership, the practice of self-reflection to build self-awareness is an essential practice that builds spiritual capacity and understanding, self-corrective behaviors, and internal markers of emotion and thought.

CURRENT RESULTS

Data from the survey was downloaded in December 2018. Seventeen students who embarked on the immersion trip completed the pre-trip survey. Eleven students completed the post-trip survey. Survey results were anonymous, and therefore data was evaluated in aggregate. The results are promising with 100% of students, post-immersion trip, stating that to a "Large or Great Extent", they are more aware of their own values and beliefs. This is a 13.33% increase from the pre-immersion trip survey. Measuring cultural awareness, there was a 42% increase in students who "Agree or Strongly Agree" that they are more conscious of their cultural knowledge. There was also a 50% increase in students who "Agree or Strongly Agree" that they change their nonverbal

behavior when a cross-cultural situation requires it, an indicator of self-awareness. While measuring Leader Humility, results showed a 37% increase in students who noted that the statement, “I should evaluate my role in others’ mistakes” is “True or Very True” of what they believe. One of the questions measuring servant leadership saw a 43% increase in students “Strongly Agree” that they believe an organization needs to play a moral role in society.

CONCLUSIONS

We are amid the process of learning about the impact of an immersion experience on key leadership variables. Results indicated growth in cultural awareness, self-awareness, leader humility, and servant leadership. With these promising results, we plan to continue our study and examine the effectiveness of the Dean’s Leadership Fellows Program. This survey was administered to students immediately before and after their senior immersion trip. For future studies, we plan to adjust our survey administration and explore issuing it to students at the beginning (year one) and end (year four) of their fellowship program. We also plan to test the statistical significance of each category. Additionally, we will develop coding to allow evaluation of change in each participant.

REERENCES

Ang, S., Van Dyne, L., Koh, C., Ng, K. Y., Templer, K. J., Tay, C., & Chandrasekar, N. A. (2007). Cultural intelligence: Its measurement and effects on cultural judgment and decision making, cultural adaptation and task performance. *Management and Organization Review*, *3*, 335-371.

Barbuto Jr, J. E., & Wheeler, D. W. (2006). Scale development and construct clarification of servant leadership. *Group & Organization Management*, *31*, 300-326.

Earley, P. C., & Mosakowski, E. (2004). Cultural intelligence. *Harvard Business Review*, *82*, 139-146.

Greenleaf, R. K. (1998). *The Power of Servant-Leadership: Essays*. New York, NY: Berrett-Koehler Publishers.

Morris, J. A., Brotheridge, C. M., & Urbanski, J. C. (2005). Bringing humility to leadership: Antecedents and consequences of leader humility. *Human Relations*, *58*, 1323-1350.

Rothausen, T. J. (2017). Integrating leadership development with Ignatian spirituality: A model for designing a spiritual leader development practice. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *145*, 811-829.

Spears, L. C. (2010). Character and servant leadership: Ten characteristics of effective, caring leaders. *The Journal of Virtues & Leadership*, *1*, 25-30.

University-Wide Approach to Leader Development: A Playbook

Lillie Besozzi and Stephanie Taylor
Rice University

Abstract

The aim of this practice poster is to provide a playbook for how to set up a comprehensive, principle-based university-wide approach to leader development. This poster discusses how one team of researchers and practitioners from a top 15 private university established guiding principles, foundational frameworks, and measurement strategies for leader development programs.

Introduction

This poster portrays a way for colleges and universities to professionally develop students as leaders in large numbers. The technique, if scaled, provides a strategic solution to the current reality of poor leadership in business and government.

Background

In their mission statements, American universities commonly promise to develop students as leaders, but early research suggests there are a limited number of universities that develop students as leaders at an enterprise level. For example, a search of the top 20 universities as ranked by U.S. News and World Report (2018) showed that none of the schools have a person who is in charge of leader development at the university level. University leader development programs tend to be boutique, exclusive, and absent of measured outcomes. In contrast, the business world spends about $24 million in leader development training annually (Ashkenas & Hausmann, 2016). However, those resources are allocated in an inverted pyramid. 58% of companies spend $1000 per person at the very top executive level, and only 38% of companies spend that amount on their individual contributors (Brandon Hall Group, 2016). This leaves the majority of our young leaders without access to high-quality, professionally-led leader development.

If, as a nation, we provided evidence-based leader development with measurable outcomes to our youngest leaders, we would all benefit from the time value of leader development. If a college student enhances their leader identity, grows in self-awareness, and learns two or three leader skills as a young adult, s/he will be able to apply those leader competencies for the next 60 years. Rather than waiting to spend resources to develop people who are 30 years into their careers, we should be providing high-quality developmental experience to university students.

Description of Program: The Playbook

Here is our proposed road map for how all top 20 universities could approach starting a university wide leader development program.

1. **Understand Context.** Our leader development enterprise first sought to understand the needs of the community that they intended to serve. In July 2015, two staff members were hired to launch the leader institute and spent the first 4 months interviewing 185 students, alumni, parents, faculty, staff, deans, vice presidents, the board of trustees, and community members about leader development at the university. This created a clear understanding of the current state, the felt needs, the history, and the opportunities for leader development at a large scale.

2. **Proof of Concept.** To establish a strong proof of concept and a measured impact, the team set up a professional leadership coaching pilot with just 12 undergraduate students to understand if the high-quality, personalized leadership coaching that is successful in industry (e.g., Sonesh, Coultas, Lacerenza, Marlow, Benishek, & Salas, 2015) would also be effective in a university context. Early evidence suggested individual leadership coaching was making an impact on students' ability to lead, so the next semester the pilot scaled to 266 students. It is important for program leads to consider how their early programs are able to be scaled to match the large number of students at their individual university.

3. **Create a Team.** Based on lessons learned during the pilot and the mission to create a university-wide program, it was essential to assemble a team for wide-scale implementation. The institute is organized into three functional areas: Leader Development, Measurement, and Operations. The Leader Development Team develops and delivers all programs to students and is composed of two full-time staff members, a program coordinator, 45 student affiliates, 35 International Coach Federation-certified vendor coaches and facilitators. The Measurement Team is led by a PhD-level social psychologist and operates independently from program development and execution which allows for completely objective evaluation. The Operations Team centralizes all business aspects of the Institute and manages external relationships, all public events, collaboration with advisory boards, and is composed of an MBA and a department coordinator.

4. **Establish Guiding Principles and OKRs.** Given the wide interpretation that exists for terms such as "leadership" and "leader development" is was critical for the institute to develop grounding goals and principles to keep the institute focused and in alignment with the mission (Latham & Locke, 1979). The following established guiding principles are static and must be present in every action that the Institute takes: 1) Leader development is a core function of the university, 2) Use evidence-based techniques, 3) Use professional people, 4) Measure outcomes objectively.

   In addition to these guiding principles are Objectives and Key Results that serve to align our team actions. Using the John Doerr's published New York Times Bestseller, *Measure What Matters*, the Institute set visible goals that would not only determine successes and failures, but would also prevent our team from being pulled in many different directions, diminishing our impact on campus. When setting up a program, ensure your team spends significant time establishing the foundations that will create alignment in execution of your program.

5. **Build Developmental Frameworks and Measurement Strategies.** To ensure balance in our learning experiences for students, we use a set of 21 Leader Competencies that are derived from contemporary research on leaders (Lombardo & Eichinger, 2009) and are

organized into five broad, rationally-derived themes (see Appendix A for model). While this list of competencies does not capture every skill that a leader might ever need to be successful, it does encapsulate a wide range of fundamental characteristics related to leader effectiveness that are appropriate for development within a college-aged population. Additionally, we aimed to measure our impact on these competencies by creating and validating an "Authentic Leader Identity" scale to measure a student's self-categorization as a leader, self-confidence and self-awareness as a leader, and willingness to step into leadership roles.

6. **Design and Execute aligned programs.** After guiding principles, foundations and measurement strategies are established, it is then the goal to create learning experiences that create a measured impact on a students' leadership. A full description of our program is outlined below.

Description of Program

Rather than following a prescriptive, one size- fits-all leadership training approaches, we offer students coaching and training from certified professionals in five unique program formats. All five programs are free of cost and available to all students. There are no pre-requisites and students are encouraged to start with the program that best meets their development needs and time availability. Program descriptions are outlined below and also represented in Appendix B.

1. **Activation** influences the capacity of university students to lead by increasing their self-awareness and providing them with individualized, professional leadership coaching over the course of a semester. Each student completes an emotional intelligence assessment, followed by five, one-hour coaching sessions. During these self-scheduled sessions, professional coaches work with students to create an individual leadership development plan within the context of their existing commitments (such as classroom project teams, athletic teams, musical groups, residential college activities, student employment, etc.). In addition to collecting student feedback about every coaching session and their subjective evaluation of goal progress, we administer an array of measures at the beginning and end of the semester (before and after the coaching engagement). These measures assess authentic leader identity, self-concept clarity, sense of purpose, satisfaction with life, and psychological distress.
2. **Synthesis** supports students in increasing self-awareness and achieving deeper learning through group coaching. Over a semester, a certified professional leadership coach facilitates small group conversations on a specific leadership theme. The group meets five times for 90 minutes each to provide accountability and support. Measures appropriate to the objectives of each Synthesis theme are administered pre and post coaching, including such constructs as social self-confidence, assertiveness, rejection sensitivity, and interpersonal skills.
3. **Catalyst** modules are in-depth group learning experiences focused on a single leadership competency, allowing students to further develop their unique leadership skillsets. Each module consists of two, two-hour sessions that challenge and support students as they build skills through hands-on practice in an interactive environment. Catalyst topics are selected based on anthropological data that investigated the leadership competencies that students, faculty, and alumni feel that they most need or wished they had developed. Measures of impact are administered pre and post training, with the post-training measures given 30 days after the final session (to reduce demand effects). These measures include self-assessments of

conflict management behaviors, intellectual humility, mastery orientation, and observational ratings of participants' ability to provide constructive and effective feedback.

4. **The Leader Excursion** program originated from a request from the Student Association and supports the University's "Beyond the Hedges" initiative focused on getting Rice students into the greater Houston community. The program is a half day experience, where a group of 7-10 students go off campus to meet with a successful Houston leader on their turf. The leader is asked to share their candid stories of success, failure, and ethical dilemmas and students are prompted to consider personal applications for these stories by using our ORCA reflection tool. We examine the impact of this program through pre and post measures of leader identity and beliefs about the nature of leadership abilities, as well as through an assessment (30 days after the excursion) of students' commitment and progress with respect to the personal leadership goals that they articulate at the end of the excursion experience.
5. **Coach Training** for students is a unique training program that uses a variety of teaching methodologies to deliver a practical skill set for university students who want to learn to develop other students as a peer coach. In the 60-hour program, which is certified by the International Coaching Federation, students work on the core competencies for effectiveness as a leadership coach. Students complete measures of leader identity and self-concept clarity before and after the coach training program, evaluate one another's coaching skills, and are evaluated independently by a professional (ICF-accredited) coach observer.

Results

We found significant increases in leader identity and advances in students' intentions to sign up for leader roles after participating in our programs. We do not find such gains across the general population (see Appendix C).

We rigorously assess every leader development program on multiple dimensions, from basic enrollment and attrition levels, to subjective evaluations, to pre-post impact metrics tailored to the objectives of each program. Each of these dimensions is important to evaluate. For instance, although pre-post impact metrics might seem to be the most important, "ultimate" outcomes, if no one shows up to be developed because the subjective evaluations of previous participants were too negative, having an impactful intervention becomes irrelevant. Tables 1-3 (see Appendix D) gives a conceptual overview of our multi-dimensional approach to assessment.

Conclusions/Recommendations

Our results show that universities can create a scalable, rigorously evaluated leader development program if institutions are willing to invest the time, money, and attention necessary to take leadership seriously as an outcome of value. If universities develop leaders as a core function of the university, use evidence-based techniques, use professional people, and measure outcomes, our nation would produce measurably more effective leaders on a large scale. This approach develops more than 500 students with up to five individual leadership coaching sessions for the equivalent cost of a senior faculty member. We are inviting all universities to take advantage of the time value of leader development and join the movement to change the way leader development is done at universities worldwide.

References

Ashkenas R. & Hausmann R. (2016). Leadership development should focus on experiments. *Harvard Business Review*. Retrieved from: https://hbr.org/2016/04/leadership-development-should-focus-on-experiments?utm_campaign=HBR&utm_source=linkedin&utm_medium=social

Brandon Hall Group (2016, November). Top Spending Trends for Training. *Training.* Retrieved from https://trainingmag.com/top-spending-trends-training-2016-2017/.

Doerr, J. (2018). *Measure what matters: How Google, Bono, and the Gates Foundation rock the world with OKRs.* Penguin.

Lombardo, M. M., & Eichinger, R. W. (2009). FYI. *For your improvement. A guide for development and coaching. Korn/Ferry International*.

Latham, G. P., & Locke, E. A. (1979). Goal setting—A motivational technique that works. *Organizational dynamics*, *8*(2), 68-80.

Sonesh, S. C., Coultas, C. W., Lacerenza, C. N., Marlow, S. L., Benishek, L. E., & Salas, E. (2015). The power of coaching: A meta-analytic investigation. *Coaching: An International Journal of Theory, Research and Practice*, *8*(2), 73-95.

Appendix A

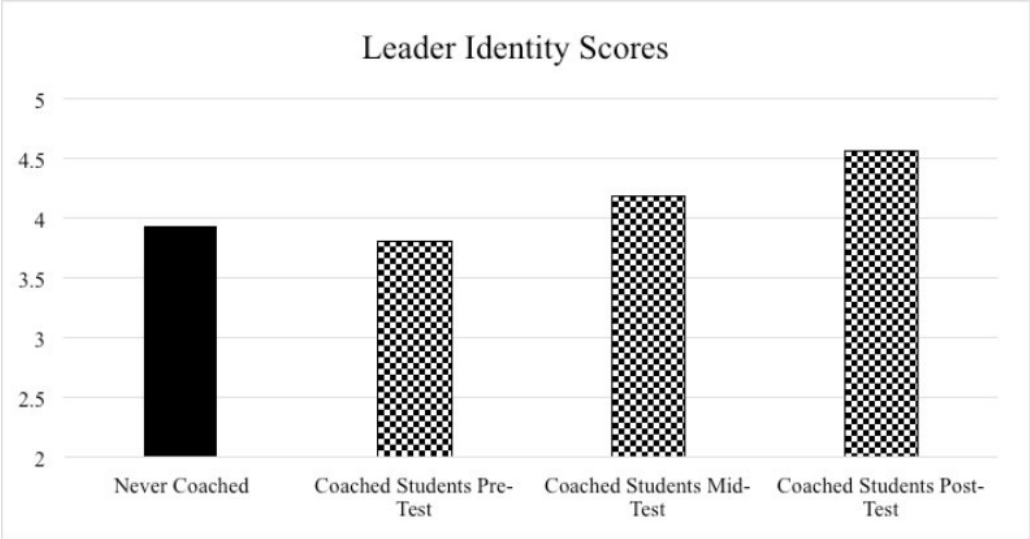
Figure 1. Developmental framework for leader competencies.

Appendix B

Figure 2. Sample of marketing materials.

Appendix C

Table 1: Leader identity scores for students who never participated in the leadership coaching program compared to student participants at three different stages of participation.



Note: Scores on the Authentic Leader Identity scale range from 1 to 5 and reflect the average response across 9 items.

Appendix D

Table 1: The table below provides a conceptual overview of our multi-dimensional approach to assessment.

	Engagement	Subjective Evals.	Impact Metrics
Activation			
Synthesis Theme A			
Synthesis Theme B			
Catalyst Skill A			
Catalyst Skill B			

Note. Green indicates a positive outcome (where success criteria are predetermined for each program); yellow indicates a mixed or less-than-desirable outcome; red indicates a poor outcome. Engagement includes enrollment and subsequent attrition. Subjective Evals. include standard, multi-item indices of perceived value. Impact Metrics are pre-post indices (unique to each intervention/training program).

Table 2: The table below provides a snapshot of the subjective evaluation results for our Spring 2019 Embrace Conflict Catalyst module. Additionally, we ask students for open ended feedback.

Note: Response options range from 1 = Disagree Strongly to 7 Agree Strongly
Total N= 139; S1 = Session 1; S2= Session 2

Items	Mean: Conflict	
	S1 (n=24)	S2 (n=23)
Sign up	33	
Attendance		
Overall, I was satisfied with this learning experience.	6.21	6.70
I would like to participate in a learning experience like this one again.	6.38	6.78
I would recommend this learning experience to my colleagues.	6.21	6.74
I believe that I will be able to apply the knowledge and skills gained from this learning experience to my work.	6.29	6.65
Overall, the content was presented in a clear and understandable way.	6.42	6.61
Participating in this learning experience was worth the time and effort required.	6.21	6.65
The instructors used class time well.	6.42	6.65
The instructors were effective communicators.	6.50	6.61
The logistics related to this training went smoothly.	6.58	6.70
I was personally motivated to participate in this training.	6.50	6.91
I felt a strong sense of pressure from my advisor or some other authority figure to participate in this training.	2.46	2.17

Table 3: The table below provides the impact metrics for our Spring 2019 Embrace Conflict Catalyst module. A similar impact analysis is done for every leader development program.

Table 1: Below is snapshot of the impact data for our Spring 2019 Embrace Conflict Catalyst module. A similar analysis is done for every leader development program.

Scale:	Pretest	Posttest	p-value
Constructive tactics	4.68	5.37	0.02**
Avoidance	4.94	4.36	0.03*
Forcefulness	4.00	4.30	0.27
Conflict Self-Awareness	3.25	4.50	0.03**

Note: The response scale ranges from 1 to 7 for the measures presented in the table below.

One seed at a time: A grounded theory study exploring how an urban community gardening program promotes prosocial development in youth

By: Kristyn Dickey, M.S.
Amy Boren, Ph.D.
Department of Agricultural Education & Communications
Texas Tech University

Abstract

The GRUB program is a youth development program in Lubbock, Texas. The mission of the program is to provide at-risk youth with leadership opportunities, encouraging life and job skills. The purpose of this qualitative study was to explore how the program fosters prosocial decision-making in youth participants. Using grounded theory, a model was created to illustrate the transition youth experience when developing prosocial behaviors through participation in the program. The model that emerged identifies four main antisocial constructs youth possessed when they began the program and four main prosocial constructs they developed during participation in the program. The results yielded information regarding participants' individual prosocial behavioral development. The results also provided examples of the long-term benefits experienced at the self and societal levels, as a result of prosocial decision-making.

Introduction

Adolescence is a fundamental period of development when youth begin to explore their identity, channel their individuality, and embrace potential adult roles. During this critical developmental period, adolescents begin considering future opportunities, future selves, and develop the ability to make decisions accordingly (Allen, Alaimo, Elam, & Perry, 2008). During this uniquely challenging growth stage, individuals are tasked with constructing a multitude of characteristics necessary to successfully transition into adulthood (Nagel, Guarnera, & Reppucci, 2016). In this stage, adolescents are considered to be more susceptible to stress and less likely to weight the risks and benefits of future consequences contributing to their short-sighted decision-making (Nagel et al., 2016). Researchers have recognized how immature decision-making renders adolescents, as a class, more likely to commit delinquent acts (Allen et al., 2008; Fulford & Thompson, 2013).

More particularly, the risks for developing antisocial behaviors tends to be greater in youth residing in impoverished neighborhoods (Allen et al, 2008; Trinidad, 2009). Antisocial behaviors (e.g. drug use, violence, delinquency and early sexual activity) yield detrimental long-term effects felt at the self and societal levels (Fulford & Thompson, 2013; Delia & Krasny, 2018; Draper & freedman, 2010). These negative outcomes can exist in the form of increased poverty levels, increased crime rates, lack of community connectedness, and food insecurity (Allen et al., 2008).

Contrary to the negative outcomes that can result from antisocial behavior are the positive effects that can be produced through prosocial decisions. Prosocial behavior is defined as the clear and healthy ethical standards, beliefs and behavioral guidelines that promote acceptable behavior and

minimize health hazards at individual and societal level (Siu, Cheung, & Leung, 2006). Although research on this topic is sparse, studies have found that positive youth development programs, especially those in the form of community gardening programs, can act as gateways to ease antisocial behaviors and promote prosocial behaviors, specifically in at-risk youth. In recent studies, researchers have found that although adolescence can be a period of developmental challenge, it can also serve as a time in which adolescents experience dynamic development, fostering strengths and increasing the likelihood of positive outcomes (Lerner, 2006; Delia & Krasny, 2018).

Although researchers have discovered the purposes, motivations and benefits of positive youth development outcomes, Ozer (2007) argues that there is a large demand for understanding and explaining how and why these positive effects might be achieved. The purpose of this study was to determine the opportunities that a community gardening program provides youth to develop prosocial decision-making and to generate a theory that could provide a groundwork for understanding how these positive effects are achieved.

Literature Review

A conceptual framework was used to identify the relationship between three theoretical strands: positive youth development, urban community gardening programs, and prosocial behavioral development. For the first 85 years involving the scientific study of adolescent development, the literature was exclusively framed to define adolescence as a period of disturbance (Freud, 1969). However, as the concept of youth development was studied and refined, researchers discovered that adolescence was in fact, not a time of upheaval, but was a transformational period in which youth could be viewed as resources to be developed and not as problems to be managed (Roth, Brooks-Gunn, Murray, & Foster, 2003). Throughout history, researchers have discovered that positive youth development can promote wellbeing and social good (Benson & Leffert, 1998; Damon, 2004; Lerner, 2004). After many years of research, Lerner (2004) developed the 5C's of positive youth development: competence, confidence, connection, character, and caring.

An alternative pathway to providing positive resources has recently emerged in the form of community garden programs (Trinidad, 2009). In U.S. cities, community organizations and non-profits conduct environmental education programs after-school and during the summertime, often with youth who live in low-income neighborhoods and are hired as paid interns (Smith et al., 2015). In response to food insecurity (Trinidad, 2009), child obesity (Ozer, 2007), increased violence and crime in urban areas (Allen et al., 2008), high levels of poverty (Fulford & Thompson, 2013), and concern for decreased community resources and high unemployment rates (Briand, Sauvé & Fréchette, 2011) a vast majority of these programs are located in urban areas with marginalized populations, operated by youth organizations focused on providing developmental opportunities for at-risk youth (Draper & Freedman, 2010).

Several existing studies postulate that neighborhood-based community gardens can positively influence the development of disadvantaged youth by providing opportunities to cultivate assets of constructive activity, positive contributions to the community, relationships with other adults and youth, interpersonal skills, informal social control, cognitive and behavioral competencies, and improved knowledge of nutrition and consumption of fresh fruit and vegetables (see Ohly et

al., 2016; Allen et al., 2008; Ozer, 2007). These long-term benefits have elicited positive changes in the lives of participants. Youth experienced benefits in the areas of skill building and job training; self-esteem; improved nutrition and food security; environmental awareness and behavior, and community building. Long-term benefits are also seen in youths' display of generosity, independence, mastery and belonging, which can be felt broader at the community level (Fulford & Thompson, 2013).

The final tier in the conceptual framework is prosocial behavioral development. According to Dovidio, Piliavin, Schroeder, and Penner (2006), prosocial behavior is influenced by biological, psychological and social factors. They state that prosocial behavior is voluntary behavior intended to benefit another. This behavior includes the actions of helping, sharing, or providing comfort to another.

Additionally, Baumeister and Leary (2017) argue that prosocial behavior is important for the quality of close relationships. They also suggest that it inspires people to help each other in order to successfully have a healthy and peaceful society. Prosocial involvement not only reduces crime and delinquency, but also serves as a rehabilitation and correctional function in delinquent youth (Urban, Lewin-Bizan, & Lerner, 2010; Kelley, 2003). Draper and Freedman (2010) suggest that community gardens can serve as powerful tools to help fulfill the overall mission of social work: to enhance the basic needs of all people, especially the vulnerable, oppressed and impoverished. These programs enable adolescents to develop responsibility and agency, serving as a gateway to broader participation in civil society (Lerner et al., 2004, 2006).

Thus, it is suggested that prosocial involvement be included in discussions about possible solutions to crime, drug use, delinquency, and other antisocial behaviors (Lam, 2011). Draper and Freedman (2010) argue that there is an urgent need to evaluate community gardening programs as a tool for health promotion, fostering positive interracial and intergenerational relationships, creating jobs, increasing food security and much more.

Methods

Design. This qualitative study implemented a grounded theory design. In grounded theory methodology, data collection and analysis continue in an ongoing cycle throughout the research process to ensure rich and accurate data that is used to construct theory (Corbin & Strauss, 2015).

Data Collection. Purposeful sampling was utilized to identify participants to provide maximum understanding, insight and relevance to the study (Ary, Jacobs & Sorensen, 2010). One-on-one, semi-structured interviews were used to collect the experiences of 12 former [program] youth, determining their decision-making abilities before, during and after the [program]. All interviews were audio-recorded and transcribed. The interviews ranged in duration from 38:34 minutes to 1 hour and 22 minutes, with an average of approximately55.5 minutes. The semi-structured nature of the interview protocol allowed me to ask follow-up or additional questions and to explore additional information as needed, which resulted in varying lengths of interviews for each participant (Erlandson, Harris, Skipper, & Allen, 1993).

Data Analysis. Constant-comparative methods were used to code the data. There were three series of coding that aided in the development of the theory. The first series of coding I implemented was a basic holistic method. Holistic coding is an attempt to grasp basic themes or issues in the data by absorbing them as a whole (Saldaña, 2013). The second series of coding was axial. Axial coding is a more focused approach to coding, in which the purpose is to determine which codes in the research are dominant and which ones are less important. During the axial coding process, I reorganized the data set, removing redundant codes and focusing strictly on only the dominant themes (Saldaña, 2013). Theoretical coding was the essential final step in achieving a robust grounded theory, because it integrates and synthesizes the categories and themes derived from the coding process and reveals the dimensions that enable the creation of a theory (Saldaña, 2013). A theoretical code specifies the possible relationships between categories and moves the analytic story in a theoretical direction (Charmaz, 2006). For this study, after I defined the eight themes and three underlying codes within each category, I was able to begin constructing diagrams that helped illustrate the transitional process between the four positive categories and four negative categories. Trustworthiness, credibility, transferability, dependability, confirmability and researcher bias were achieved through multiple sources of data including interview transcripts, reflexive memoing and diagraming, field notes, observations, and peer debriefing (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

Results

Research question one sought to determine the opportunities that [program] provides youth to develop prosocial decision-making. These opportunities, illustrated as a transition from antisocial to prosocial behaviors, are illustrated in Figure 1.

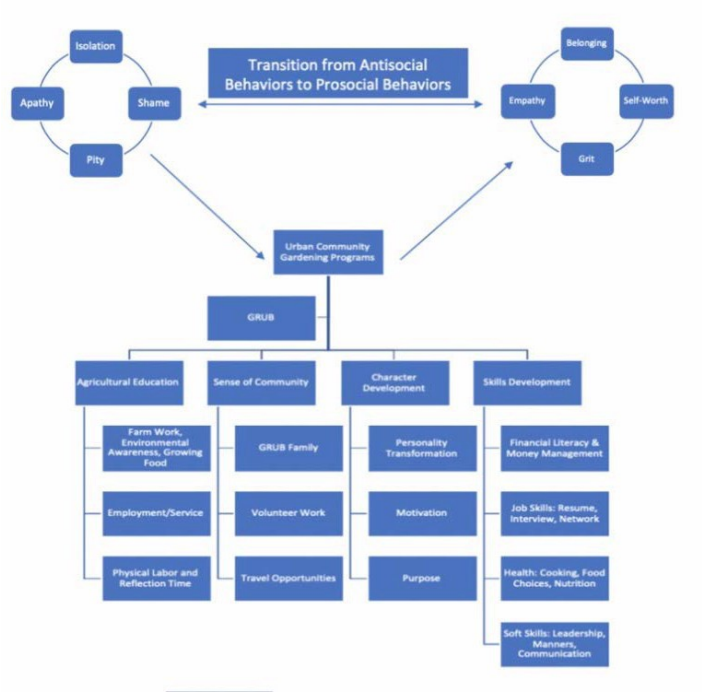


Figure 1. The Transitional Model of [program] Opportunities

Research question two sought to determine the experiences during the [program] that inspired youth's prosocial decision-making. Five themes emerged as the answers to this question: Farm work, teamwork and peer influence, staff mentoring, life skills and job skills. When asked what experiences were most helpful during their time in the program, participants gave examples of the five themes. DJ said: "The farm work! Everything I learned about business and vegetables has transferred over to my job now." DJ now owns a landscaping business and utilizes the skills he learned through the farm work.

In response to the teamwork and peer influence, Vanessa said, "It was about teamwork and how to communicate, how to trust people, how to build, to learn how to do something if you're afraid to do it. So I think that helped me a lot."

Callie's response was that of the staff mentoring:

> [Program] staff set really good intentions for us and you know, I feel like it helps us to understand 'We believe in you. We believe you can do better. You deserve better than whatever life you think you're set up for.'

The job skills were another experience that helped youth develop prosocial decisions with lasting outcomes. Kylee attributes her current success in the workforce to the [program]. She says, "I put together a lot of resumes and quite a few interviews. Actually, I think that's the part that helped me get the position I'm at in my job now. Every job I've ever gotten was because of [program]."
The last experience was the life skills. Nicole displays the life skills that she transferred over into becoming more self-sufficient as she began to manage her own money:

> At [program], I was making my own money so I was able to get myself things that maybe my parents couldn't afford. Growing up, not having much money and stuff, like that makes me want to have security for me and my children someday.

The third research question sought to determine how the program eased antisocial behaviors among youth. Throughout the data collection and analysis, a theory emerged that properly illustrates the transition youth experience as they ease antisocial behaviors and develop prosocial behaviors. The theory that emerged from this research process is termed The Theory of Emotional-Behavioral Resilience, displayed in Figure 2. The Theory of Emotional-Behavioral Resilience is a model that illustrates a developmental process as youth transformed on a continuum schematic scale to reduce antisocial behaviors and develop prosocial decisions. The EBR theory distinctly breaks down four positive constructs: (a) belonging (b) self-worth (c) grit and (d) empathy that transpired as constructs that [program] youth grew during the program and continued to foster into adulthood. On the opposite side of the positive constructs emerged four underlying themes that represented antisocial behaviors: (a) isolation (b) shame (c) pity and (d) apathy. While the constructs that emerged from the data are nuanced and complex, they are equally as profound and critical to precisely understanding the process of developing prosocial behaviors in at-risk youth.

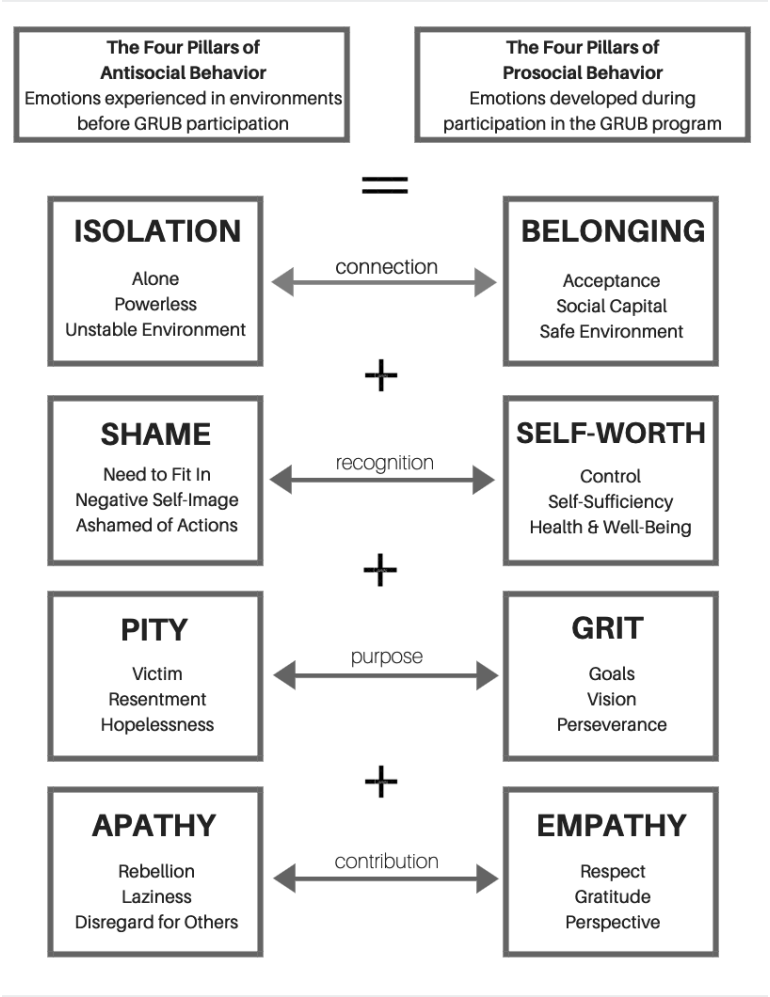


Figure 2. The Theory of Emotional-Behavioral Resilience

Understanding Each Construct and its Opposite. When coding the data, belonging resulted as the overarching construct to codes such as *safety, acceptance and social capital.* When I discovered isolation as the theme opposite to belonging, I identified three codes that led to the overarching category: feeling *alone*, feeling *powerless* (unable to speak for myself and make healthy choices due to restrictive circumstances) and *suffering from an unstable environment*.

Isolation. It wasn't until I began to grasp the feelings of *loneliness, the urges to escape, the powerlessness,* and the *desperation* of my participants that I could properly identify and illustrate the overwhelming relationship between the two: while belonging conjured positive feelings of *comfort, safety, acceptance, and connection,* isolation undeniably buried those feelings and cultivated negative emotions. During participants' adolescence, these negative emotions resulted in destructive mindsets that had negative outcomes. Before diving into the world of belonging, I needed to fully capture the essence of isolation experienced by my participants. One example of isolation comes from Jill, whose family environment was not ideal. In this situation, she felt trapped and powerless, restricted from making a choice that would yield a better path:

> I came from a pretty unfortunate upbringing. Both my parents are deadbeat drug addicts, alcoholics, not very present in my life. [When I was young] *I observed who I didn't want to be*…I was seeing all the bad things around me and going down that path even though *that's not really what I wanted.* But *I had no chance*, absolutely no guidance to help me pursue the better path. I didn't have any direction. I was winging it. I didn't have the guidance, you know, to help me pursue those good decisions...so yeah, I mean this is sad, but I was shoplifting, and smoking weed and doing things that were getting me into a lot of trouble.

Participants went on to talk about how they felt powerless at home, explaining that they were "selling drugs to survive" and that "some people really don't got no choice." The feelings of isolation were so severe in participants that a startling statistic was revealed: six out of the 12 participants said that if that had not participated in the [program], they would be "dead."

Belonging. Opposite to feelings of isolation were feelings of connection that youth experienced in the program. Youth described feelings of belonging, saying "Before [program], I felt lost…now I feel found;" "I felt really accepted;" "I was able to be myself;" "After [program], I feel like a whole person…like, completed." A particular display of belonging comes from Callie, as she attests:

> You learn what a *community* is because outside of GRUB, you can have a whole bunch of family problems going on, you may have bad influences in your life, but then [at GRUB] you see each other every day, you work with each other, you go through all this stuff *together*. We were getting things there that we weren't getting anywhere else.

Shame. Similar to the opposing positions of belonging and isolation are the conflicting relationships between self-worth and shame. In the first series of coding, self- worth emerged as the second step, after belonging, in which youth began to develop prosocial decisions. Although self-worth was clearly the second pillar of positive attributes, it was important to identify the arrival of the concept. During the second series of coding, feelings of being *ashamed for my actions (embarrassment/remorse), negative image,* and *a need to fit in (hanging around bad crowds)* emerged as codes in which shame served as the overarching category. Participants referred to feelings of shame as they shared, "I was a nerd, but I was hanging out with thugs (to feel worthy);" "I didn't bring friends home because I was embarrassed of where we came from;" "I grew up stealing. I knew I was making bad choices. I didn't want to steal but that was the option;" "I had FAS so that gave me a really bad self-image." Alyssa shares an account of how she felt ashamed for who she was: "I was hospitalized for homicidal, suicidal tendencies. Four different times. I hated everybody, including myself. *I legitimately hated the person I was."*

Self-Worth. Three codes fell under the category of self-worth: *self-sufficiency (making my own money, growing my own food, securing jobs); control (of my own thoughts, emotions, temper; ability to take ownership of my actions, set boundaries for the people I allow in my environment);* and *health & wellbeing (positive affirmation, excitement, leadership, reflection, and fostering mental, spiritual, emotional and physical health).* Sasha shares, "It taught me to love who I am. That's not something I would have been able to do without being surrounded by such great people. That's the main thing I learned there; *self-worth."* Participants also

referred to their feelings of self-worth that grew through self-sufficiency: “being able to bring vegetables home and cook them for my family made me proud;” “using that money to buy a car…that was cool;” “helping out with my siblings and buying things my parents couldn’t afford made me feel happy.”

Pity. Just like the juxtaposing relationships between isolation versus belonging and of shame versus self-worth, grit, too, has a dark and twisted counterpart: *pity*. As I combed through the data to find the counterpart to grit, Kylee offered the statement that once resonated with me, but got lost in the data. It had once again emerged: *“I got handed the short stick.”* Kylee says, “I was definitely an angry kid. Just kinda [had the mindset] that *I got handed the short stick* and so I was just kinda mad about that, I was angry at the whole world.”

Grit. As I moved into the analysis of grit, one phrase that was mentioned by two participants stuck out: no matter the circumstance. As participants began to feel motivated by the program, they were “staying longer on Saturdays so I could beat other youth and win the volunteer hours;” “get up early and make my mom coffee so she’d take me to [program].” Nicole testifies that “It teaches you that no matter the circumstances, you can do whatever you want to, you just gotta put your mind to it.”

Apathy. Many of my participants said that before GRUB, they were “running the streets,” “not doin’ nothing but getting in trouble [on Saturdays],” and “smoking weed at 14 cause that’s all we had to do, man.” Alyssa gives a testimonial about her rebellious actions; how using drugs was the only option to survive because “yeah, I didn’t really have a purpose at that point.” She goes on to describe her apathetic outlook:

> We [the negative peer group I associated with before GRUB] wanted to *numb* everything. *Didn't want to have to feel anything.* My first addiction was a codeine habit when I was 14...uh my mom supplied them.

Empathy. Next to belonging, empathy was largely the most identifiable theme I recognized while analyzing the data. During my conversations, participants often told me stories of how they “just want to help people now, like how can I help;” “sometimes like people need our help;” “I just want to be that person that makes that impact;” “I’m like an advocate for helping people.” Kylee demonstrates her empathetic heart, as she shares:

> I'm always the first one like ‘Oh, what can I do to help you, like what do you need what can I do?’ We didn't have the best growing up, but there's always someone who has it worse. *If I can do something to help somebody else then I feel like my purpose for the day is complete.*

Final Discussion

During the construction of a dynamic and complex theory, I discovered that former GRUB youth experienced an array of opportunities to ease antisocial behaviors and promote prosocial decision-making.

Throughout the complex and comprehensive data collection and analysis, participants shared their truths and reflected on the transitional developmental period that transpired at [program], voicing their concerns and sharing their stories about isolation, shame, pity and apathy. This allowed for a deeper and clearer understanding of the pillars leading up to prosocial decision-making: belonging, worth, grit and ultimately, empathy.

At the ages of 12, 13, and 14, when they began the program, the participants started out as youth who were *isolated, lost, desperate and alone*. Some had rocky home lives, some committed crimes, and some even hated themselves. Yet, as they began to feel welcomed, to work in teams, to nourish plants to harvest, to demonstrate leadership, to travel, to interact with shareholders, to contribute, to conquer challenges, to be recognized for their efforts, to dream and achieve and stand tall, the participants realized that they had a choice, they had a voice, and they had a *chance*. Twelve participants who once saw themselves as powerless individuals have flourished into adults who decide to act on prosocial decisions. These 12 unique individuals are business owners, future doctors, service providers, aspiring authors, role models, managers, supervisors, volunteers, community service organizers, and contributors. They have perspective, they persevere *no matter the circumstance*, and they lead with empathy. Through an overwhelming consensus, 12 individuals molded a theory that explains how a community gardening program nourishes a critical transformation from isolation to empathy, one seed at a time.

Conclusions, Implications, and Recommendations

The results of this study present an empirical foundation for a new approach to understanding the process youth undergo when easing antisocial behaviors and developing prosocial behaviors through participation in a community gardening program. The findings of this study were consistent with existing literature concerning this topic.

The results of previous research found that prosocial behaviors can be achieved through positive youth development. Studies have shown that positive youth development promotes youth assets such as: (1) health benefits—dietary, mental and physical, (2) food security, (3) economic development, (4) youth education, (5) employment and skill development, (6) open space and preservation, (7) crime prevention, (8) leisure and recreation, (9) neighborhood beautification, (10) social capital, (11) cultural preservation and expression, and (12) community organizing and empowerment (Delia & Krasny, 2018).

Implications for Agricultural Educators. As agricultural leadership educators, I would recommend that we continue to explore community gardening programs as gateways for which youth are exposed to opportunities to develop prosocial behaviors. It is important to test the long-term benefits of prosocial decision-making and how these actions can benefit self and society. It is also critical to consider the environmental influences that are harmful in promoting antisocial behaviors among youth in marginalized communities.

With further understanding of the environmental influences, we can better understand and implement development programs with specific approaches in catering to youth more prone to suffering from antisocial decisions.

Community and Non-profit Organizations. Community and non-profit organizations such as the [program] should consider the array of positive impacts community gardening programs can promote within urban and rural neighborhoods. It is also important to consider the assets that communities could develop with citizens that are strong in prosocial tendencies and weak in antisocial actions. Research tells us that community gardening programs can provide assets to communities such as higher employment rates (Allen et al., 2008), decreased poverty (Bumbarger & Greenberg, 2002), social connectedness (Bernat & Resnick, 2006), lower obesity rates (Hirschi, 2015) and resources that promote a healthy lifestyle, such as sources of healthy foods and safe places for recreation (Cubbin et. al., 2008). This study reaffirms that community gardening programs can act as platforms to develop assets at a community level, benefitting individuals and communities alike.

Civic Engagement. In a statement made by [program], staff plead that [city] has a generation whose future looks bleak because they lack the life skills and job skills needed to reach self-sufficiency and food security. It is up to educators, communities, and citizens to ensure our people are armed with the resources to act within prosocial norms. With increased crime rates, higher unemployment rates, and health and wellness issues, I would propose that community gardening programs can serve as a part of the solution to cure these problems. The findings of this study suggest that programs similar to [program] can act as developmental programs to aid in those societal challenges. More compelling research could provide evidence to support community gardening programs as a tool for change in social, health, economic and environmental factors facing our society (Draper & Freedman, 2010). Gardens should be implemented in more communities because they have already been shown to produce multiple positive effects in schools, hospitals, prisons, residential treatment facilities and non-profit organizations (Draper & Freednman, 2010). Researchers need to make strides in performing rigorous, evaluative studies of community gardening programs and how they can aid in health promotion, fostering community connectedness, respect for society and others, creating jobs, increasing food security and agricultural literacy, and creating a society that does not suffer from the negative outcomes of antisocial citizens, but benefits from the actions of prosocially-driven individuals. Furthermore, youth who participate in such programs may be more likely to hold leadership roles in the agricultural realm.

Recommendations for Future Research

This study resulted in a grounded theory that helps us understand the process youth undergo when transitioning from antisocial behaviors to prosocial behaviors through participation in a community gardening program. Because this was the groundwork for a study of this capacity, there exist several recommendations for future research.

This study lays the groundwork for a variety of future research endeavors. It is critical that the Emotional-Behavioral Resilience Theory be implemented to test, refine and continue developing its use in the field of agricultural education and youth development. Research is needed to implement this theory to compare and contrast the behavioral transformations youth undergo while participating in a community gardening program. There are several factors to consider when conducting further studies, including: positive psychological development, participants and population size, program type, program delivery methods,

length of time participants were involved in the program, youth's role in the program (volunteer and/or paid summer intern) and external factors influencing participants' decision-making before, during and after participation in said program. The participants in this study varied greatly in age, ethnicity, gender and their amount of time spent in the program.

Although a majority of the participants spent approximately five years in the program, further research should test the greatest impact of change on youth considering longevity and intensive participation, depending on amount of time and engagement with the program. To explore these effects, I would recommend implementing a longitudinal study, using the EBRT as a backdrop to measure youth's development of the four prosocial constructs. The study would be conducted each year that a youth participates. I would hypothesize that with each year in the program, youth begin to rate higher on the continuum: the first year scoring one or two and last year scoring four or five. Increased knowledge and evidence in these areas would provide more support and understanding of the process youth undergo when transitioning from antisocial behaviors to prosocial behaviors. It is also imperative to understand that each construct in this theory is complex. Future studies could be done to explore and analyze how feelings of isolation, shame, pity and apathy can be depreciated and how belonging, self-worth, grit and empathy can be achieved at an individual and community level. Further research could analyze how youth experience these emotions and how they can be built upon with positive youth development programs like [program].

It would also benefit our field to research who community gardening programs benefit most greatly. In this study, youth entered the program as volunteers or community service requirements. All of the participants in this study were considered at-risk. Current research suggests that youth in low-socioeconomic communities are more prone to developing and exhibiting antisocial behaviors and benefit more strongly from these types of programs (Allen et al., 2008). It would benefit our field to explore and discover what populations of youth benefit from positive youth development programs delivered in the form of community gardening programs.

Another consideration is the type of program and the opportunities for development layered within. The [program] offers a comprehensive set of hands- on, experiential and course-related material in addition to the paid internship, requiring youth to work and manage the 5.5-acre farm. I would be curious to discover if the program would have the same outcomes if one component of the program was removed. It would also be insightful to compare and contrast the [program] with similar community gardening programs and analyze the development youth experience in each program.

Finally, further research needs to be done to determine the long-term benefits of community gardening programs as tools for promoting social, health, economic, and environmental change. This can be achieved through more refined approaches of research designs that rely on a combination of systematic qualitative and quantitative methods. Perhaps a more robust study can be conducted using quantitative mediation/moderation analysis. With further analysis, we can determine how programs of this caliber can not only promote prosocial decision-making, but foster youth who become leaders in their individual lives and societal roles.

Summary

Although the results from this study are not universal, the Theory of Emotional-Behavioral Resilience suggests that through the attention to positive youth development in the form of community gardening programs, they can foster youth assets that lead to prosocial decisions, ultimately resulting in positive outcomes such as volunteerism, steady employment, self-sufficiency, and food security. Previous literature tells us that community gardening programs have the potential to simultaneously promote youth developmental assets, while at the same time alleviating multiple societal ills (Draper & Freedman, 2010). Prosocial development is critical to overall health and wellbeing, not only at an individual level, but at a societal level (Kelley, 2003).

Based on the findings of this study, community gardening programs should be established, valued and sustained as means to establishing prosocial tendencies in youth. Beyond investigating whether garden programs are effective in influencing relevant health and social outcomes, it is critical to continue studying how and why these effects might be achieved (Ozer, 2007).

REFERENCES

Allen, J. O., Alaimo, K., Elam, D. & Perry, E. (2008) Growing vegetables and values: Benefits of neighborhood-based community gardens for youth development and nutrition. *Journal of Hunger & Environmental Nutrition, 3*(4), 418-434 doi: 10.1080/19320230802529169

Ary, D., Jacobs, L. C., & Sorensen, C. (2010). Introduction to research in education (8th ed.). Belmont, CA: Wadsworth Cengage Learning

Baumeister, R. F., & Leary, M. R. (1995). The need to belong: Desire for interpersonal attachments as a fundamental human motivation. *Psychological Bulletin,*117(*3*), 497-529. doi:10.1037/003329091173497

Benson, P. L., Leffert, N., Scales, P. C., & Blyth, D. A. (1998). Beyond the 'village' rhetoric: Creating healthy communities for children and adolescents. *Applied Developmental Science*, 2(*3*), 138-159. doi: 10.1207/s1532480xads02033

Briand, L., Sauvé, N., & Fréchette, L. (2011). The Benefits and Economic Value of Community Recreation: Proposal for an Analytical Framework Based on an Exploratory Study. *Canadian Journal of Nonprofit and Social Economy Research,2*(1). doi:10.22230/cjnser.2011v2n1a54

Bullis, M., Walker, H. M., & Sprague, J. R. (2001). A Promise Unfulfilled: Social Skills Training With At-Risk and Antisocial Children and Youth. *Exceptionality,9*(1-2), 67-90. doi:10.1080/09362835.2001.9666992

Bumbarger, B., & Greenberg, M. T. (2002). Next steps in advancing research on positive youth development. *Prevention & Treatment,* 5(*1*). Article ID 16. doi:10.1037/1522373651516c

Charmaz, K. (2006). *Constructing grounded theory: A practical guide though qualitative research.* Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications.

Corbin, J. M., & Strauss, A. L. (2015). Basics of qualitative research: Techniques and procedures for developing grounded theory. Los Angeles: SAGE.

Crone, E. A., & Dahl, R. E. (2012). Understanding adolescence as a period of social– affective engagement and goal flexibility. *Nature Reviews Neuroscience,13*(9), 636-650. doi:10.1038/nrn3313

Damon, W. (2004). What is positive youth development? *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, 591(*1*), 13-24. doi:10.1177/0002716203260092

Delia, J., & Krasny, M. E. (2018). Cultivating positive youth development, Critical consciousness, and authentic care in urban environmental education. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 8(*2340*). doi:10.3389/fpsyg.2017.02340

Dovidio, J. F., Piliavin, J. A., Schroeder, D. A., & Penner, L. A. (2012). *The social psychology of prosocial behavior*. New York: Psychology Press.

Erlandson, D. A., Harris, E. L., Skipper, B. L., & Allen, S. D. (1993). *Doing naturalistic inquiry: A guide to methods.* Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications.

Freud, A. (1969). Adolescence as a developmental disturbance. In G. Caplan & S. Lebovici (Eds.), *Adolescence* (pp.5-10). New York: Basic Books.

Fulford, S., & Thompson, S. (2013). Youth community gardening programming as community development: The Youth for EcoAction Program in Winnipeg, Canada. *Canadian Journal of Nonprofit and Social Economy Research*,4(*2*). doi:10.22230/cjnser.2013v4n2a145

Hirschi, J. S. (2015). *Ripe for change: Garden-based learning in schools*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard Education Press.

Jennings, L., Parra-Medina, D., Messias, D., & McLoughlin, K. (2006). Toward a critical social theory of youth empowerment. *Journal of Community Practice*, 14, 31-35.

Kadzin, A. E. (2000). Adolescent development, mental disorders, and decision making of delinquent youths. In T. Grisso & R. G. Schwartz (Eds.), *Youth on trial: A developmental perspective on juvenile justice* (pp. 33-65). Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.

Kelley, T.M. (2003). Health realization: A principle-based psychology of positive youth development. *Child & Youth Care Forum*, 32(*1*), 47-72. doi: 10.1023/A:1022257625454

Lam, C. M. (2011). Prosocial involvement as a positive youth development construct: A conceptual review. *The Scientific World Journal,* 2012(*4*) doi: 10.1100/2012/769158

Lerner, R. M. (2004). *Liberty: Thriving and civic engagement among American youth*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Lerner, R. M. (2006). Editor's introduction: Developmental science, developmental systems, and contemporary theories. In W. Damon & R. M. Lerner (Ed.). *Theoretical models of human development. Volume 1 of Handbook of Child Psychology* (6th ed.). Hoboken, NJ: Wiley.

Lincoln, Y. S., & Guba, E. G. (1985). *Naturalistic Inquiry*. Beverly Hills, CA: SAGE Publications.

Nagel, A. G., Guarnera, L. A., & Reppucci, N. D. (2016). Adolescent development, mental disorder, and decision making in delinquent youths. In K. Heilbrun, D. DeMatteo, & N. E. S. Goldstein (Eds.) *APA handbooks in psychology series. APA handbook of psychology and juvenile justice* (pp. 117-138). Washington, DC, US: American Psychological Association. doi: 10.1037/14643006

Ohly, H., Gentry, S., Wigglesworth, R., Bethel, A., Lovell, R., & Garside, R. (2016). Erratum to: A systematic review of the health and well-being impacts of school gardening: Synthesis of quantitative and qualitative evidence. *BMC Public Health*,16(*1*). doi:10.1186/s12889-016-3736-z

Ozer, E. J. (2007). The effects of school gardens on students and schools: Conceptualization and considerations for maximizing healthy development. *Health Education and Behavior*, *34*(6), 846–863. doi: 10.1177/1090198106289002

Roth, J., Brooks-Gunn, J., Murray, L., & Foster, W. (2003). Promoting healthy adolescents: Synthesis of youth development program evaluations. *Journal of Research on Adolescence,8*(4), 423-459. doi:10.1207/s15327795jra0804_2

Saldaña, J. (2013). *The coding manual for qualitative researchers*. Los Angeles: SAGE.

Siu, H., Cheung, C. H. & Leung, C. M. (2006). Prosocial norms as positive youth development construct: conceptual bases and implications for curriculum development. *International Journal of Adolescent Medicine & Health*, 18(*3*), 451 - 457. doi:10.1515/IJAMH2006183451

Trinidad, A.M. (2009). Toward kuleana (responsibility): A case study of a contextually grounded intervention for native Hawaiian youth and young adults. *Aggression and Violent Behavior*. 14*(6)*, 488-498. doi: 10.1016/javb200907008

Urban, J.B., Lewin-Bizan, S., & Lerner, R.M. (2010). The role of intentional self regulation, lower neighborhood ecological assets, and activity involvement in youth developmental outcomes. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, 39(7), 783-800. doi: 10.1007/s10964-0

Developing Cultural Intelligence: A Literature Review

On the Empirically Evidenced Antecedents and Predictors of Cultural Intelligence

Abstract

Global diversity in the 21st Century requires leaders and educators in a variety of fields possess the desire and ability to adapt to diverse cultures. Cultural Intelligence has received considerable interest in the last decade as educational institutions and organizations seek to address this growing need. A plethora of research has focused on the characteristics of CQ and the multiple positive outcomes, but until recently research on antecedents of CQ lagged behind. This paper reviews scholarly literature for theoretically based predictors and educational activities empirically demonstrated to develop CQ. Findings suggest several ideas for both researchers and scholar practitioners in Leadership Education.

Introduction

Increased globalization and workforce diversity in the 21st century require leaders in multiple disciplines possess the flexibility and ability to adapt to diverse cultures (MacNab & Worthley, 2006; Ang & Inkpen, 2008; Chin &Trimble, 2013). Scholars and practitioners agree international business leaders need cross-cultural skills and competence (Van Dyne, Ang, & Koh, 2008; Eisenberg et al., 2013). Research also highlights the need for cultural intelligence training for medical students both at the undergraduate and graduate levels (Crandall, George, Marioni, & Davis, 2003). The globally diverse student population in the United States compels school districts to educate teachers in cultural competence (DeJaeghere & Zhang, 2008). Similarly, colleges and universities in the last two decades have prioritized developing culturally competent citizens and leaders (King & Magolda, 2005; Gurin, Dey, Hurtado, & Gurin, 2002).

The importance of effectively navigating the complexity of diverse cultures (Crowne, 2008), compels educational institutions and organizations to define how best to develop and assess cultural competence in its' students and leaders (Deardorff, 2006). Researchers use multiple terms to refer to an individual or organizational capacity to effectively interact with others from diverse cultural backgrounds and contexts (Fantini, 2009; Deardorff, 2011). Plus, scholars identify at least 30 cultural competence models and 300-plus constructs (Leung, Ang, & Tan, 2014). This paper focuses on cultural intelligence (CQ), originally defined as "a person's capability to adapt effectively to new cultural contexts" (Early & Ang, 2003, p. 59).

CQ received considerable interest in the last 15 years as researchers used this construct to assess and explain individual differences in how people adapt to new cultural settings (Huff, Song, Gresch, 2013). Scholars conceptualized multiple characteristics of CQ, including a person's awareness of and interest in their own culture and the cultures of others; plus, the ability to process and reason and understand cultures, and then respond with culturally appropriate behavior that corresponds to cultural values (Early & Ang,

2003; Ang & Van Dyne, 2008; Ng, Van Dyne, & Ang, 2009). Research connects Cultural Intelligence to multiple positive psychological, behavioral, and performance outcomes (Leung, Ang, and Tan, 2014). More recently, empirical studies demonstrate that CQ predicts cultural judgment, decision-making, and cultural adaptation (Zhang, et al., 2017). Scholars have also demonstrated CQ's relevance to successful leadership in multiple fields (Eisenberg et al., 2012; Lugo, 2007; Ng & Tan, 2013) including a positive association with global Transformational Leadership (Lugo, 2007). Hence, CQ is regarded as an essential component in leadership education and leadership development (Harper, 2018; Kerr, 2016; Eisenberg, 2013).

Despite a plethora of research on the diverse positive outcomes of CQ and on the characteristics of those possessing it, research on the antecedents and predictors of CQ lagged behind (Ng, Van Dyne, & Ang, 2012; Sahin, Gurbiz, Koksal, 2012; Eisenberg et al., 2013). Research shows the benefits for leaders and educators to possess CQ and some theorists and scholars have used CQ and related concepts, (e.g. cultural competence) to craft developmental training models and outcomes (Early & Peterson, 2004; King & Magolda, 2005; Deardorff, 2006). Yet, leaders, educators and organizations need empirically researched ways and activities to predict and develop cultural intelligence (Crowne, 2008). The last decade of exponential interest in CQ and culturally competent leaders suggests an increase in empirical studies focused on specific predictors and educational activities that develop CQ (Chin and Trimble, 2013; Crowne, 2013; Eisenberg et al., 2013; Huff et al., 2013; Kerr, 2016). *Consequently, the purpose of this paper is to explore the literature of the last fifteen years since the conceptualization of CQ, to identify both potential predictors of CQ and theoretically based educational activities empirically demonstrated to aid in the development of CQ.*

Theoretical Framework

Cultural Intelligence Theory

Cultural Intelligence (CQ) was originally defined as "a person's capability to adapt effectively to new cultural contexts" (Early & Ang, 2003, 59). CQ researchers conceptualized CQ as both a process and a measure of specific content, comprised of three distinct facets: Cognitive, Motivational, and Behavioral. The Cognitive element consisted of both knowledge of self and others, but also the process elements of awareness and inductive and analogical reasoning. This initial conceptualization of CQ was expanded to include mindfulness (Davis, 2006). Mindfulness was regarded as the link between knowledge and behavior. As a mental strategy, mindfulness processes both cultural knowledge and self-knowledge and consequently monitors cognitive processing and an individual's responses to others. Scholars also described CQ as an ongoing iterative process of all three facets interacting and developing on a continuum over time like other forms of intelligence (Davis, 2003).

In the last decade, CQ scholars conceptualized CQ as four capabilities: meta-cognitive CQ, i.e. strategic thinking that includes conscious awareness and understanding of cultural contexts; cognitive CQ, i.e. general cultural knowledge; motivational CQ, i.e. intrinsic agency and energy to engage and embrace diverse cultures; and behavioral CQ,

i.e. capability to adopt culturally appropriate actions, words, and non-verbal cues (Ang & Van Dyne, 2008). These four concepts are patterned after the same four concepts in contemporary views of intelligence (Sternberg et al., 2000). Scholars also conceptualized CQ as state-like individual differences that are particular to specific kinds of situations but not culturally specific; as ability, describing how a person functions effectively in culturally diverse settings; and as malleable through education and experiences. Consequently, CQ is distinct from its outcomes and consequences and can be developed by antecedents and predictors (Ang & Van Dyne, 2008; Ng et al., 2009).

A review of the cultural intelligence literature in the last 15 years reveals several theoretically based and empirically demonstrated antecedents, divided into five categories: personality, psychological resources, intrapersonal skills, international exposure and experiences, and experiential education and training.

Literature Review and Findings

Personality And CQ

One of the earliest studies to examine the relationship between aspects of personality and CQ measured the relationship between CQ and the Big Five Personality traits, i.e. conscientiousness, agreeableness, emotional stability, extraversion, and openness (Ang, Van Dyne, Koh, 2006; Mood, 2007). Researchers found support for some significant relationships between the five traits and the four elements of CQ. Openness to experience, i.e. a propensity to creativity, imagination, and adventurous spirit, demonstrated the greatest positive influence on all four CQ characteristics. Other studies (Oolders, Chemyhenko, and Starrk, 2008) discovered all six sub-facets of Openness to Experience (intellectual efficiency, ingenuity, curiosity, aesthetics, tolerance, and depth) had a positive relationship to CQ, with tolerance and curiosity having the greatest influence. Openness to experience and extroversion also strengthened the relationship between international experiences and motivational CQ, moderating the increase in CQ from pre-departure to post-experience (Sahin, Gurbuz, & Koksal, 2012). Finally, agreeableness related to behavioral CQ and conscientiousness related to meta-cognitive CQ. These findings suggest organizations and leaders might benefit from understanding aspects of an individual's personality, especially looking for sub-facets of openness to experience, in order to maximize training and international experiences in the development of person's CQ.

Psychological Resources And CQ

Another antecedent or predictor of Cultural Intelligence is psychological resources. Early on, CQ scholars theorized self-efficacy as valuable to the development of CQ (Early & Ang, 2003). A decade later researchers explored the relationship of self-efficacy, work experience, management experience, and international travel experience to the development of CQ in 370 managers and management students. (MacNab & Worthley (2012) The authors found self-efficacy alone positively related both to CQ and to each of the four subcomponents: metacognitive, cognitive, motivational, and behavioral. This finding is consistent with research on social learning theory, self-efficacy and the development of CQ (Kerr, 2016).

A second study (Dollwet & Reichard, 2014) proposed a construct and measure for Cross-cultural Psychological Capital. Psychological Capital (PsyCap) (Lutherans, Avolio, Avey, & Norman (2007a) consists of the inner positive psychological resources of hope, efficacy, resilience, and optimism. The original PsyCap measure indicated the level of PsyCap associated with a person's knowledge, skills, and abilities at work. Research validated this construct as a context-based psychological state open to development (Lutherans et al., 2007a). Subsequent research in diverse settings, validated a higher-order construct of cross-cultural PsyCap. Research on participants from various US and non-US organizations has a demonstrated a positive predictive relationship between cross-cultural PsyCap and CQ, as well as each of the components of CQ (Dollwet & Reichard (2014). Cross-cultural PsyCap is also positively related to the personality trait openness to experience, a characteristic with a strong relationship to CQ development (Ang et al., 2006). This research shows the value of testing for cross cultural PsyCap in

potential workers and leaders in cross-cultural contexts. Plus, training leaders in cross-culture PsyCap provides them trans-cultural resources that compliment knowledge of a particular culture and other cross-cultural training elements.

A third study (Reichard, Dollwet, & Lous-Potgieter, 2014) tested the impact of intentionally designed cross-cultural PsyCap training on CQ, in 130 diverse leaders from US organizations and 89 administrative and professional staff from the University of Cape Town in South Africa. The Training intervention focused on developing hope (goals and planning), efficacy (mastery), resilience, and optimism in multiple cultural contexts. Results showed individuals experienced PsyCap and CQ gains and a decline in ethnocentrism, plus the PsyCap and CQ gains remained beyond one month. This study reaffirms the state-like nature of these qualities and suggests the applicability of PsyCap training for developing CQ. Additionally, since cross-cultural experiences trigger emotions that activate and even deplete inner resources (Reichard, Serrano, Condren, Wilder, Dollwet, Wang, 2015) this training meets a vital need to replenish and build up positive psychological resources for leaders preparing for cross-cultural experiences.

Intrapersonal Skills And CQ

Research shows CQ results from intrapersonal skills, including meta-cognition and cultural perspective taking (CPT), and other habits associated with a person's learning style (Mor, Morris, Joh (2013). Metacognition, one of the four elements in CQ, involves strategic thinking about the cross-cultural processes and experiences with a blend of cultural knowledge and self-awareness (Ng, Van Dyne & Ang, 2009). Cultural Perspective Taking (CPT) imagines the world in specific contexts from another person's perspective (Mor et al., 2013) and aids building interpersonal connections through empathy (Galinski et al., 2008). Multiple experimental studies in quasi-field settings and controlled experiences in the laboratory with two hundred MBA students confirm that CPT interventions increase behaviors associated with cultural competence and CQ (Mor et al., 2013). These behaviors include intercultural cooperation and adopting both relational goals and cooperative tactics to adapt to, and cooperate with, persons of another culture. These results are consistent with previous research ((Ng, Van Dyne, & Ang, 2009) that suggested reflection in international experiences aids in the development of metacognitive CQ and motivational CQ. Researchers in these studies recommend organizations include teaching CPT habits in their cross-cultural training for leaders.

The value of reflection and meta-cognitive processing surfaces in research that connects learning styles and global cross-cultural service (Li, Mobley, & Kelly, 2014). The research showed divergent learning style, as defined in Kolb's (1984) experiential theory, moderated the relationship between the length of oversees work experience and CQ in 294 international executive managers and graduate business students from China and Ireland. Kolb's experiential learning theory (1984) explains how executives and managers learn from work experience (Li, et al., 2014), and suggests that "grasping the experience" and "transforming the experience" are essential to learning (Li, et al., 2014). Divergent learning style, one of four learning styles in Kolb's (1984) experiential learning theory, prioritizes concrete experiences such as specific overseas work

assignments, and reflective observation. Divergent learners embrace both the experience and the reflection on the experience, because they learn primarily by "grasping the experience" and "transforming the experience" (Li, et al., 2014). Plus divergent learners enjoy diverse cultural interests and excel in viewing concrete experiences from multiple viewpoints (Kolb & Kolb, 2005b). Hence, research shows how a person thinks and processes cross-cultural experiences can increase CQ. These results suggest Leadership education that aims to develop CQ in leaders needs to include training and practice in CPT, meta-cognition skills ("thinking about thinking"), and how to learn through reflection (Early & Peterson, 2004).

International Exposure and Experience And CQ

Research shows international experiences contribute to the development of CQ, though the impact varies depending on the level of exposure (Sahin et al., 2012). These findings align with social learning theory, which argues people learn from other people around them (Tarique & Takeuchi, 2008; Kerr, 2016.). Sahin et al., (2012) found six-month international experiences for military personnel significantly increased their CQ above pre-experience levels. Crowne (2008) studied 140 staff and students from a diverse university in the northeastern United States and found that employment and education abroad related to all aspects of CQ, while vacation abroad only moderately increased motivational CQ. Additionally, for education and employment, the depth of exposure defined as the number of countries visited had an increased positive relationship to cognitive and behavioral CQ. These findings aligned with research that found increased exposure for non-work reasons, defined as the number of countries visited, increased all aspects of CQ for undergraduate business students (Tarique and Takeuchi, 2008).

Besides the number of trips, CQ levels are also impacted by increased interpersonal contact with locals during cross-cultural experiences (Crowne, 2008). University students who ate with locals and lodged in hostels showed greater CQ increases than those who stayed in expatriate camps and had less personal interaction with locals (Crowne, 2008). Similarly, students spending increased time with locals while engaged in a service-learning project in a cross-cultural country had greater CQ increases (Tarique and Takeuchi, 2008). In management education, two experiential learning studies with 743 leaders and managers also demonstrated that the length and intensity of contact impacts CQ development (MacNab (2012). In contrast, one study found more shorter non-work experiences had greater impact on meta-cognitive CQ and motivational CQ than fewer but longer non-work experiences (Tarique & Takeuchi, 2008). Interestingly, the increase was greater for those without previous international experience, a find consistent with research that shows adult international service learning increases CQ, especially among those without previous cross-cultural experience (Steward & Wilson, 2014). Both of these studies suggest initial exposure has greater impact and international experiences have greater impact on those with lower CQ.

A more recent study examined international interpersonal contact as an antecedent for CQ among 938 undergraduate students majoring in hospitality, tourism, and event management at 25 private and public universities (Lee, Crawford, Weber, & Dennison,

2018). The authors found daily self-described intensive contact with people in a cross-cultural context, whether face-to-face or online via social media sites, positively impacted CQ. However, the quality of these interactions, as measured by length and intensiveness, is key, since the frequency of these interactions did not impact CQ. This finding is consistent with research that shows CQ is unrelated to the diversity of a person's social contacts (Shannon and Bagley, 2008). Lee et al., (2018) conclude their study by arguing that the development of CQ occurs through longer, deeper, more meaningful relationships with people of different cultures versus merely having more cross-cultural contacts. This argument is bolstered by multiple studies that show greater CQ increases occur with longer (six-months or more) more intensive international contact, including extensive time with locals (Crowne, 2007, 2008; Shannon & Bagley, 2008; Tarique & Takeuchi, 2008; MacNab, 2012; Sahin, et al., 2012; Eisenberg et al., 2013; Steward & Wilson, 2014). This research provides important guidance for how to use global experiences, whether work, service, or education, in leadership training to develop CQ.

Experiential Education and Training And CQ

The most frequently explored antecedents to CQ are experiential education and cross-cultural training (MacNab, 2012; Leung et al., 2014; Kerr, 2016; Harper, 2018;). Higher levels of CQ were found in students and leaders who were educated abroad versus those employed abroad, and experiential education is positively related to meta-cognitive CQ, motivational CQ and behavioral CQ (Eisenberg, 2013; Crowne, 2008). A more recent study compared CQ increases between students learning cultural competence with traditional classroom-based teaching methodologies versus students learning in classroom-based experiential learning activities versus students in a semester-long enhanced study abroad (Harper, 2018). Student in class-room based experiential learning showed greater CQ increases than students in traditional learning, and students who received an experiential learning class followed by an enhanced study abroad experienced greater increases than students who studied abroad without having first taken the experiential learning class. These results are consistent with theoretical research and empirical studies that show experiential education is an essential component to the development of CQ (Early and Ang, 2003; Leung et al., 2014; MacNab, 2012). Yet, these results also show the strength of combining both experiential classroom learning activities with enhanced study abroad experiences to increase CQ.

Several research studies offer valuable insights on the relationship between experiential education and the increase of CQ. Two longitudinal studies with pre and post-intervention measures, assessed the impact of cross-cultural management courses on students' CQ (Eisenberg, 2013). This research, which replicated previous results (Crowne, 2008), showed education that included extensive international experience (living abroad for 6-months or more) positively impacted all four dimensions of CQ. However, a meaningful multi-cultural experience by itself, without intentional skills training through instructional and experiential methods, produced no increase in CQ. This group of researchers found that skills training and experiential education were keys to maximizing a living abroad cross-cultural experience. Similar to previous research, they found classroom-based skills training had greater impact on meta-cognitive and cognitive

CQ, while experiential learning activities increased motivational and behavioral CQ. Unsurprisingly, classes with both traditional instruction and experiential learning activities had the greatest impact on those students with less cross-cultural experience. Similar findings resulted from a large educational study for military officers (Kerr, 2016). Researchers demonstrated experiential learning with realistic multi-cultural conditions and cross-cultural collaboration, plus long-term (6 months or more) immersion-like experiences with meaningful engagements and skillful facilitation brought the greatest increases in CQ (Kerr, 2016).

Two larger studies show some unique ways experiential education develops CQ. MacNab (2012) demonstrates the impact of experiential education on CQ in a four-year two-phase process with 743 graduate students in executive international management courses in an American University and an Australian University. The education elements, rooted in Kolb's experiential learning theory (Kolb, 1984), combined eight weeks of cultural awareness training with regular two to four-hour cross-cultural activities with one-on-one time with individuals in another culture. Experiences were followed by a teacher-engaged process of reflection, feedback, and peer-group discussion. Both the qualitative reviews and empirical CQ tests over four years revealed the process significantly enhanced all fours aspects of CQ, particularly the metacognitive and behavioral. The combination of experiential learning plus intensive contact with cross-cultural locals plus guided reflection aligns with previously cited CQ research (Crowne, 2008; Shannon & Bagley, 2008; Tarique & Takeuchi, 2008; Sahin, et al., 2012; Eisenberg et al., 2013; Steward & Wilson, 2014; Leung et al., 2014; Eisenberg et al., 2013; Li, Mobley, & Kelly, 2014).

A second large study (Erez, Lisak, Hurush, Glikson, Nouri, Shokef, 2013) measured the growth in CQ in 1221 graduate students from 17 universities in 12 countries representing 66 nationalities, who participated in globally diverse virtual teams. Every year for four years, a different group of graduate students participated in globally diverse virtual teams of four students that engaged in experimental, constructivist, collaborative, learning projects, over a period of four weeks. Students took a CQ pre-test, mid-test, and post-test. Groups showing high levels of trust consistently reported increases in all dimensions of CQ with CQ results stable six months later. Low-level trust groups did not show significant growth in CQ. The unique contribution of this study includes being one of the first studies to show that short-term experiential learning in multi-cultural virtual teams that establish trust, significantly enhances CQ.

Implications and Recommendations

Here is a summary list of some of the key recommendations for developing CQ in leaders, based on a review of the cultural intelligence literature in the last 15 years.

- Educational activities, training, or mentoring relationships that focus on developing hope (goals and planning), efficacy (mastery), resilience, and optimism in multiple cultural contexts can increase Cross-cultural PsyCap, which bring increases in CQ.

- Educational training and practice in meta-cognitive skills (thinking and evaluating learning processes), in Cultural Perspective Taking-CPT (experiential activities designed to see specific cultural contexts from another persons' perspective) and in how to learn through reflection, will all aid increase in CQ.

- The depth and intensiveness of international educational experiences is significant to CQ, rather than just exposure, participation, or frequency (Crowne, 2008; Crawford-Mathis, 2010; MacNab, 2012; Tarique & Takeuchi, 2008; Eisenberg et al., 2013; Kerr, 2016; Lee et al., 2018). This depth and intensiveness, as demonstrated in research, included:
    - 6 months or more
    - significant interpersonal interaction with locals
    - Cross-cultural skills training designed to help leader navigate challenges and lead others in cross-cultural settings
    - Guided activities to reflect and process learning.

- Experiential learning activities bring greater CQ increase than traditional-classroom based activities (Harper, 2018). Education classes that includes awareness training and experiential activities prior to study abroad experiences increases CQ more than study abroad alone (Harper, 2018).

- Education classes that combine: (i) instruction and experiential cross-cultural awareness training, (ii) regular one-on-one cross-cultural engagement, and (iii) guided reflection and evaluation - significantly increase CQ (MacNab, 2013).

- Building Trust is essential if globally diverse viral teams working on cross-cultural projects is going to increase CQ (Erez, et al., 2013).

- A student's or leader's initial cross-cultural educational exposure produces the greatest increase in CQ. (MacNab, 2012; Tarique & Takeuchi, 2008; Eisenberg, 2013).

References

Ang, S., Van Dyne, L., Koh, C., & Ng, K. Y. (2004, August). *The measurement of cultural intelligence*. Paper presented at the 2004 Academy of Management Meetings Symposium on Cultural Intelligence in the 21st Century, New Orleans, LA.

Ang, S., Van Dyne, L., & Koh, C. (2006). Personality Correlates of the Four-Factor Model of Cultural Intelligence. *Group & Organization Management*, 31(1), 100-123. DOI: 10.1177/1059601105275267

Ang, S., Van Dyne, L., Koh, C., Ng, K. Y., Templer, K. J., Tay, C., Chandrasekar, N.A. (2012). Cultural Intelligence: It's Measurement and Effects on Cultural Judgment and Decision Making, Cultural Adaptation, and Task Performance. *Management and Organization Review*, 3(3), 335–371 doi: 10.1111/j.1740-8784.2007.00082.x

Bandura, A. (1977b.). *Social Learning theory*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Bennett, M. J. (2009). Defining, measuring, and facilitating intercultural learning: a conceptual introduction to the Intercultural Education double supplement, *Intercultural Education*, 20(1), 1-13. DOI: 10.1080/14675980903370763

Bruck, F. (2007). The evaluation of cross-cultural training. In T. Schmalzer, G. Apfelthaler, K. Hansen, & R. Singh (Eds.), *Intercultural communication competence*, 22 – 37. Delhi, India: Macmillan.

Chin, J. L., Trimble, J. E. (2013). *Diversity and Leadership*. Los Angeles: Sage Publishing.

Crandall, S. J., George, G., Marioni, G.S., & Davis, S. (2003). Applying Theory to the Design of Cultural Competency Training for Medical Students: A Case Study. *Academic Medicine*, 78, 588-594.

Crowne, K. A. (2008). What leads to Cultural Intelligence? *Business Horizons*, 51, 391-399.

Crowne K. A. (2013). Cultural exposure, emotional intelligence, and cultural intelligence: An exploratory study. *International Journal of Cross-Cultural Management*, 13(1), 5-22.

Deardorff, D. K. (2006). Identification and Assessment of Intercultural Competence as a Student Outcome of Internationalization. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 10(3), 241-266. DOI: 10.1177/1028315306287002.

Deardorff, D. K. (2011). Assessing Intercultural Competence. *New Directions for Institutional Research*, 149, 65-79. DOI: 10.1002/ir.381

DeJaeghere, J.G., & Zhang, Y. (2008). Development of Intercultural Competence among US American Teachers: Professional Development Factors that enhance Competence. *Intercultural Education*, 19(3), 255-268.

Dollwet, M., & Reichard, R. (2014). Assessing Cross-Cultural Skills: Validation of a New Measure of Cross-Cultural Psychological Capital. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 25(12), 1669-1696. Doi:10.1080/09585192.2013.845239

Earley, P. C., & Ang, S. (2003). *Cultural intelligence: Individual interactions across cultures*. Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press.

Earley, P. C. & Peterson, R. S. (2004). The Elusive Cultural Chameleon: Cultural Intelligence as a New Approach to Intercultural Training for the Global Manager. Academy of Management Learning and Education, 3(1), 100 – 115.

Eisenberg, J., Lee, H., Bruck, F., Brenner, B., Claes, M., Mironski, J., & Bell, R. (2013). Can Business Schools make students culturally competent? Effects of cross-cultural management courses on Cultural Intelligence. *Academy of Management Learning & Education*, 12(4), 603-621. http://dx.doi.org/10.5465/amle.2012.0022

Elola, I., & Oskoz, A. (2008). Blogging: Fostering Intercultural Competence Develoment Foreign Language and Study Abroad Contexts. *Foreign Lanuage Annals*, 40(3), 454-477.

Erez, M., Lisak, A., Harush, R., Glikson, E., Nouri, R., Shokef, E. (2013). Going Global: Development Management Sudents' Cultural Inelligence and Global Identity in Culturally Diverse Virtual Teams. Academy of Management Learning & Education, 12(3), 330-355.

Galinsky, A.D., Maddus, W.W., Gilin, D. & White, J.B. (2008). Why it pays to get inside the head of your opponent. *Psychological Science*, 19, 378-384.

Harnisch, A. S. (2014). *Improving cultural intelligence through experiential learning in nontraditional adult students at a private mid-Atlantic university MBA program.* (Doctoral Dissertation). Retrieved from ProQuest Dissertations and Theses Database. (UMI No. 3615876)

Harper, M. J. (2018). *Equipping Culturally Competent Students: The Development of Cultural Intelligence in the Classroom and Beyond* (Doctoral Dissertation). Retrieved from All Dissertations, 2215.

Haygood, A. E. (2016). *The Role of the Short-term Mission Trip Process in the Development of Cultural Intelligence in University Students: A Collective Case Study* (Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation). Liberty University, Lynchburg, VA.

Huff, K. C., Song, P., & Gresch, E.B. (2014). Cultural Intelligence, personality, and Cross-cultural adjustment: A Study of Expatriates in Japan. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 38, 151-157.

Kerr, C. A. (2016). *Cross-Cultural Leadership: Best Practices in Multinational Graduate Education* (Doctoral Dissertation). Retrieved from All Theses and Dissertations, 91.

Keung, E. K. & Rockinson-Szapkiw, A. J. (2013). The relationships between transformational leadership and cultural intelligence: A study of international school leaders. *Journal of Educational Administration*, 51(6), 836-854. http://doi.org/10/1108/JEA-04-2012-0049

Kim, K. Kirkman, B. L. & Chen, G. (2008). Cutural Intelligence and international assignment effectiveness. In S. Ang & L. Van Dyne (Eds.), *Handbook of Cultural Intelligence: Theory, measurement, and applications* (pp. 71-90). New York, NY: Sharpe.

Kim, Y. J. & Van Dyne, L. (2010). *Majority-Minority status and the development of cultural intelligence*. Paper presented at the 25th Annual Conference of the Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychologists, Atlanta, GA.

King, P. M. & Magolda, M. B. (2005). A Developmental Model of Intercultural Maturity. *Journal of College Student Development*, 46(6), 571-592.

Kolb, D. (1984). *Experiential Learning: Experience as the source of learning and development.* New York, NY: Prentice Hall.

Kolb, A.Y., & Kolb, D. A. (2005b). Learning Styles and Learning Spaces: Enhancing Experiential Learning in Higher Education. *Academy of Management Learning & Education*, 4(2), 193-212.

Kuchinke, K. P., Ardichvili, A. A., Lokkesmoe, K. J. (2014). Developing Cross-Cultural Awareness through Foreign Immersion Programs: Implications of University Study Abroad Research for Expatriate Development.

Lee, J.J., Crawford, A., Weber, M. R. & Dennison, D. (2018). Antecedents of Cultural Intelligence among American Hospitality Students: Moderating Effect of Ethnocentrism. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Education*, DOI:10.1080/10963758.2018.1444494.

Leung, K., Ang, S., & Tan, M. L. (2014). Intercultural Competence. *The Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior*, 1, 489-519. DOI: 10.1146/annurev-orgpsych-031413-091229

Lugo, Maria V. (2007). An examination of cultural and emotional intelligences in the development of global transformational leadership skills.

MacNab, B. R. (2012). An Experiential Approach to Cultural Intelligence Education. *Journal of Management Education*, 36(1), 66-94.

MacNab, B.R. & Worthley, R. (2011). An experiential approach to cultural intelligence education. *Journal of Management Education*. Advance Online Publication. DOI: 10.1177/1052562911412587

MacNab, B. R., & Worthley, R. (2010). Individual Characteristics as predictors of cultural intelligence development: The relevance of Self-efficacy. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 36, 62-71. DOI: 10.1016.j.jintrel.2010.12.001

Magolda, M. B. B. (2004). Evolution of a Constructivist Conceptualization of Epistemological Reflection. *Educational Psychologist*, 39(1), 31-42.

Moody, M. C. (2007). *Adaptive Behavior in intercultural environments: The relationship between cultural intelligence factors and Big Five personality traits*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, The George Washington University, Washington, DC.

Moon, T. (2010a). Emotional intelligence correlates of the four-factor model of cultural intelligence. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 25, 876-898. Doi:10.1108/02683941011089134.

Mor, S., Morris, M., & Joh, J. (2012). Identifying and Training Adaptive Cross-Cultural Management Skills: The Crucial Role of Cultural Metacognition. *Academy of Management Learning and Education*, 12(3), 453-475.

Ng, K. Ng, K. Y. Van Dyne, L., & Ang, S. (2012). Cultural intelligence: A review, reflections, and recommendations for future research. In Ryan, A. M., F. T. L. Leong, & F. Oswald (Eds.), *Conducting multinational research projects in organizational psychology* (pp. 29–58). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.

Ng., K. Y., Tan, M. L., & Ang. S. (2011). Cultural capital and cosmopolitan human capital: The effects of global mindset and organizational routines on cultural intelligence and international experiences. In A Burton & J.C. Spender (Eds.), *The Oxford handbook of human capital* (pp. 96-120). Oxford, England: Oxford, University Press. Doi: 10.1093/oxfordhb/9780199532162.003.0004

Ng, K.-Y., Van Dyne, L., & Ang, S. (2009). From experience to experiential learning: Cultural intelligence as a learning capability for global leader development. Academy of Management Learning Sr Education, 8, 511-526. doi:10.5465/AMLE. 2009.47785470

Ng, S.L. & Tan, W. Y. (2013). The Moderating Role of Influence Tactics on Cultural Intelligence and Expatriate Success. Social Sciences & Humanities, 21, 149 – 170.

Oolders, T., Chernysherdco, 0. S., Stark, S. (2008). Cultural intelligence as a mediator of relationships between Openness to Experience and adaptive performance. In S. Ang & L. Van Dyne (Eds.), *Handbook of cultural intelligence: Theory, measurement, and applications* (pp. 145-158). New York, NY: Sharpe.

Reichard, R. J., Dollwet, M., & Louw-Potgieter, J. (2013). Development of Cross-Cultural Psychological Capital and Its Relationship With Cultural Intelligence and Ethnocentrism. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, 21(2), 150-164. Doi:10.11177/1548051813515517.

Reichard, R., Serrano, S., Condren, M., Wilder, N., Dollwet, M., Wang, W. (2015). Engagement in Cultural Trigger Events in the Development of Cultural Competence. *Academy of Management Learning & Education*, 14(4), 461-481. http://dx.doi.org/10.5465/amle.2013.0043

Sahin. F., Gurbuz, S., & Koksal, O. (2014). Cultural Intelligence (CQ) in action: The effects of Personality and International assignment on the Development of CQ. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 39, 152-163. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ijintrel.2013.11.002.

Shannon, L. M. & Begley, T. (2008). Antecedents of the Four-Factor Model of Cultural Intelligence. In S. Ang & L. Van Dyne (Eds.), *Handbook of Cultural Intelligence: Theory, Measurement, and Applications* (pp. 41-55). New York, NY: Sharpe.

Smith, T.A. (2012). *A Study of Ethnic Minority College Students: A Relationship Among the Big Five Personality Traits, Cultural Intelligence, and Psychological Well-Being.* Unpublished Dissertation, Liberty University, Lynchburg, VA.

Sternberg, R.J., Forsythe, G.B., Hedlund, J., Horvath, J.A., Wagner, R.K., Williams, W.M., Snook, S., & Grigorenko, E.L. (2000). *Practical intelligence in everyday life.* New York: Cambridge University Press.

Stewart, A. C., Wilson, C. E., & Miles, A. K. (2014). Developing Ethically and Culturally-Intelligent Leaders Through International Service Experiences. *Journal of Leadership, Accountability, and Ethics*, 11(2), 115-127.

Tarique, I., & Takeuchi, R. (2008). Developing cultural intelligence: The roles of international non-work experiences. In S. Ang & L. Van Dyne (Eds.), *Handbook of cultural intelligence: Theory, measurement, and applications* (pp. 56-70). New York, NY: Sharpe.

Tay, C., Westman, M., & Chia, A. (2008). Antecedents and consequences of cultural intelligence among short-term business travelers. In S. Ang & L. Van Dyne (Eds.), *Handbook of Cultural Intelligence: Theory, measurement, and application* (pp. 56-70). New York, NY: Sharpe.

Thomas, D. C. (2006) Domain and Development of Cultural Intelligence: The Importance of Mindfulness. *Group & Organization Management*, 31(1), 78-99.

Van Dyne, L. Ang, S., Koh, C. (2008). Development and validation of the CQS: the cultural intelligence scale. In S. Ange & L. Van Dyne (Eds.) *Handbook of cultural Intelligence: theory, measurement, and application*, (pp. 16 – 40), New York, NY: Sharpe.

Zhang, Y., Ding, B., Peng, P., * Bush, A. (2017). A Comprehensive Review of Literature on Individual Cultural Intelligences. *Advances in Economics, Business, and Management Research*, 42, 210-216.

INNOVATIVE PRACTICE PAPERS

1. **Innovative Practice Paper: An Innovative Way to Teach the Character Component of Leadership**
   Robert C. Carroll, President, R.C. Carroll Enterprises LLC

2. **Innovative Practice Paper: Challenging Experiences for Leader Development: Reflections on a Leadership Educator's Year as a Community Leader**
   Mark R. Regensburger, Assistant Professor of Management, Methodist University

3. **Innovative Practice Paper: Emerging Fraternity/Sorority Leaders Course**
   Jack Causseaux, Associate Director of Student Activities & Involvement, University of Florida
   Carolynn Komanski, Director of Youth Compliance Services, University of Florida

4. **Innovative Practice Paper: Democrat or Republican? Using Political Stereotypes as a Bias Discussion Exercise**
   Keith Herndon, Professor of Practice, University of Georgia
   Charlotte Norsworthy, Undergraduate Student, University of Georgia
   Ryan Kor-Sins, Graduate Student, University of Utah

5. **Innovative Practice Paper: Netflix, Bitmojis, and Memes: Engaging Interpersonal Skills for Leader Development Through Social Exchange**
   Jason Headrick, Graduate Teaching Assistant, University of Nebraska-Lincoln
   Susan Burton, Associate Professor of Practice, University of Nebraska-Lincoln

6. **Innovative Practice Paper: Creating a State System-Wide Transfer Leadership Course**
   Jill Arensdorf, Provost and Vice President of Academic Affairs/Professor, Leadership Studies, Fort Hays State University
   Brett Whitaker, Assistant Professor, Leadership Studies, Fort Hays State University
   Lauren Edelman, Associate Director, Leadership Institute, Washburn University
   Michael Gleason, Director, Leadership Institute, Washburn University
   Trisha Gott, Assistant Director/Instructor, K-State University Staley School of Leadership Studies
   Marg Yaroslaski, Communication Professor, Independence Community College
   Mary Banwart, Associate Professor, University of Kansas Department of Communication Studies

7. **Innovative Practice Paper: Developing Diversity Consciousness in Leaders: The Proof Is in the Pudding**
   Cammie Weaver, Graduate Teaching Assistant, Oklahoma State University
   William Weeks, Professor, Oklahoma State University
   Penny Pennington Weeks, Professor, Oklahoma State University
   Katherine Bezner, Undergraduate Student, Oklahoma State University

8. **Innovative Practice Paper: Inclusive Community Leadership Development: Creating a Culture of Leadership for All**

Helen Abdali Soosan Fagan, Director of Leadership Engagement, Rural Futures Institute At University of Nebraska; Assistant Professor of Practice, Leadership Engagement, University of Nebraska-Lincoln

Gina Matkin, Ph.D., Associate Professor, Leadership Studies, University of Nebraska-Lincoln

9. **Innovative Practice Paper: Building a Culture of Leadership Through Inter-State Exchange Experience**

Laura L. Greenhaw, Assistant Professor, Mississippi State University

M. Annabelle Stokes, Graduate Assistant, Mississippi University

10. **Innovative Practice Paper: Building a Culture of Leadership Through Inter-State Exchange Experience**

Laura L. Greenhaw, Assistant Professor, Mississippi State University

M. Annabelle Stokes, Graduate Assistant, Mississippi University

11. **Innovative Practice Paper: A Service-Learning Introduction of the Beliefs, Events Values Inventory (BEVI) as a Method of Building a Culture of Leadership**

Colleen Kelly, Ph.D. Student, Purdue University Kris Acheson-Clair, Director of CILMAR, Purdue University

Mark Russell, Professor, Purdue University

12. **Innovative Practice Paper: Leadership and the Good Life**

Zachary Wooten, Instructor, West Chester University of Pennsylvania

Matthew Pierlott, Associate Professor, West Chester University of Pennsylvania

Teaching Leadership Character

By Robert C. Carroll

Abstract

Leadership can be described by two components: competency (what one does) and character (who one is). Most of the leadership scholarship and classroom curricula focus on the former. But the latter is more difficult. This paper approaches the challenge of teaching leadership character in a novel way. Instead of just attempting to inform (cognitive understanding) the students of the elements of character that make a leader great, this approach has as its goal to actually improve the student's character (leader development). A formidable but doable task. Howard T. Prince taught a capstone leadership course at the University of Texas at Austin using my textbook as a workbook. Presented in this paper is an outline of my approach described in that text.

Introduction

The domain of leadership scholarship can be divided into:

i. Leadership Competency (what one does).
   1. e.g. How to counsel or coach a subordinate; how to enhance teamwork in an organization; how a CEO can lead cultural change in a corporation.
   2. Most of the leadership scholarship and classroom curricula focus on competency, which is well covered. It is easy to describe, observe, measure, and arguably teach. At the end of the text or class, a leadership student knows how to do "X".

ii. Leadership Character (who one is).
   1. e.g. Integrity, courage, respect, openness, honesty, teamwork, grit, etc.
   2. These are values or character traits one infers from observing a person over time, interacting with others.
   3. There are a host of excellent approaches to illuminate character using case studies and other techniques. John McCain's "Character is Destiny", JFK's "Profiles in Courage", and Angela Duckworth's "Grit: The Power of Passion and Persistence" head my list of authors on character.
   4. But do any of these approaches make any substantive impact on the characterof the student/reader? I suggest few of them and minimally.

Leadership character is the focus of my paper: How can we really impact a student's character for the better? And in a real, meaningful, and lasting way. To answer that question, I will present a case study of a novel way to teach leadership in general and leadership character in particular.

Review of Related Scholarship

"More has been written and less is known about leadership than any other topic in the behavioral sciences."
Warren Bennis

A cursory survey of great authors reveals that leadership has been around for a long time. The ten commandments are pretty good leadership principles. After Moses, came Confucius, Aristotle, Christ, Muhammad, Machiavelli, Shakespeare, Locke and many others. Even Max Weber, known largely for his concept of "bureaucracy" after studying the organization of the Prussian Army in 1888, also originated the term "charismatic leader".

In general terms the first part of the 20th century was devoted to management theory with Frederick W. Taylor's 1911 *The Principles of Scientific Management*, topping the list. The second half saw an upswing in the leadership arena with the Ohio State Leadership Study of "initiating structure" and "showing consideration." In 1954 two huge additions to the leadership shelf came from people not normally associated with the term leadership. Known as the father of management, Peter Drucker wrote *The Practice of Management* with a large nod to the concept of leadership. And Abraham Maslow's famous hierarchy of needs pyramid added to the insight of what every person really needs, obviously central to the discussion of leadership.

In 1978, James MacGregor Burns, brought his history and political science talent to the field with his Pulitzer Prize winning *Leadership*, introducing the concept that leadership has asingular moral aspect. In 1982 W. Edwards Deming, known for his work during the Total Quality Movement and revered in Japan for his impact there, penned *The Fourteen (Leadership) Obligations of Top Management.* And in 1993, James Garner capped his career of education and government service with a profound work, *On Leadership*.

In 1982 came Peters and Waterman's *In Search of Excellence*, the largest selling text in American history at the time. It heralded a trend of books with case studies at senior levels of leadership. The concept is to showcase one or more senior executives executing some fundamental or novel aspect of leadership. Top sellers in this category are works by Warren Bennis, John Kotter, and other prolific and bestselling authors.

Perhaps not as scientific or scholarly, but self-help books outsold all the rest. It started with the 1936 launch of the very popular *How to Win Friends and Influence People* by Dale Carnegie (14 million copies sold to date). Capping this genre is Seven Covey's 1989 international best seller, *The 7 Habits of Highly Effective People.* It's hard to argue that these self-help books are not leadership texts. Even beyond this category of self-help, any biography of a great leader could be classified as a leadership text. And the list of historical biographies is endless.

In sum, the breadth of books on leadership is immense. It cuts across philosophy, history, sociology, psychology, political science, economics, law, and literature … to a lesser degree, even genetics, psychoanalysis, and neuroscience. A recent Amazon query produced 189,000 leadership texts. A Google search came up with 765 million links to leadership.

To narrow this literature review to the issue of leadership character, a few dozen books recently have brought this subject to the fore. Most well known is David Brooks' 2015 *The Road to Character*. The best researched is from three professors at Canada's Western University in 2016: *Developing Leadership Character*.

And because I am really writing more about leadership development than leadership practice, I draw from a wide range of scholars in the field of character development. I found the best

sources from the Center for Creative Leadership's *Handbook of Leadership Development* and Harvard Business School's *Handbook for Leadership Theory and Practice.* The psychological literature on character development is best gleaned from that last book, in chapters by Bruce Aviolo "Pursuing Authentic Leadership Development" and Robert Kegan/ Lisa Lahey "Adult Development and Organizational Leadership".

I have to give a nod to my old bosses, Larry Senn and John Childress, who conceived and taught me a classroom pedagogy, powerful for enlisting participants in life-changing reflection and in openness to coaching, both essential elements of the course I have developed. Their core text is *The Secret of a Winning Culture*, 1999.

Description of the Practice

This course focuses on the character part of leadership. It is intended to provide students an opportunity and a method to define what kind of leader of character they aspire to be and to embark on a journey to achieve that goal. Notice this approach is to lay out a method for students to define the kind of character they wish to manifest and to be. This is quite different from other authors and teachers who prescribe character traits necessary for successful leadership. This course therefore requires a good bit of reflection. And well worth it.

Here are the four essential elements of this course:

1. The singular focus of this program is on character.
    - Most other programs focus not on character but on leadership competency (what one does). These competencies are skill-based.
    - But fairly recently there have been programs which have moved into the arena of leadership character (who one is). These reflect personal attributes, such as courage or honesty.
    - General Norman Schwarzkopf: "Leadership is both character and competency, and if I had to choose one, I'd choose character."

2. This program does not promote any one value or set of values for students.
    - Too often we typically prevail upon our students to adopt one or more e.g. Angela Duckworth's "Grit". Other books galore.

3. We ask students to figure out what character values are best for themselves.

4. We ask them to get feedback from friends and colleagues on how they are doing in a unique and quantifiable way, then to commit to improve.

Some rabbit holes to avoid:

- It's not about liking someone of good character. The core reason for a leader to become a good character is the fact that a leader with good character earns the trust of people, and trust produces the ability to influence. Ever heard the refrain, "I'd follow that person to

hell”? I bet the followers trusted the person, even if the leader had no idea how to get there.

- Speaking of hell, character shouldn’t be perceived as moralistic or religious. Teaching character must be sectarian for it to fly with most students and in most institutions. “Love your neighbor” doesn’t work. “Respect others” does.

- It is also important to imbue the students with the notion that values differ for the person, the job, the station in life, etc. True “honesty” will most likely apply for all, but putting qualifiers on honesty will make it unique. “Commitment to doing no harm” has a long legacy in the medical profession, whereas “Respect for the law” has a place for policemen and jurists. Take for instance the 20-year-old single person in your class: “Being a good parent” is most likely not the radar. One size does not fit all.

Let’s address this “development” aspect of character. There is a huge body of knowledge on character development in the human development disciplines. Most scholars agree that character is mainly developed in early years, but few will debate that character can be shaped and modified well into a lifetime. I draw from that theory and scholarship. Character development can occur using processes of introspection, reflecting on events, feedback with colleagues and friends, and oral commitment to improve. The challenge is to put this into a one semester course in a university, a workshop, or a corporate classroom. Let’s proceed.

We show the class a wide array of value sets written by very smart people. Example at table below. The idea is for the student to scan a wide range of sets of values, not to pick one set, but to fashion their own -- one that works for them and one they can own. We ask the student to pick and choose. It becomes a homework assignment with the requirement of explaining in class why each value was selected.

Judgment	Integrity
Transcendence	Temperance
Drive	Justice
Collaboration	Accountability
Humanity	Courage
Humility	

We shouldn’t allow our thinking on values to become binary. Courage: Are you either brave or a coward? There is a whole scale between these two ends. The same for integrity, respect, teamwork. Here is an example of a possible scale for honesty.

Scale of Honesty in Communications
10. Painfully honest, unfiltered, holding nothing back, regardless of impact
9. Strong moral courage to bring up salient points, even if difficult
8. Willing to offer a contrary point of view
7. Often supports an unpopular point of view
6. Honest but often does not express it openly, or forcefully
5. Can be totally silent when input could help
4. Sometimes holds back key information in order to sway a decision
3. Abuses statistics or other tools to change the nature of the information
2. Lies, misleads, distorts facts
1. Lies habitually, a crook; should be in jail

The students will discover that a value like courage might have multiple meanings which differ among people. To solve this problem, we introduce the concept of "guiding behaviors" to personalize it for the individual. Example for giving meaning to integrity follows.

Guiding Behaviors for

"Integrity"

1. Shows consistency between words and actions
2. Honors and fulfills all commitments
3. Confronts prejudice and corrects intolerant behavior
4. Has no tolerance for dishonest behavior
5. Role-models the highest standards of behavior
6. Adheres to ethical standards in dealing with all stakeholders

This becomes the next homework assignment. Each student must take the values chosen and detail the desired character with relevance and personal meaning. The required worksheet becomes his or her Desired Character Profile. Best to have it on one page for simplicity.

The next homework assignment is to get multiple quantitative feedback from friends and colleagues.

Then the student collapses the individual forms into one summary sheet. Example follows:

Character Trait	Guiding Behaviors	Rating (1-10)
Integrity	--------	**7.83**
	1. Shows consistency between words and actions	7
	2. Honors and fulfills all commitments	8
	3. *Confronts prejudice and corrects intolerant behavior*	6
	4. Has no tolerance for dishonest behavior	9
	5. Role-models the highest standards of behavior	10
	6. *Adheres to ethical standards in dealing with all stakeholders*	7
Respect	--------	
	1. Does not tolerate others' sexual or racist behavior	9
	Et cetera	

This completes the diagnostic assessment of an individual's desired character, as measured by friends and colleagues. After some small group discussions, each person commits on some aspect of the desired character to work on. A repeat of this feedback system is recommended 6-12 months out (after the course) to measure and gauge individual improvement.

Discussion of Outcomes/Results

We have very complimentary, anecdotal evidence that this approach is insightful, enjoyable and meaningful. No data to substantiate that, but please don't underestimate the following:

> *Each student has picked a handful of values, personalized them with relevant and meaningful descriptors, received quantifiable feedback on each element, and committed to work on certain aspects of character meaningful to no one but that student. What professor of leadership would not be ecstatic with that outcome?*

Here is what Professor Howard Prince said:

> *"I used your book past three semesters and students liked it. They liked it for the same reasons you wrote in your book. They own it because they decide what kind of character they want, and they are much more likely to commit to trying to live it out in their lives and in leadership roles---well done."*

Reflections of the Practitioner

I am exceedingly proud of this program. Having dabbled in this field for over 50 years, by far this is my most useful contribution. It is easily repeatable and will make any teacher a super star.

Recommendation

For leadership teachers at all levels, all schools, all corporate workshops to replicate this teaching model. My book, *Building Your Leadership Legacy, It's All About Character,* can be a very useful workbook to lead your students through this process.

References

Avolio, B.J. "Pursuing Authentic Leadership Development." *Handbook of Leadership Theory and Practice; a Harvard Business School Centennial Colloquium*. Boston: Harvard Business School Press, 2010.

Bennis W.G. *On Becoming a Leader*. New York: Random House Business Books, 1989.

Brooks, D. *The Road to Character*. New York: Random House, 2015.

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

Carroll, R.C. *Building Your Leadership Legacy, It's All About Character.* Sarasota FL: Suncoast Digital Press. 2017.

Carter, L., D. Giber, and M. Goldsmith (editors) Linkage Inc.'s *Best Practices in Organization Development and Change: Culture, Leadership, Retention, Performance, Coaching* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass-Pfieffer, 2001.

Crossan, M., G. Seijts, and J. Gandz. *Developing Leadership Character*. New York: Taylor &Francis, 2016.

Gardner J.W. *On Leadership*. New York: The Free Press, 1993.

Giber, D., L. Carter, and M. Goldsmith (ed). *Best Practices in Organization and Human Resource Development Handbook: Case Studies, Tools, Models, Research*. Lexington MA: Linkage Inc.

Ibarra, H., S. Snook, and L.G. Ramo. "Identity-Based Leader Development". *Handbook of Leadership Theory and Practice, A Harvard Business School Centennial Colloquium.* Boston: Harvard Business School Press, 2010.

Kegan, R. and L. Lahey "Adult Development and Organizational Leadership." *Handbook of Leadership Theory and Practice, A Harvard Business School Centennial Colloquium.* Boston: Harvard Business School Press, 2010.

Kotter, J. *A Force for Change How Leadership Differs from Management.* New York: The Free Press, 1990.

McCauley, C.D. and E. Van Velsor (editors) *The Center for Creative Leadership Handbook of Leadership Development 2d edition*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 2004.

Murphy, M. *Character Education in America's Blue-Ribbon Schools: Best Practices for Meeting the Challenge*. Lancaster: Technomic Publishing Company, 1998.

Nohria, N. and R. Khurana. *Handbook of Leadership Theory and Practice, A Harvard Business School Centennial Colloquium*. Boston: Harvard Business School Press, 2010.

Senn, L. and J. Childress. *The Secret of a Winning Culture*. Los Angeles, CA: Leadership Press, 1999.

Van Velsor, E., R.S. Moxley, and K.A. Bunker. "The Leader Development Process." *The Center for Creative Leadership Handbook of Leadership Development 2d edition.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 2004.

Yukl, G. *Leadership in Organizations 8th Ed*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson/Prentice Hall, 2013.

Appendix

EXTRACTS OF

SYLLABUS

ADVANCED SEMINAR IN ETHICAL LEADERSHIP
The University of Texas at Austin

Spring 2018

Instructor:	**Howard T. Prince II**
Course Number:	**PA 325**
Unique Number:	**60555**
Meeting Time:	**Thursday, 2:00pm-5:00pm**

I. Introduction

The purpose of this course is for you to acquire knowledge about leadership **so you can lead and follow more effectively and ethically.** It will also help you continue the journey of self-discovery, a journey that lasts a lifetime if you choose to lead. **My intent** is that you will learn new ideas about leadership, strengthen important leadership skills, and discover your hidden potential for leadership. I also want you to learn the value of good followership and its importance in the complicated interaction between leaders and followers. You will have many more opportunities to be a follower than a leader, especially early in your life. I believe you will enjoy the follower role much more and be able to contribute much more effectively if you understand the important role that good followers play in any leadership process. You will also learn how to recognize bad leaders and what to do, or not to do, as an exemplary follower. I also want you to acquire greater sensitivity to the ethical dimensions of leadership. Learning to recognize the importance of questions of purpose and to understand leadership as a form of service to others is an important insight and a balance to one's personal ambitions.

II. The Learning Plan

A. Course Learning Outcomes.

This is a course that combines knowledge and application. As we examine theories and the results of research about leadership, we will ask, "How can I use this?" Working and studying in

small groups, we will find practical answers to this question and work to accomplish the following outcomes by the end of the course:

- *Have a clear sense of the purpose of leadership, the ethical dimensions of leadership, and the relationship between leaders and followers in a free society.*
- Be able to use multiple leadership concepts to understand leadership situations and enhance your effectiveness in the leadership process.
- *Understand the impact of individual differences and different situations on the practice of leadership.*
- Understand your current strengths and weaknesses as a leader and as a follower, and develop your own personal approach to the practice of leadership.
- *Enhance your ability to participate in and to lead a small group with an interdependent task.*
- Enhance your ability to think critically, to analyze complex and diverse concepts, and to use your reasoning, judgment and imagination to create new possibilities in leadership situations.
- *Be able to communicate your ideas clearly and persuasively orally and in writing.*

B. <u>Required Books.</u>

The following texts should be purchased and are available at the UT Co-Op East. You may, of course, get the required books from anywhere you choose.

1. Bennis, Warren G. and Thomas, Robert J., *Geeks and Geezers*, Boston, Harvard Business School Press, 2002. (Referred to in assignments as **Bennis**)
2. Kellerman, Barbara, *Bad Leadership*, Boston, Harvard Business School Press, 2004. (Referred to in assignments as **Kellerman**)
3. McCain, John with Salter, Mark, *Character is Destiny*, New York, Random House, 2005. (Referred to in assignments as **McCain**)
4. Carroll, Robert C., *Building Your Leadership Legacy*, New York: Suncoast Digital Press, Sarasota, FL, 2017. (Referred to in assignments as **Carroll**)

G. Class Schedule and Assignments.

Jan 18 Lesson 1 <u>Getting Started, Introductions, Team Formation, Why study leadership?</u>

Read the entire syllabus before class. (Yes, all of it, at least once!)

Purchase the required books.

Log in and peruse Canvas for this course.

Download the **Student Information Form** from Canvas, fill it in on your computer, print and bring it to class and turn it in to the instructor.
Read on Canvas: 1. Perry, J., "How to Be a Better Procrastinator."

2. Feintzig, R., "'Nice' Is a Four-Letter Word at Companies Practicing Radical Candor."

3. Newport, C., "Quit Social Media. Your Career May Depend on It."

4. Rosenblum, D., "Leave Your Laptops at the Door to My Classroom."

5. Warikoo, N., "An Inside Look at Admissions Into an Elite University Confirms Your Worst Fears."

6. Carr, N., "How Smartphones Hijack Our Minds."

7. Smith, E., "You'll Never Be Famous---And That's OK."

Watch on Canvas: Video of The Honorable Chief Justice John Roberts' Commencement Address for the Cardigan Mountain School on June 3, 2017
https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=SJFZcMEzat4 (12:10 mins)

Jan 25 Lesson 2 What is leadership?

Before you do the assigned reading or watch the assigned video, write your current definition of leadership. Do this as individual work without discussion with anyone else. Bring it to class in two copies. This is ungraded but completing it counts toward your participation grade.

Carroll: Foreword, pp. vii-x.

Preface, pp. xi-xv.

Introduction, pp. xv-xix,

Chapter 1, "What is Leadership?," pp. 1-7.

Kellerman: Contents

Introduction, Webs of Significance, pp. xii-xvi

Chapter 1, Claiming the Bad Side, pp. 3-14

Chapter 2, Reasons for Being Bad, pp. 15-27

McCain: Introduction, pp. xi-xviii

Loyalty, pp. 23-31

Selflessness and Contentment, pp. 289-297

Canvas: 1. Hughes, R., Ginnett, R., Curphy, G., *Leadership*, (3rd ed.), Chapter 2, pp. 23-49. "Leadership Involves an Interaction Between The Leader, The Followers, and The Situation."

2. McHugh, P., "A New Semester, a New Approach to Campus Turmoil."

3. Martinez-Brocal, J., "Teresa of Kolkata, From Mother to Saint."

4. Watch Margaret Thatcher video scene from "The Iron Lady,". https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=uZi0vLAhzgQ

Watch "Norma Rae" and take notes on the Video Scene Guide provided for you to download from **Canvas.** I encourage you to watch the assigned video with the other members of your team.

After watching "Norma Rae," prepare two discussion questions and post them on Canvas NLT 7:00 AM on the day of class.

N. B. The following URL takes you to the Internet Movie Data Base which provides basic information about most of the videos you will be assigned during the course such as a list of characters and a brief critic's review: **http://www.imdb.com/**. The information is not, however, framed in leadership terms. Using each video as a case study, we will learn how to tease out lessons about leading, following and ethics during the course.

Feb 1 Lesson 3 The Ethical Dimension of Leadership

Carroll: Chapter 3, "A Totally Different Approach," pp. 21-28.

Chapter 4, "What is Your Leadership Character?," pp. 29-41.

Kellerman: Chapter 3, "Making Meaning of Being Bad," pp. 29-48

Chapter 10, “Evil,” pp. 191-216

McCain: “Honesty,” pp. 3-9

“Dignity,” pp. 32-37

“Righteousness,” pp. 49-54

Canvas: 1. Plante, T., *Do The Right Thing:* Chapters 1 and 2.

2. Wilson, J., “What Is Moral, and How Do We Know It?”

3. Baggini, J., “So Hard To Be Good.”

4. Hakim, C., “Erotic Capital.”

Watch “Schindler’s List” before class. This is a moving and potentially disturbing video about the Holocaust carried out by Nazi Germany. I encourage you to watch it with the other members of your team. After watching the video prepare two discussion questions and post them on Canvas NLT 7:00 AM on the day of class.

Your graded memo on human nature is due in class.

Your ungraded Personal Biographical Sketch is due in class.

Feb 8 Lesson 4<u>Transformational and Social Change Leadership</u>

Kellerman: Chapters 11-12, pp. 219-243

McCain: “Forgiveness,” pp. 168-175

“Fairness,” pp. 185-192

“Courtesy,” pp. 224-231

Canvas: 1**.** Hughes, R., Ginnett, R., Curphy, G., *Leadership*, (3rd ed.), Chapter 11, “Charismatic and Transformational Leadership,” pp. 285-321.

2. Create a Draft or Preliminary "Desired Character Profile" using the posted template

Watch "Gandhi" before class. After watching the video prepare two discussion questions and post them on Canvas NLT 7:00 AM on the day of class. I encourage you to watch the video with the other members of your team. **While you are together you can decide on a team project.**

N. B. Your team must submit its choice of a team project at this class meeting. We will reconcile the choices so that each team is using a different video. Though not a mandate, I encourage at least one team to replicate the Geeks and Geezers study. It may be helpful to exchange information among the teams before class to minimize the potential for conflicts.

N. B. First date for turning in a video reaction paper (choose one of four specified dates, see para G., 3. c., p. 8 above). You may write about "Norma Rae" or "Gandhi." An exemplary paper based on "Schindler's List" has been posted on Canvas for your review to see what A+ work looks like. Therefore, you may not write about "Schindler's List."

Feb 15 Lesson 5 <u>Generational Differences in Leadership</u>

Bennis: Chapter 1, "Leading and Learning for a Lifetime," pp. 1-21

Chapter 2, Geezers, pp. 23-49

Chapter 3, Geeks, pp. 51-85

Chapter 5, The Alchemy of Leadership, pp. 121-155

Canvas: Goodman, A., "The Noble Red Man."

Your memo on an ethical challenge for 2018 is due in class. "The Noble Red Man" gives you an example of how to analyze an ethical issue. Before you write your memo you should read it and pay special attention to how the author uses different ethical theories to weigh different sides of the issue and then makes a moral judgment.

Feb 22 Lesson 6 **ATTEND LEADERSHIP CONFERENCE**

The assignment is to attend the student leadership conference on campus Feb 22-24. You must attend every session and all of the social events as a full-time, active participant. You are getting a scholarship to attend that is worth about $1,000, so make the most of it! **Conference attendance is a course requirement and may not be waived.** There will be a lesson drop to compensate later in the course on a date to be decided by the class as a whole. Check it out, the conference web site is http://scorbin3wixsite.com/utxlc

Mar 1 Lesson 7 Military Leadership

McCain: "Humility," pp. 193-201

"Self-Control," pp. 96-105

"Citizenship," pp. 55-60

Canvas: 1**.** Wickham, J. and Coulson**,** B**., "**The Battle at LZ Colt."

2. Bowden, M. "*Hue 1968*."

3. Prince, H. and Tumlin, G. "Military," *Encyclopedia of Leadership*,

vol. 3, pp. 1000-1010.

4. Kolditz, T., "Why the Military Produces Great Leaders."

5. Hughes, R., Ginnett, R., Curphy, G., *Leadership* (3rd ed.**)**, Chapter 12, "Followers and Followership," pp. 338-344, 347-350. Complete the assessment for yourself as a follower, score using the key, save, print and bring to class.

Watch the following videos before class:

1. "Commitment and Sacrifice" (I will loan a copy to each team.)

2. “Saving Private Ryan,” first 36 minutes only, through chapter 5.

After watching the videos prepare two discussion questions total and post them on Canvas NLT 7:00 AM on the day of class. I encourage you to watch the videos with the other members of your team. As a combat veteran I believe the scenes from “Saving Private Ryan” are the most realistic portrayal of the violence of conventional war that Hollywood has ever made, so I encourage you to watch the videos with your team.

Conference reflection paper due (see para G, 3, e, p. 8 above). An example of a good reflection paper from a previous conference is posted on **Canvas**.

Mar 8 Lesson 8 <u>Developing Yourself and Others for Leadership</u>

Carroll: Chapter 5, “How Do You Improve Your Leadership character?,” pp. 43-53.

Chapter 6, “Helping Your People Become Great Leaders,” pp. 54-65.

Chapter 8, “How to Create a Company of Leaders,” pp.87-101.

McCain: “Excellence,” pp. 277-285

“Diligence,” pp. 61-69

"Curiosity," pp. 255-265

Canvas: 1. Gardner, J., “The Anti-leadership Vaccine,” pp. 193-200, in Rosenbach, W. and Taylor, R., *Contemporary Issues in Leadership*, 3rd. ed., Boulder, CO: Westview Press, 1993.

2. Albergotti, R., “At Facebook, Boss Is a Dirty Word: Young Workers at the Social Network Get to Choose Assignments, Focus on Strengths.”

3. Print, complete and bring the following self-assessments to class:

a. Tolerance of Ambiguity

b. Innovative Attitude Scale

4. Review Strengths-Finder Power Point slides from Leadership Conference

5. Revise, complete and finalize your "Desired Character Profile" using the posted template and the first version you wrote for Lesson 4.

Complete self-assessments at the following web sites, print the results, and bring them to class for discussion:

http://www.personalitytest.net/ipip/ipipneo120.html

http://www.essex.ac.uk/government/documents/integrity-test.pdf

Watch "Dead Poets Society" before class. After watching the video prepare two discussion questions and post them on Canvas NLT 7:00 AM on the day of class.. I encourage you to watch the video with the other members of your team.

N. B. Second date for turning in a video reaction paper. You may write about "Commitment and Sacrifice" and "Saving Private Ryan" (counts as one video) or "Dead Poets Society."

Mar 15 **NO CLASS---SPRING BREAK!**

Mar 22 Lesson 9 Women and Leadership: We Need All The Good Leaders We Can Find!

Kellerman, Chapter 4, "Incompetent," Jill Barad, pp. 54-57
Chapter 7, "Callous," Leona Helmsley, pp. 123-126
McCain: "Authenticity," pp. 16-22
"Courage," pp. 89-95
"Confidence," pp.106-114

"Female Power": http://www.economist.com/displaystory.cfm?story_id=15174418

Canvas: 1. Slaughter, A., "Why Women Still Can't Have It All."

2. Johnson, R. "If You Want Women to Move Up, You Have to Accommodate Mothers."

3. Watch Sheryl Sandberg on TED: "Why There Are So Few Women at The Top." http://www.ted.com/talks/sheryl_sandberg_why_we_have_too_few_women_leaders.html

Watch "Whale Rider" before class. After watching the video prepare two discussion questions and post them on Canvas NLT 7:00 AM on the day of class.. I encourage you to watch the video with the other members of your team.

Self-assessment paper due in class.

Mar 29 Lesson 10 Business Leadership

Kellerman: Chapter 7, "Callous," Al Dunlap, pp. 129-146

Chapter 8, "Corrupt," Andrew Fastow, pp. 151-155

Canvas 1. Tully, S., "In This Corner! The Contender."

2. Wong, M., "Apple Computer Set to Mark 30th Birthday."
3. Watkins, S., "Sherron Watkins' email message to Enron Chairman Kenneth Lay."

Watch "Enron: The Smartest Guys in the Room" before class. After watching the video prepare two discussion questions and post them on Canvas NLT 7:00 AM on the day of class.. I encourage you to watch your assigned video with the other members of your team.

N. B. Third date for turning in a video reaction paper. You may write about "Whale Rider," or "Smartest Guys in the Room."

Apr 5 Lesson 11 <u>Sports Leadership</u>

Kellerman: Chapter 4, "Incompetent," Juan Samaranch, pp. 57-70

McCain: "Cooperation," pp. 79-86

"Enthusiasm," pp.

Canvas: 1. Sokolove, M., "Follow Me."

2. Roden, W., "College Football Playoff May Be a Boon, or Just a Pandora's Box."

3. Tracy M. and Rohan, T., "What Made College Football More Like the Pros? $7.3 Billion, for a Start."

4. Roberts, R., "When Alabama and Ohio State Turned Down Pasadena."

5. Tracy M., "N.F.L. Coaches Now Reach for Next Level: College."

6. Sampson, P., "Hire Learning: How ND got an educational edge."

7. Review: Goodman, A., "The Noble Red Man — An Ethical Dilemma In Sports."

Watch "Miracle" before class. After watching the video prepare two discussion questions and post them on Canvas NLT 7:00 AM on the day of class. I encourage you to watch the video with the other members of your team. It will both shock you and make you feel very good.

Apr 12 Lesson 12 <u>Political Leadership</u>

United States Constitution

Kellerman: Chapter 9, "Insular," Bill Clinton," pp. 174-190

Chapter 6, "Intemperate," Marion Barry, pp. 103-117

Chapter 7, "Callous," Rudy Giuliani, pp. 120-123

Chapter 8, "Corrupt," Buddy Cianci, pp. 148-151

McCain: "Resilience," pp. 115-121

"Tolerance," pp. 160-167

"Hopefulness,' pp. 129-136

Canvas: 1. Miscamble, W., "Obama, Truman and Hiroshima."

2. Sanger, D., "Obama's Visit Raises Ghosts of Hiroshima."

3. Hanson, V., "The Horrors of Hiroshima in Context."

Watch "Truman" (HBO production with Gary Senise as Truman) before class. After watching the video prepare two discussion questions and post them on Canvas NLT 7:00 AM on the day of class. I encourage you to watch your assigned video with the other members of your team.

N. B. Last date for turning in a video reaction paper. You may write about "Miracle," or "Truman."

Each team will schedule 30 minutes with the instructor in class to review the plan for your team presentation next week in lieu of class on April 19.

Apr 19 Lesson 13 **No Class**---Prepare for Team Presentations

Each team schedule 30 minutes with the instructor in class during lesson 12 to review the plan for your team presentation. You do not have to be in class today except for your team meeting with the instructor.

N. B. Individual leadership framework paper due today when you come for your team meeting with the instructor. An exemplar of A+ work for this assignment is posted on Canvas for lesson 13.

Now Get it together.

Start putting your thoughts together for the team presentation and team paper. After the meeting with the instructor set aside time as a team to finalize your plan, rehearse, time and polish your team presentation. Then rehearse it at least one more time.

Apr 26 Lesson 14 Student Team Presentations I

Watch the assigned video (s) for each team presentation. After watching the video (s) prepare two discussion questions and post them on Canvas NLT 7:00 AM on the day of class. I encourage you to watch the assigned video (s) with the other members of your team.

May 3 Lesson 15 Student Team Presentations II and Course Wrap-up

Carroll: Chapter 10, "My Wish for You," pp. 117-120.

Watch the assigned video (s) for each team presentation. After watching the video (s) prepare two discussion questions post them on Canvas NLT 7:00 AM on the day of class. I encourage you to watch the assigned video (s) with the other members of your team.

Write three-five things you learned about leadership this semester that you did not know, understand or believe at the beginning of the semester. Post your list on Canvas by **5:00 PM on Tuesday, May 2.**

The written team leadership video case study or the Geeks and Geezers replication study is due at the beginning of class for all teams.

May 7 Team Member Assessments

The team member leadership assessments are due electronically to our course assistant, Danielle Kahikina, by 12:00 noon on **May 7** and may not be submitted before completion of all team assignments.

N. B. If you don't complete this task on time your class participation grade will be reduced by 50%.

Challenging Experiences for Leader Development:
Reflections on a Leadership Educator's Year as a Community Leader

Mark R. Regensburger, Assistant Professor of Management, Methodist University

Abstract

This innovative practice session will explore the use of challenging experiences to gain deeper insights into leadership practice and to inform our teaching. The exploration will be a narrative of and a reflection on the authentic lived experience of a leadership educator who left the academy to spend a year as the founding President/CEO of a community nonprofit organization.

Introduction

Leadership practice is situated in real-life relationships, contexts, and challenges. Teaching leadership, however, can easily become an academic exercise: we present and discuss theories, have students write papers, and give summative tests to determine what they have learned. Experiential learning is one method to transcend the limitations of the academic classroom, providing our students with opportunities to learn from authentic leadership experiences. We as leadership educators can also use experiential learning as a means of professional development. Increasing our own understanding of leadership practice through challenging experiences can provide us greater insight into student learning experiences, and better equip us to guide our students through their own challenging learning experiences.

This session is based in the narrative of my own challenging experience. I had developed a new leadership skills course with integrated challenging experiences as a learning tool for students. I then had the opportunity to leave teaching and take on my own challenging experience. Reflecting on this journey, I hope to offer a model for practice, both in teaching leadership to students and for leadership educator development.

Review of Related Scholarship

Experiential learning theory is rooted in Lewin's model of action research and Piaget's model of learning and cognitive development (Kolb, 1984), and was fully developed in Kolb's (1973) experiential learning model. Kolb (1973) characterized learning as a four-step cycle: *experience*, *reflection*, *conceptualization*, *experimentation*. Presenting leadership theory and engaging in class discussion equips learners with the language and tools for a basic conceptualization of leadership, but does not alone create conditions for learning leadership. Integrating challenging experiences into leadership education allows learners to move from conceptualization to experimentation, where they apply leadership theory introduced and discussed in class or online, resulting in a concrete experience. These experiences can be memorable, and have influence on learners, but they do not truly produce learning unless the full cycle is completed.

Reflection is essential in bringing the experiential learning model full cycle. Learners must engage in reflective observation of their concrete leadership experience, creating new concepts

that are grounded in their own lived experiences (Kolb, 1984). Reflection may cause discomfort, but this means learners are truly thinking through and processing their experience, and thus truly learning (Jenkins & Andenoro, 2016). Learners who regularly practice this sort of deep reflection develop the ability to engage in reflection-in-action (Schön, 1983), equipping them with a powerful tool for continuous learning and adaptation in changing leadership situations.

Experiential learning and reflection are certainly useful within structured courses. Research at the Center for Creative Leadership (CCL) on workplace learning (Gurvis, McCauley, & Swofford, 2016) points to even greater value when real-world challenging experiences are combined with developmental relationships and structured courses in a ratio of 70:20:10. Many business learning and development practitioners have pursued this approach by supplementing formal courses with follow-up mentoring and workplace assignment challenges, but Jennings (2014) found that integrating these three categories into a single holistic program—'planning for the 100'—was far more effective than starting with courses and building outward. Higher education leadership programs that integrated challenging experiences—'70' experiences—and interactions with industry professionals and policy makers—'20' relationships—provided students with authentic real-world context and connections to external audiences beyond the academy, components that students indicated made learning experiences more engaging and rewarding (Andenoro, Sowcik, & Balser, 2017).

Combining experiential learning and reflection with challenging experiences and formative relationships beyond the classroom make for a robust and rewarding student learning experience. This same combination can be of great value for leadership educator development.

Description of the Practice

Leadership Skills Course

I had developed a course in leadership skills that was open to all students at a regional community college. The course was conceived as a combination of a survey of leadership theory with practical leadership skills development. I based the broad outlines of the course on the five practices of Exemplary Leadership theory (Kouzes & Posner, 2012), placing other leadership theories alongside the related exemplary leadership practice. The course was a 16-week hybrid format, meeting 1 ½ hours a week in the classroom with the remainder online. The course included an experiential learning project based on the 70:20:10 model, incorporating a real-world challenging experience and developmental relationships. An outline of the course showing alignment of these elements is provided in the appendix.

Transition to Challenging Experience

The semester after I developed this course, I was asked to help with the formation of a nonprofit corporation to develop our historic downtown as an arts and entertainment district (the District), complementing the just-begun construction of a new minor league baseball stadium in what had for decades been an economically-challenged area. Over the following months, I agreed to leave higher education and head up this new nonprofit full-time as the founding President and CEO. I

planned to spend at most two or three years getting the organizational systems, processes, board, and volunteers up and running, then return to higher education.

The Challenging Experience

Immediately, I found myself challenged to put everything I had ever taught about leadership into practice in a real-world setting. My third day on the job I spent four hours defending the District's public funding before an open session of City Council. Every day after was intense, seeking consensus among stakeholders with radically different perspectives and interests, empowering and inspiring a newly formed board of directors, and building a broad-based volunteer force to do the work of the District. I soon found myself seen as the face of the District for our community, with growing numbers of citizens coming forward to be a part of the effort due to my personally communicating the vision of our downtown transformed.

Hundreds of people became part of the District's working committees, event teams, and supporters. Our responsibilities included economic development and public art, infrastructure and events, small business support and real estate development. Bringing these many priorities together caused dissention, and upset some established arts supporters. Conflicts between differing visions began to emerge, and there were several crises at both the board and the working volunteer level. Through these challenges, the District came to be broadly inclusive in a community that has no racial ethnic majority and large black, immigrant, and military populations. The diversity of audience at events was evidence on the street that the greater community was overwhelmingly positive in support of the District.

Transition Back to the Academy

Six months into my time as President and CEO, I had a chance encounter with the Dean of the business school at our local liberal arts university. She was the treasurer for the downtown small business association, which was one of the District's allied organizations, and stopped in our office on that business. On the way out the door, she let drop that the university had a tenure-track management faculty position open—one that I had had an eye on for several years.
I struggled with the decision, but decided that I had laid a firm foundation in the first year. I applied for and was ultimately offered the faculty position. I recruited the next class of District board members, and led the full board in a strategic planning session to focus goals for the coming year. I left the District one year, to the day, after assuming leadership of the organization.

Reflections on Practice

My challenging experience as founding President and CEO of the District provided ample experiences for reflection. As I had recently constructed the leadership skills course around the five exemplary leadership practices, these guided me in my challenging experience. I will present my reflections on experience in this framework, with added reflection on the importance of developmental relationships to my own growth.

Model the Way

Right away, from my appearance before City Council during my first week, I became the public face of the District. My personality traits and actions became the visible representation of the District, in the media and in interactions with other organizations. As we built the organization's systems and recruited volunteers to fill them, people began to look to me as a sort of savior; Ihad several conversations with board members that I did not want to be a hero, but they said that people would see me that way whether I wanted or not. Great Man theory, often represented as an outdated model from an aristocratic patriarchal past, nonetheless predicts just this view: of leaders arising in times of need to be heroes. Being a living example of this was uncomfortable for me, but I can see how some could find this exhilarating—and potentially dangerous.

Kouzes and Posner (2012) noted that Model the Way begins with setting the example for others, but that leaders need to go beyond being an example and focus on values, giving people a reason to care and building commitment through clarifying values. I was consciously guided by this, seeking to intentionally define the District values as inclusive and accessible for all citizens of our community. Kouzes and Posner (2012) also cautioned leaders to spend their time and attention wisely. I decided that I would track my time and task focus by keeping a time log of work activities. I began this to ensure that I was setting aside time for self-care, but it became a powerful tool for reflecting on what was important to spend time on versus what was urgent but unimportant.

Inspire a Vision

A majority of leadership theories include the importance of vision to leadership. I was continually asked by people what my vision was for the District. I turned this around, and asked them what their vision was for the District. Kouzes and Posner (2012) found that to inspire a vision, leaders need to listen: to listen to others; to discover what is meaningful for them; and to help them begin to imagine new possibilities. Only by listening deeply to all stakeholders can leaders start to articulate a vision that people will be committed to.

A few of my board members saw vision as a marketing tool, a series of talking points to be repeated and sold to get what we wanted. I resisted this approach, producing several months of sharp conflict within the board. Through this conflict, and in conversations with diverse groups and individuals, I began to hear a broad vision of what people wanted for the District, a vision that was far more inclusive than the packaged message that those few board members wanted. I found that inspiring a vision needs to be a collective undertaking, rooted in people's deep emotional longings. Inspiring vision is not selling, it is creating something authentic. I also discovered that this required me to work on my own emotional intelligence—learning to be self-aware and empathetic, and learning to regulate my own emotions and connect with others.

Challenge the Process

Leaders challenge existing mental models, practices, and processes, seeking new ways of looking at problems and innovative solutions to address these problems. Both Exemplary Leadership and Transformational Leadership include this same concept by different names: challenge the process (Kouzes & Posner, 2012) and intellectual stimulation (Seltzer & Bass, 1990; Avolio, Waldman, & Yammarino, 1991). We faced considerable challenges in the District.

From the 1970s through the end of the 1990s, our historic downtown had been a red-light district with strip clubs and bars, rampant prostitution and drug use, and frequent violent crime. 20 years of community development effort had pushed out the adult entertainment, upgraded streetscapes, and brought successful retail, restaurants, theater, and art galleries to the downtown. Despite the changes, the perception of historic downtown as dangerous and not family-friendly endured throughout the state. Uncovering these outdated mental models and constructing new narratives required a focused effort by our board and volunteers. A number of successful events for children and families led to new stories, captured and communicated through grassroots social media work. Outreach to younger artists, particularly artists of color, overcame the old perceptions that the art scene was for old rich white people. Extending the existing 4th Friday monthly street fair from the summer months to a year-round event helped bring more foot traffic to the District, and introduced a wider group of stakeholders to the transformation.

Mental models and perceptions were not the only challenges we faced. The City government had imposed restrictive ordinances to drive out the old red-light district elements. These were still a barrier to developing an entertainment district, prohibiting open alcohol outdoors and limiting hours of operation. Federal registration as a historic district put approval of any appearance changes in the hands of a small review board. The District's leadership continually challenged City employees who interpreted code in the narrowest possible terms. We focused initially on small wins. The first of these was to take on management of two dumpsters. These were located in City parking lots, each paid for by only a few businesses, but used for illegal dumping by other businesses. We took over the accounts and subcontracted to businesses, with the City building secure enclosures and enforcement addressing illegal dumping. By generating this small win, we gained both City employees' and small business owners' trust, and were able to make progress on changing a few interpretations, including allowing alcohol outdoors for restaurants with public use permits. By the end of my first year, we had a vibrant street scene with outdoor serving areas for brewpubs, wine cafes, and restaurants. We also had encouraged more businesses to challenge the historic preservation board on signage and storefront design.

Enable Others

Leaders accomplish goals through the efforts of other people. I encouraged board members to define the goals and vision for the District. I coached committee and event chairs to try new ideas, to recruit new volunteers, and to empower others in creating new events and new programs. I reached out to other community organizations, small businesses, real estate developers, and local government to build trust and foster collaboration. I discovered that what I had taught about Path Goal theory was essential to our success: only by aligning individual goals with the District's goals was progress possible.

As the year progressed, I also learned that another leadership theory held a warning. Leader-Member Exchange theory's concept of in-group and out-group became a stumbling block for me. My first months, it was easy to turn to those board members and volunteers who willingly took on tasks and achieved results, especially those whose vision for the District was more closely aligned with mine. Over time, I relied more and more on this in-group. Several started showing signs of burnout, especially a young retail businesswoman with gifts for social media. Half-way

through the year, she nearly resigned from the board, and had to step down from chairing a committee. I also encountered more challenges from out-group board members, who held different visions of the District and who, no doubt, felt neglected by my avoiding them. This came to a head over three months in the middle of the year, in a conflict between those who wanted the District to be controlled by a dues-paying membership and those who wanted to serve a much broader and more diverse group of stakeholders. Ultimately, the board voted against paid memberships, but the opposing board members remained a thorn in my side from then on.

Encourage the Heart

Servant leadership's first priority is to ensure that people's highest needs are met, that they are growing and becoming more autonomous (Greenleaf, 1977). Encouraging others requires leaders to expect the best from individuals, to show personal recognition and share credit for achievements (Kouzes & Posner, 2012). This required my intentional effort as a leader.

The initial focus on me as the face of the District helped to raise community awareness of our work, but was not healthy for the organization; we would never succeed as a one-man show. I immediately began to highlight the work of specific board members and volunteers when speaking with the media and with public officials. I took them with me to public events, radio broadcasts, and interviews. One of our event chairs was a young black woman with no prior nonprofit leadership experience. She was responsible for our first major success for families and children, a two-day Clue-game murder mystery game where families searched for clues throughout the District businesses and ultimately 'caught' the one responsible for the 'crime'. I personally recognized her at the event celebration, in my board report, and to the media. This helped her personal growth, but also earned the District considerable credibility in our black community. More people of color began volunteering and broadened the support for our work, and City Council members representing our black community became visibly more supportive.

Encouraging the heart also includes celebrating values and victories (Kouzes & Posner, 2012). This is the only leadership model that explicitly tells leaders to *celebrate*! In some sense, this was natural for the District, as an arts and entertainment district is a place where communities can celebrate. Our 4th Friday monthly street fairs were celebrations of other community organizations, celebrations of diversity, celebrations of the visual and performing arts. Concerts in the park, festivals, 5k's and a marathon were already part of the District. I intentionally made celebration part of the District organization. I began starting committee and board meetings with recognition and celebration of individuals. We started having ribbon cutting celebrations for new businesses, and anniversary celebrations for existing ones. We consciously focused on investing in fun, because people want to be part of an organization that prioritizes caring and celebration.

Developmental Relationships

The bulk of this reflection has focused on my challenging experience, as the '70' of my 70:20:10 journey. The '20' of developmental relationships is equally important to holistic development (Gurvis, McCauley, & Swofford, 2016). I was blessed to have strong developmental relationships with several individual board members, without whom I would not have survived that year. One woman was a native of the community, from an old family, with years of

experience on multiple nonprofit boards. She regularly met with me, offered guidance and perspective, supported me through conflicts and challenges, and nurtured my professional growth. One man had moved frequently because of his work, and had only been in the community a few years, but was deeply involved in both the downtown business association and in community work for the homeless. He chaired our committee on addressing problems associated with homeless in the District. After each of our meetings, he took the personal time to check on my mental, emotional, and spiritual health, provided personal support and encouragement, and helped me keep a healthy perspective. These relationships allowed me to grow throughout the experience, and to come out a better person in the end.

Recommendations

My challenging experience and reflection on that experience have transformed my perspective as a leadership educator. I can speak authentically from the heart about what I am teaching, and my students can feel the difference. I also appreciate the privilege of working in the classroom with students, knowing the real world impact they will have in their future organizations.

Leadership Educator Development

I encourage you as a leadership educator to embrace your own 70:20:10 journey, and to create opportunities for your peers to do so as well. Time spent in formal development is important, but we all need to get off campus in both a physical and a psychological sense. Seek out volunteer leadership roles with community organizations, and build developmental relationships with experienced professionals outside the academy. Take on challenging experiences, reflect on them, and share your reflections with someone you can trust. Your teaching will be better—and so will your life.

Research

Andenoro et al. (2013) recommended several directions for research that may align well with taking on challenging experiences. Narrative research is ideal for capturing challenging experiences, and could be used to explore leadership educators' progression through their own unique 70:20:10 development journeys. These narratives could form the basis for case studies. Case studies might share ways that challenging experiences transformed an educator's classroom practice. Other case studies could focus on the organizations which educators worked with to explore best practices in organizational leadership. All these could provide leadership educators with a variety of perspectives and instructional content for student courses or professional development programs.

References

Andenoro, A. C., Allen, S. J., Haber-Curran, P., Jenkins, D. M., Sowcik, M., Dugan, J. P., & Osteen, L. (2013). *National leadership education research agenda 2013–2018: Providing strategic direction for the field of leadership education*. Retrieved from http://leadershipeducators.org/ResearchAgenda

Andenoro, A.C., Sowcik, M.J., & Balser, T.C. (2017). Addressing complex problems: Using authentic audiences and challenges to develop adaptive leadership and socially responsible agency in leadership learners. *Journal of Leadership Education, 16*(4), 1–19. doi: 10.12806/V16/I4/R1

Avolio, B.J., Waldman, D.A., & Yammarino, F.J. (1991). Leading in the 1990s: Four I's of transformational leadership. *Journal of European Industrial Training, 15*(4), 9–16. doi: 10.1108/03090599110143366

Kolb, D.A. (1973). *On management and the learning process.* Cambridge, MA: M.I.T. Alfred P. Sloan School of Management. Retrieved from http://hdl.handle.net/1721.1/48673

Kolb, D.A. (1984). *Experiential learning: Experience as the source of learning and development*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Kouzes, J.M., & Posner, B. Z. (2012). *The leadership challenge: How to make extraordinary things happen in organizations* (5th Ed). San Francisco, CA: Wiley.

Jenkins, D.M., & Andenoro, A.C. (2016). Developing critical thinking through leadership education. In Barefoot, B.O., & Kinzie, J.L. (Eds.) *New directions for higher education, 2016*(174), 57–67. doi:10.1002/he.20189

Jennings, C. (2014, May). *Effective implementation of the 70:20:10 framework.* Presentation to the Association for Talent Development International Conference and Exposition, Atlanta, GA.

Greenleaf, R.K. (1977). Servant leadership: A journey into the nature of legitimate power and greatness. Mahway, NJ: Paulist Press.

Gurvis, J., McCauley, C., & Swofford, M. (2016). *Putting experience at the center of talent management*. Greensboro, NC: Center for Creative Leadership. Retrieved from www.ccl.org

Schön, D.A. (1983). *The reflective practioner: How professionals think in action.* New York, NY: Basic Books. Retrieved from www.taylorfrancis.com/books/9781315237473

Seltzer, J., & Bass, B.M. (1990). Transformational leadership: Beyond initiation and consideration. *Journal of Management, 16*(3), 693–703. Retrieved from https://journals.sagepub.com/home/jom

Appendix

Leadership Skills Course Outline

Week	*Topic*	*Exemplary Practice*	*Leadership Theories*	*70:20:10 Challenge*
1	Welcome, leaders			
Part I	**Leadership can be learned: starting your journey**			
2	Learning Theory		experiential lrng	Intro 70:20:10
3	Challenge Overview		pathways to participation	Choosing a Challenge
Part II	**About Leadership: a formal foundation**			
4	What is Leadership		overview of theory	Choosing a Challenge
5	Leadership Relationships		informal ldrshp, followership	Choosing a Challenge
6	How Leadership Works		process models, power, influence	Challenge Proposal
Part III	**Who You Are: Trait-Based Models**			
7	Personal Qualities	Model the Way	personality, Great Man, traits models	Reflection: Modeling
8	Authenticity + Emotions	Inspire a Vision	authentic ldrshp, emotional intelligence	Reflection: Inspiring Vision
Part IV	**How You Act: Behavioral Models**			
9	Mission + People	Challenge the Process	Theory X + Y, managerial grid	Reflection: Challenging
10	Situation + Followers	Enable Others	Situational Leadership, Path-Goal, LMX	Reflection: Enabling
Part V	**What You Get Done: Outcome-Based Models**			
11	Transformations	Encourage the Heart	transactional + transformational	Reflection: Encouraging
12	A Heart for Service		servant ldrshp	
Part VI	**Becoming a Leader: planning your personal journey**			
13	Developmental Relationships		coaching + mentoring	
14	Challenging Experiences		reflective practice	
15	Opportunities for Growth			Final Reflection, In-Class Presentation
16	Looking Back, Looking Ahead		review of theory	Continuing Your Challenge

Emerging Fraternity/Sorority Leadership Course

Presenters: Jack Causseaux and Dr. Carolynn Komanski

Abstract

This innovative practice focuses on the development and implementation of a Greek Life Emerging Leaders course at University [State]. Instruction for this course is a collaboration between the Greek life support office and a Student Affairs staff member with a PhD in Leadership Development. This course is designed to be an introspective and developmental experience in leadership. While the context of leadership within fraternity and sorority communities is a focus, a broad, general approach to leadership development is applied to the emerging leader students. Outcomes, reflections, and recommendations of the instructors will be discussed.

Introduction

Fraternities first emerged as a part of the American college institution in 1776 (Torbenson, 2005). Often called Greek-lettered organizations, or Greek communities, fraternities and sororities have grown throughout their history to include a diverse student membership across numerous different organizations (Gillon, Beatty, & Salinas, 2019; Torbenson, 2005). Sororities and fraternities have often associated their membership with values such as scholarship, leadership, and service to the community, however negative behaviors such as hazing, alcohol abuse, and sexual misconduct have also been connected with fraternity and sorority membership (Harris III & Harper, 2014; Long, 2012; McMurtrie, 2015; Reilly, 2017; Routon & Walker, 2016). Given such challenges, fraternities and sororities can benefit from leadership development (Causseaux & Andenoro, 2018).

University [State] supports a robust sorority and fraternity community. The Greek life support office offers three leadership development for-credit courses available to sorority and fraternity students. One such course is the relatively new Emerging Leaders course and is targeted to all interested Greek students that wish to learn more about the Greek community and leadership. This course does exclude fraternity and sorority presidents, who are invited to participate in a separate leadership class. Instruction for this course is a collaboration between the Greek life support office and a Student Affairs staff member with a PhD in Leadership Development. This course is designed to be an introspective and developmental experience in leadership. Through team and community building exercises, students continue to foster relationships with one another, thus furthering a Greek community of trust and consideration. Learning in this class requires students to be active participants in the learning process. Students are required to engage in dialogue surrounding the leadership principles. Students consider personal goals for the course to help direct the learning environment. This course is founded in the principle that learning can and should be intellectually challenging and requires hard work and extensive time.

Review of Related Scholarship

Kouzes and Posner (2016) write that "there's a leadership shortage in the world;" this shortage of leadership is in part due to insufficient training and experiences (p. xv). Universities often have resources, including student affairs professionals, that help develop the leadership skills and capacity of their students; formal leadership programs can result in positive leadership outcomes for students (Dugan & Komives, 2006; Komives, 2016; Lunsford & Brown, 2017). Many leadership development programs offered by universities are focused on students already holding leadership positions and therefore not readily available to the majority of students that do not hold such positions (Council for the Advancement of Standards in Higher Education, 2015).

Fraternity and sorority participation has been shown to develop leadership skills for college students (Hevel, Martin, Goodman, & Pascarella, 2018; Kimbrough, 1995; Martin, Hevel, & Pascarella, 2012). Formalizing the leadership development and education of fraternity and sorority students can be beneficial, particularly if that education includes existing leadership theories and practices that can then be integrated into student knowledge.

Andragogy is the methods or techniques used to teach adults that provides assurance for how individuals learn, retain knowledge and skills necessary to engage in and endorse a new behavior (Giannoukos, Besas, Galiropoulos, & Hioctour, 2015; Marquardt & Waddill, 2004). Key components of andragogy include: emotion, repletion, varied instructional methods, connection with previous knowledge, consideration of attention span limitations, and harnessing intrinsic motivations (Deniozou, 2016; Dirkx, 2001). Adults, by law in the continental United States, are considered to be anyone over the age of 18 years old (Polkinghorne, Roushan, & Atkinson, 2019). The average age of incoming adult college students in the United states who are engaged in Greek life are 18-22 years old (Chang, 2014).

Description of the Practice

This course is designed to be an introspective and developmental experience in leadership. Through this course, it is the desire of the Greek life support office that leadership development be offered and available to any Greek member wishing to learn more about leadership. While the context of leadership within fraternity and sorority communities is a focus, a broad, general approach to leadership development is applied to the emerging leader students. The course curriculum is designed around the following learning objectives and course schedule:

Objectives:

- Critically engage with and evaluate a wide variety of written resources related to leadership (e.g., research articles, current news, books, websites, journals);
- Explore the real-life application (both personal and societal) of newly gained perspectives and knowledge related to leadership development;
- Recognize one's own leadership potential, the leadership potential of others, and the capacity for personal and collective organizational change;
- Think critically and reflect on a personal philosophy of leadership. Be able to identify their strengths and areas of growth as an emerging leader;
- Understand the importance of leadership, specifically the significance of social responsibility in regards to the big four (hazing, sexual violence, cultural competency, alcohol and other drugs)

- Synthesize and integrate leadership into everyday practices
- Be able to make meaning of their own leadership thoughts and actions
- Be able to relate leadership concepts to their current roles in student organizations, communities, and internships, as well as their future career roles
- To provide opportunities for students to engage in discussion concerning leadership within their relationships, their community, and their world.

Course Schedule

Getting Started	**Weeks 1 – 2**	**Topics**
	Week 1	Introduction & Getting to know you
	Week 2	Past, Present, Future
Why are you here?	**Weeks 3 - 4**	
	Week 3	Reflective discussion
	Week 4	Course Impact
Leadership Development	**Weeks 5 - 8**	
	Week 5	Authentic Leadership
	Week 6	Interpersonal Leadership
	Week 7	Adaptive Leadership
	Week 8	Followership
Applications of Leadership	**Weeks 9 - 11**	
	Week 9	Organization & Planning
	Week 10	Group Dynamics
	Week 11	Change Management
Your Legacy & Beyond UF	**Weeks 12 - 13**	
	Week 12	Planning your next steps
	Week 13	Futuring
Thanksgiving Week	**Week 14**	
	Week 14	Forming, Storming, Norming, Performing
Project Planning	**Weeks 15 -16**	
	Week 15	Project development
	Week 16	Presentation of information

Discussion of Outcomes/Results

The course objectives were met through a series of lessons and in-class and out-of-class activities, readings, and writing assignments. Lessons on leadership development included leadership theories and practices such as authentic leadership, interpersonal leadership, adaptive leadership, and followership. The final, culminating project for the students in this course was a group presentation on what an emerging leadership development program should look like for fraternity and sorority members. The entire class worked together as a single group. The students were challenged to develop and recommend a curriculum for a leadership develop program, other than the existing for-credit class, for "emerging leaders." Emerging leaders was defined as those fraternity and sorority students not necessarily holding a formal leadership position. Throughout the semester and using skills and knowledge they gained through the class,

the students worked together to create an emerging leaders development program. On the final day of the class, the students formally presented their program ideas and proposed curriculum to the University's Greek life support office staff.

Reflections of the Practitioner

The Greek Emerging Leaders class was only in its third year at the University [State]. Traditionally the course was taught solely by staff within the Greek life support office. This year, however, instruction and curriculum design of the course was outsourced to a fellow Student Affairs staff member holding a Ph.D. in Leadership Development that also serves as a faculty member within the Leadership Minor at the University [State]. The course was co-instructed by the senior staff member of the Greek life support office. Both colleagues found the collaboration to be a successful venture. The Greek life support staff member offered expertise, content, and knowledge of the Greek community. The Ph.D. faculty/staff member offered formal knowledge of instructional design, leadership theory, and leadership development practices. It is believed that this collaboration added much needed educational value to the class. Both practitioners are excited to share their experiences and lessons learned from co-instructing this emerging leaders class for undergraduate fraternity and sorority students who do not hold leadership positions within their organizations.

Recommendations

The complex adaptive, wicked challenges within the Greek community are well known. Strong and informed student leadership is desperately needed within these communities at college campuses. It is highly recommended that universities offer intentionally designed courses based on theoretical frameworks to formalize leadership development programs for general members of the fraternity and sorority community. Applying andragogical approaches to teaching and learning are critical for effective adult learning. Intentionally focusing on the adult learners through meaning exchange in the verbal, nonverbal, and mediated message should include: motivation, humor, immediacy, clarity, and content relevance (Richmond, Lane, & McCroskey, 2006; Aylor & Opplinger, 2003; Chesebro & McCroskey, 2002). This was positively reflectedin course evaluations by students. Applications of news and media regarding Greek life occur weekly, if not daily. Relevant case material provides immediate opportunity for discussion and reflection. A formal classroom environment allows for summative instruction over many manageable hours throughout the semester/quarter. This also allows for attentive, willing student participants and time to explore Greek community challenges and leadership with depth and breadth.

References

Aylor, B., & Oppliger, P. (2003). Out-of-class communication and student perceptions of instructor humor orientation and socio-communicative style. *Communication Education*, 52(2), 122-134.

Causseaux, J., & Andenoro, A. (2018) Exploring adaptive leadership as a tool for building capacity in sorority and fraternity leaders. *Leadership Innovation and Inclusion in the*

City of Big Shoulders. Presented at Association of Leadership Educators 28th Annual Conference, Chicago, 8-11 July (pp. 725-728).

Council for the Advancement of Standards in Higher Education. (2015). *CAS professional standards for higher education*. Council for the Advancement of Standards in Higher Education.

Chang, C. (2014). Separate but Unequal in College Greek Life. The century foundation. Retrieved from: https://tcf.org/content/commentary/separate-but-unequal-in-college-greek-life/?session=1

Chesebro, J. L., & McCroskey, J. C. (2001). The relationship of teacher clarity and immediacy with student state receiver apprehension, affect and cognitive learning. Communication Education, 50(1), 59-68. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/03634520109379232

Deniozou, T. (2016). Investigating the potential of mobile games as learning environments for independent adult skill development.

Dirkx, J. M. (2001). The power of feelings: Emotion, imagination, and the construction of meaning in adult learning. *New directions for adult and continuing education*, 2001(89), 63-72.

Gillon, K. E., Beatty, C. C., & Salinas, C. (2019). Race and racism in fraternity and sorority life: A historical overview. *New Directions for Student Services*, (165), 9. doi: 10.1002/ss.20289

Giannoukos, G., Besas, G., Galiropoulos, C., & Hioctour, V. (2015). The Andragogy, the Social Change and the Transformative Learning Educational Approaches in Adult Education. Journal of Education and Practice, 6(10), 46-50.

Harris III, F., & Harper, S. R. (2014). Beyond bad behaving brothers: Productive performances of masculinities among college fraternity men. *International Journal of Qualitative Studies in Education*, *27*(6), 703-723. doi: 10.1080/09518398.2014.901577

Hevel, M. S., Martin, G. L., Goodman, K. M., & Pascarella, E. T. (2018). An exploratory study of institutional characteristics, fraternity and sorority membership, and socially responsible leadership. *College Student Affairs Journal*, *36*(2), 155-170.

Kimbrough, W. M. (1995). Self-assessment, participation, and value of leadership skills, activities, and experiences for Black students relative to their membership in historically Black fraternities and sororities. *Journal of Negro Education*, 63-74.

Kouzes, J. M., & Posner, B. Z. (2016). *Learning leadership*. Hoboken, NJ: Wiley

Long, L. D. (2012). Unchallenged, professed core values: Do undergraduate fraternity/sorority members actually benefit in the areas of scholarship, leadership, service, and friendship? *College Student Affairs Journal*, *30*(2), 15-30. doi: EJ1006547

Marquardt, M., & Waddill, D. (2004). The power of learning in action learning: a conceptual analysis of how the five schools of adult learning theories are incorporated within the practice of action learning. Action learning: Research and practice, 1(2), 185-202.

Martin, G. L., Hevel, M. S., & Pascarella, E. T. (2012). Do fraternities and sororities enhance socially responsible leadership? *Journal of Student Affairs Research and Practice*, *49*(3), 267-284.

McMurtrie, B. (2015). Do fraternities have a place on the modern campus? *The Chronicle of Higher Education*, *61*(42). Retrieved from https://www.chronicle.com/article/Do-Fraternities-Have-a-Place/232087

Polkinghorne, M., Roushan, G., & Atkinson, R. (2019). Exploring Andragogy: Understanding the Implications for Teaching in Higher Education.

Reilly, K. (2017). A deadly campus tradition. *Time*, *190*(16/17), 56-61.

Richmond, V. P., Lane, D. R., & McCroskey, J. C. (2006). Teacher immediacy and the teacher-student relationship. *Handbook of instructional communication: Rhetorical and relational perspectives*, 167-193.

Routon, W., & Walker, J. (2016). Going greek: Academics, personal change, and life after college. *Change: The Magazine of Higher Learning*, *48*(1), 60-66. Retrieved from http://eds.b.ebscohost.com/eds/pdfviewer/pdfviewer?vid=1&sid=342b22d8-d4ec-4319-a3ad-6786dead7402%40sessionmgr101

Torbenson, C. L. (2005). The origin and evolution of college fraternities and sororities. In T. L. Brown, G. Parks, & C. M. Phillips (Eds.), *African American fraternities and sororities: The legacy and the vision* (pp. 37-66). Lexington, Ky: The University Press of Kentucky.

Democrat or Republican? Using Political Stereotypes as a Bias Discussion Exercise

Keith L. Herndon, Ph.D.
University of Georgia

Charlotte Norsworthy, B.A.
University of Georgia

Ryan Kor-Sins, M.A.
University of Utah

Abstract

This innovative practice paper explains a classroom leadership exercise that asks students to identify anonymous people as either Democrats or Republicans based only on brief descriptions. Students are challenged to explore the reasons behind the identifications they make, specifically confronting the trigger words that lead them to assign a political affiliation. In doing so, the exercise leads students to recognize preconceived notions that are largely based on general stereotypes. Although the exercise is based in political party identity, it is designed as a springboard into powerful classroom discussions about broader issues of bias and prejudice.

Introduction

The seeds of the exercise explained in this paper were planted by a *Washington Post* article whose headline read, "Democrats are gay, Republicans are rich: Our stereotypes of political parties are amazingly wrong" (Sides, 2016). The article appeared as the 2016 presidential election was escalating, and its premise was intriguing: Democrats and Republicans do not like each other very much, but how they characterize each other has little to do with reality and more to do with long-entrenched stereotypes. According to the article, "When we hear 'Democrat' or 'Republican,' we often think of who that party is. That is, we associate certain racial, religious, and social groups with each party — often the same ones that we have for decades" (Sides, 2016, para. 13). These stereotypes endure across generations, are resistant to change, and often have very little connection with the people that they claim to represent (Sides, 2016).

The newspaper article reported on a survey study by Ahler and Sood (2016) that demonstrated how wrong the perceptions of party attributes can be. For example, the authors found that people surveyed thought that 38 percent of Republicans have annual incomes of more than $250,000 when in reality only about 2 percent of those identifying with the party make that much. As for Democrats, the research showed that people surveyed thought about a third of the party (32 percent) are either lesbian, gay, bisexual, or transsexual, whereas the actual number is about 6 percent (Ahler and Sood, 2016).

While such data points on their own would enliven a leadership education lecture about stereotypes and political bias, an exercise that demonstrates to students the pervasiveness of misconceptions has the potential to stimulate more discussion and, therefore, be a more effective teaching device. Guthrie and Jenkins (2018) noted that "discussion-based pedagogy is the most widely used instructional strategy in leadership education" (p. 176). For such teaching to be effective, however, students should be engaged and empowered through meaningful discussion that emanates from an experiential learning approach (Guthrie & Jenkins, 2018). In this exercise, students are specifically challenged to explore how they identified party affiliations and to consider the trigger words that led to their choices. In doing so, the exercise helps students recognize their own preconceived notions often are based on stereotypes and generalized

assumptions. This realization breaks down barriers and prepares the class for a lively discussion. The following section provides a review of scholarship that informs the pedagogical approach to stereotypes, bias, and prejudice that underpins the exercise and the discussions the exercise is intended to foster.

Review of Related Scholarship

The exercise is designed to spark discussion about bias and to help students recognize when they are labeling someone based on over generalized or limited information. It is important for a leader to self-reflect and understand how implicit judgments can influence one's ability to be a successful leader. Prior literature relevant to the goals of the classroom exercise fall within three primary areas: defining bias and prejudice, political context, and relevance to leadership education.

Defining Bias and Prejudice

The Kirwan Institute for the Study of Race and Ethnicity at The Ohio State University defines implicit bias as "the attitudes or stereotypes that affect our understanding, actions, and decisions in an unconscious manner" (2015, p. 1). These attitudes are learned and can be based on characteristics such as race, age, gender, ethnicity, and appearance (Greenwald & Krieger, 2006; Daft, 2013). Scientific recognition of implicit bias is fairly recent, for researchers in social behavior previously believed all human actors to be guided by conscious intentions to act (Greenwald & Krieger, p. 946). However, researchers now find bias to often be implicit, forming through unconscious mental processes such as social perceptions, impressions, and judgments (Greenwald & Krieger, 2006; Daft, 2013).

Prejudice is a hostile attitude or feeling toward a person solely because he or she belongs to a group to which one has assigned objectionable qualities (Allport, 1954). Prejudice leads to the construct of in-groups (the groups to which we belong) versus out-groups (the groups to which we do not belong). In-groups and out-groups contribute to a competitive and combative mentality, which results in hostile feelings toward groups that are not our own (Allport, 1954). These hostile feelings can result in acting on one's prejudice, leading to discrimination (Daft, 2013). Fiske (2008) noted that prejudice in the 21st century has evolved significantly from the forms of prejudice seen during the Civil Rights Movement and earlier. Prejudice now is less blatant and subtler: "In this blink of an eye, a complex network of stereotypes, emotional prejudices, and behavioral impulses activates. These knee-jerk reactions do not require conscious bigotry, though they are worsened by it" (p. 2).

Political Context

According to a 2017 Pew research study, that year the political division between Democrats and Republicans reached its highest point since 1994, coinciding with the first year of Donald Trump's presidency. The partisan divide between these two major political parties is larger than any other type of group division Pew studied, including religious attendance, education, and race. Along with this polarization comes increased feelings of bias and hostility across party lines, a bias "to a degree that exceeds discrimination based on race" (Iyengar & Westwood, 2015, p. 690). As a result, individuals assign stereotypes to party membership as a cognitive heuristic, or mental shortcut, to personify what they think it means to be a Democrat or

Republican, which contributes to the in-group versus out-group mentality that comes with party identification (Iyengar & Westwood, 2015).

Ahler and Sood (2016) expanded on the nature of stereotypes in a political context. They found that people tend to think about political parties in terms of prototypes, meaning a model member of a given party based on certain characteristics. For example, a wealthy businessman might be identified as part of the Republican Party or an African American woman as a member of the Democratic Party. Individuals typically associate social and occupational groups with party membership to distinguish groups from each other (Rosch & Mervis, 1975). Stereotypes often form from this mental sorting and can be greatly exaggerated, even for one's own political party. Graham, Haidt, and Nosek (2009) found that both liberals and conservatives overestimated the ideological extremity of moral concerns for the in-group (one's own party) and the out-group (the opposite party), such as liberals endorsing compassion and conservatives endorsing tradition.

Ahler and Sood (2016) also explored the consequences of holding misperceptions about the other party. They found that large systematic errors in which people overestimate "the extent to which partisans belong to party-stereotypical groups" lead to greater rates of hostility toward the opposite party (p. 2). This hostility is tethered back to Allport's (1954) theories of prejudice and group membership. Members of in-groups experience stronger negative feelings toward members of out-groups and greater loyalty to their own groups.

Relevance to Leadership Education

Peterson (2014) used the Implicit Association Test to teach students how embedded stereotypes and prejudices affect professional communication, actions, decisions, and emotions. The test measures the test-takers' reaction time when associating race with an affective tag (good versus bad). Peterson asked students to take the test as a method for discussing implicit prejudices toward different races. She addressed the notion that American society continues to grapple with complex racial dynamics, despite supposed visual representations of progress, such as Barack Obama's 2008 presidential election: "Even though America has often touted itself as a nation of immigrants and a nation of acceptance, its citizens still wrestle with issues about difference and bias" (p. 2). Peterson concluded that discussions of prejudice and bias in the classroom provide a unique setting for students to speak candidly about how their biases were formed. Peterson also found that discussing students' test results teaches them to self-reflect: "The instructor can encourage students to examine some of their snap judgments and reflect on the processes through which they drew certain racially-oriented conclusions" (p. 6).

Connecting an understanding of implicit bias and prejudice to the discovery of self is an important first step in the leadership development process (McCormick, 2016; Coleman & Katz, 2018). Fletcher (2012) described the importance of leaders understanding their self-bias and the lens through which they see the world: "Leaders are encouraged to engage more in these self-relating activities as they seek to develop their self-awareness, self-acceptance, and their personal growth" (p. 24). It is only through this self-reflection that future and present leaders can become familiar with their biases and further explore why they might exist. Through this exploration, leaders can better manage conflict and implement systems that account for bias in the work they produce and manage (Davi, 2017).

To reach these results, leaders must be diligent to avoid activating negative biases or stereotypes (Stangor, 2014). Kawakami et al. (2000) found through a leadership bias classroom exercise that students who practiced responding in non-stereotypical ways to members of out-groups became better able to manage their biases and decrease their prejudices. Page-Gould, Mendoza-Denton, and Tropp (2008) found similar results in their classroom study, adding that students showed a greater propensity to reach out across group boundaries once befriending members of out-groups. If leaders can find ways to identify with out-groups, the stark divide between one's in-group and another's out-group can dissolve (Stangor, 2014). Promoting contact between members of diverse groups can move a group of people from "numerical diversity, in which people merely coexist, to relational diversity, in which people from different groups relate to one another as human beings" (Marsh & Mendoza-Denton, 2016, p. 2).

Description of the Practice

Teaching tools do not have to be complicated to be effective, as is the case with this exercise. The class is presented with five simple statements describing real people, and the students are asked to write down whether the people described are Democrats or Republicans. The descriptions are written to purposefully emphasize attributes that research shows are likely to evoke responses based on preconceived stereotypes, such as gender, race, age, religion, financial status, and sexual orientation (Ahler & Sood, 2016). The descriptions include multiple attributes such as age and sexual orientation or race and wealth when such combinations are even more likely to lead to a stereotypical response such as young gays are Democrats or wealthy white men are Republicans. The key to this exercise is its use of descriptions that evoke the stereotype of a particular party but that are actual descriptions of someone in the other party.

This exercise has been used in multiple classes taught by the lead author of this paper, and the descriptions used are updated often to include people recently in the news and newly elected officials. For illustrative purposes, the specific exercise presented in this paper was used in three classes during the spring 2018 semester with a combined total of 74 students. Table 1 shows the five descriptions presented to those students.

Table 1. Exercise Questions

No.	Description	Party Affiliation
1.	Thirty-something white woman; works in D.C. as a policy analyst. Vocal advocate for LGBT issues.	D or R?
2.	A sixty-something black man; born in Detroit; retired from his primary job, but now works in government.	D or R?
3.	Born and raised in rural [State], this 40-something white woman is now married to a lawyer and lives in [County].	D or R?
4.	This twenty-something male graduated from [State University]; vocally identifies as Christian; worked for a couple of years in NYC, but has returned to [State University] for law school	D or R?
5.	This sixty-something white male is an Ivy League-trained lawyer turned businessman; built enormous wealth from early investments in cell phone and tech companies.	D or R?

Discussion of Outcomes and Results

As is typically the case with this exercise, the students in these three example classes overwhelmingly identified the person as belonging to the party evoked by stereotypes rather than the actual party the person represented. Results from the three classes are presented in Table 2.

Table 2. Results of Class Examples

No.	Description	Person	Party Affiliation	Student Responses
1.	Thirty-something white woman; works in D.C. as a policy analyst. Vocal advocate for LGBT issues.	Rachel Hoff, 2016 Republican Convention Platform Committee	Republican	97.3% Democrat
2.	A sixty-something black man; born in Detroit; retired from his primary job, but now works in government.	Dr. Ben Carson, U.S. Secretary of Housing and Urban Development	Republican	55.4% Democrat
3.	Born and raised in rural Georgia, this 40-something white woman is now married to a lawyer and lives in Cobb County.	Stacey Evans, Primary Candidate for Governor of Georgia	Democrat	91.2% Republican
4.	This twenty-something male graduated from University of Georgia; vocally identifies as Christian; worked a couple of years in NYC, but has returned to UGA for law school	Former student of author, worked for Hilary Clinton presidential campaign	Democrat	68.9% Republican
5.	This sixty-something white male is an Ivy league trained lawyer turned businessman; built enormous wealth from early investments in cell phone and tech companies.	Mark Warner, Senator from Virginia	Democrat	74.3% Republican

These results are presented as exercise illustrations drawn from anonymous classroom feedback and are not intended as formal research findings. The Internal Review Board at the University of Georgia allowed the reporting of this material for illustrative purposes, acknowledging that the anonymous student responses to the exercise were part of classroom instructional activities and should not be considered as human subjects research. To further ensure student anonymity, the

responses are shown in aggregate. However, the breakdown of responses by classes was statistically similar to the aggregate percentages. During the classroom discussions following the exercises, students indicated that their responses were based on strong associations with certain words or phrases. In regard to Description 1, for which 97.3 percent of the students incorrectly identified the party affiliation, students in the class discussions overwhelming said that they focused on the phrase "vocal advocate for LGBT issues" as the reason for their responses. In reacting to the results for Description 3, for which 91.2 percent of the responses were incorrect, students said that they were reacting to the person's rural upbringing as well as the affluent location where she currently resides. Description 2 had the most divided responses, with many saying during the discussions that they had assigned Democratic status based on race, while those selecting Republican said the person's age swayed their assignment. In Description 4, highlighting the man's Christian faith swayed many of the students to identify him as a Republican. With Description 5, students who identified him as a Republican said they were reacting to his wealth, while many of those who identified him as a Democrat said they drew their conclusion from his association with an Ivy League education.

Reflections of the Practitioner

The power of this relatively simple exercise is that it illustrates for the students that how they categorize someone is often based on very little information about the person. They see how they have allowed common stereotypes to guide their thinking, and it opens their minds to a robust discussion on the concepts of bias, stereotypes, and prejudice. Bissell and Parrott (2013) wrote,

> Bias and prejudice may inform discrimination, which occurs when an individual is treated differently based on group membership. It is also a component of stigmatization, an overall process in which a person is labeled (or socially categorized), stereotyped, and discriminated against within a power environment. Bias and prejudice may lead to discrimination, but sometimes that belief is not something an individual is even aware of as attitudes may be implicit or explicit in nature. (p. 222)

Therefore, any exercise that helps leadership educators teach their students to understand and recognize stereotyping and its potential ramifications can be an important tool.

Recommendations

The simplicity of the exercise makes it easily replicable and effective in different types of leadership courses. Instructors should make it their own by creating and including descriptions of local people familiar to their students. To make the descriptions as effective as possible and to prepare for the ensuing discussion, educators should understand the research that provides the pedagogical foundation for the exercise and be prepared to include relevant literature as part of the discussion. Instructors should lead the discussion by asking students to specifically identify the trigger words that led them to the party affiliation they assigned, but this should be done in a non-judgmental manner. Guthrie and Jenkins (2018) wrote that "creating spaces for students to experiment, reflect, and converse about turbulent issues, social justice, and identities is essential for leadership educators" (p. 186). They noted that "leadership educators must thoroughly

consider and prepare before implementing discussion activities" (p. 187). The recommendations for using this exercise as a discussion starter are based on these guiding principles.

References

Ahler, D. J., & Sood, G. (2016). *The parties in our heads: Misperceptions about party composition and their consequences.* Retrieved from http://www.dougahler.com/uploads/2/4/6/9/24697799/ahlersood_partycomposition.pdf

Allport, G. (1954). *The nature of prejudice*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Bissell, K., & Parrott, S. (2013). Prejudice: The role of the media in the development of social bias. *Journalism & Communication Monographs, 15*(4), 219-270.

Coleman, B., & Katz, J. S. (2018). What leadership is not: Understanding effective influence. *Law Enforcement Bulletin.* Retrieved from https://leb.fbi.gov/articles/perspective/perspective-what-leadership-is-not-understanding-effective-influence

Daft, R. L. (2013). *The leadership experience.* Stamford, CT: Cengage Learning.

Davi, W. (2017, February 23). Why great leaders must acknowledge implicit bias. *Bentley University.* Retrieved from https://www.bentley.edu/prepared/why-great-leaders-must-acknowledge-implicit-bias

Fiske, S. T. (2008). Look twice. *Greater Good Magazine.* Retrieved from https://greatergood.berkeley.edu/article/item/look_twice

Fletcher, M. A. (2012). *Leadership becomes you.* Bloomington, IN: AuthorHouse.

Graham, J., Haidt, J., & Nosek, B. A. (2009). Liberals and conservatives rely on different sets of moral foundations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 29*(5), 1029-1046.

Greenwald, A. G., & Krieger, L. H. (2006). Implicit bias: Scientific foundations. *California Law Review, 94*(4), 945-967.

Guthrie, K. L., & Jenkins, D. M. (2018). *The role of leadership educators: Transforming learning*. Charlotte, NC: IAP.

Iyengar, S., & Westwood, S. J., (2015). Fear and loathing across party lines: New evidence on group polarization. *American Journal of Political Science, 59*(3), 690-707.

Kawakami, K., Dovidio, J. F., Moll, J., Hermsen, S., & Russin, A. (2000). Just say no (to stereotyping): Effects of training in the negation of stereotypic associations on stereotype activation. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 78*(5), 871-888.

Jhangiani, R. & Tarry, H. (2014). Stereotypes, Prejudice, and Discrimination. In Stangor, C. (Ed.), *Principles of Social Psychology.* British Columbia, Canada: BCCampus.

Kirwan Institute for the Study of Ethnicity and Race, Ohio State University. (2015). Understanding implicit bias. Retrieved from http://kirwaninstitute.osu.edu/research/understanding-implicit-bias/

Marsh, J., & Mendoza-Denton, R. (2016). What leaders must do to battle bigotry. *Greater Good Magazine.* Retrieved from https://greatergood.berkeley.edu/article/item/what_leaders_must_do_to_battle_bigotry

McCormick, H. (2016). The real effects of unconscious bias in the workplace. *University of North Carolina Executive Development.* Retrieved from https://www.kenan-flagler.unc.edu/~/media/Files/documents/executive-development/unc-white-paper-the-real-effects-of-unconscious-bias-in-the-workplace-Final

Page-Gould, E., Mendoza-Denton, R., & Tropp, L. R. (2008). With a little help from my cross-group friend: Reducing anxiety in intergroup contexts through cross-group friendship. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 95*(5), 1080-1094.

Peterson, S. A. (2014). Facing our racial biases via the Implicit Association Test. *Discourse: The Journal of the SCASD, 1*(10), 62-68.

Pew Research Center. (2017, October 5). The partisan divide on political values grows even wider. Retrieved from http://www.people-press.org/2017/10/05/the-partisan-divide-on-political-values-grows-even-wider/

Rosch, E., & Mervis, C. B. (1975). Family resemblances: Studies in the internal structure of categories. *Cognitive Psychology, 7*(4), 573-605.

Sides, J. (2016, May 23). Democrats are gay, republicans are rich: Our stereotypes of political parties are amazingly wrong. *The Washington Post*. Retrieved from https://www.washingtonpost.com/news/monkey-cage/wp/2016/05/23/democrats-are-gay-republicans-are-rich-our-stereotypes-of-political-parties-are-amazingly-wrong/?utm_term=.c957357198e0

Netflix, Bitmojis, and Memes: Engaging interpersonal skills for leader development through social exchange

Jason Headrick, University of Nebraska- Lincoln
Susan Burton, University of Nebraska-Lincoln

Abstract

This innovative practice paper illustrates how public and pop culture pedagogy can be used by leadership educators to merge content centered on social media presence and leader identity development. The paper provides an activity using a popular Netflix show, *Black Mirror*, in which students critically consider their presence and interaction online and use an understanding of interpersonal skills to develop a positive leader identity.

Introduction

Leadership educators have the responsibility to encourage critical thinking and provide avenues for students to engage in the application of leadership ideas (Stedman, 2009) and interpersonal skills practice (Burbach, Matkin, & Frist, 2004).

Instructional methods for leadership educators must be relevant and applicable within many different contexts; including the online forum. While leadership students may connect how various theories and leadership relate to the organizational context, the interpersonal skills practiced and developed must also be translated to the online presence. Today's college students manage many social media accounts-namely Facebook, Snapchat, Twitter, and Instagram (Alhabash & Ma, 2017). Student identity is often defined in social spaces without the individuals being aware of the consequences of their activity and how that transfers into daily interactions with others. This activity helps students understand the culture within a social exchange environment and explore the potential for developing a leader identity through responsible social media usage.

The growth of social media has given students many avenues to express themselves (Alhabash & Ma, 2017). The increase of smartphone devices and social media for entertainment and escapism purposed adds a layer of stress and increased problematic motivation centered around usage (Wang, Wang, Gaskin, & Wang, 2015).

This innovative practice draws from the expansive traditions of public pedagogy, social identity theory, and theories of social exchange and influence. *Black Mirror*, a Netflix series, focuses on the realities of emerging technologies and the intersection with the human experience (Sculos, 2017). In particular, the "world" presented through the *Nosedive* episode demonstrates social network exchanges and influential dyadic relationships connected through technology. Specifically, for leadership educators, it provides the opportunity to guide students to examine the rules and values within the culture of a social network while considering intentional ways to use interpersonal skills as leader behavior practice and in the formation of their leader identities.

Review of Related Scholarship

An essential consideration of leadership education is to help students develop the tasks, skills, and mechanisms that support the relationship outcomes desired by leaders in accomplishing shared goals (Komives, Owen, Longerbeam, Mainella, & Osteen, 2005). Interpersonal skills drive the process of achieving shared goals within social exchange relationships (Day, Harrison, & Halpin, 2012) while revealing existing cultural, interpersonal, and social network structures. These structures use "symbols of approval and prestige" that reinforce who are the leaders and who has power (Dijkstra, 2015; Homans, 1958). Leaders working skillfully with others to share purpose, intention, and goals in the framework of "exchange relationships" is critical for leader identity development (Yeager & Callahan, 2016), and for influencing the culture within public social forums.

Because the culture of the social dynamic in the exchange relationship shapes the leader *and* is shaped by the leader, it is important to help students understand the tasks, skills, and mechanisms for leadership identity development (Day, Harrison, & Halpin, 2012; Komives, Owen, Longerbeam, Mainella, & Osteen, 2005). Additionally, as the influence and impact of interpersonal skills are demonstrated within the characteristics of a social network and between networks, a leader can intentionally work to develop a personal leader identity and shape the culture of the social exchange more broadly and into different domains introduced by technology.

Educators have a large influence on the development of soft skills in college-age students and how they incorporate their application of these intrapersonal skills into their daily lives (Schulz, 2008). For instructors, educating others in regard to leadership and interpersonal skills can present challenges (Alio, 2005; DeRue, Sitkiin, & Podolny, 2001; Bordone, 2000), including appropriate teaching methods. Leadership students exploring interpersonal skills for the purpose of improving leadership behavior have a great opportunity for personal discovery within the intersection of public pedagogy and social exchange theory. Leadership educators use an active and experiential approach to guiding students across the continuum of learning (Eich, 2008; Guthrie & Bertrand Jones, 2012; Guthrie & Jenkins, 2018).

Public pedagogy of popular culture has many applications and philosophical approaches but essentially exists when educators utilize critical discussions about how culture works (Sandlin, O'Malley, & Burdick, 2011). Historically, public pedagogy has used "outside the classroom" experiences to bring particular values or ideologies into the discussion so that the classroom becomes a site of critical intervention (Sandlin, O'Malley, & Burdick, 2011). Exploring the elements of popular films, television, music, and games provides insight into existing power structures and trending perceptions of youth, culture, and societal considerations that can lend guides to learning (Vesterback, 2013). Understanding elements of popular culture provides insight into what students may find meaningful. It is through context-driven critical approaches that leadership educators can empower learners to engage in meaningful social exchange (Maudlin, J. & Sandlin, S. 2015).

The use of technology in classrooms promotes active learning (Holmes, Tracy, Painter, Oestreich, & Park, 2015) and creates a student-centered environment (Sandholtz, 1997). The nature of leadership classrooms is to engage the student through teaching methods that foster cognition (Bolkan & Goodboy, 2009) and promote the synthesis of theory and application. Incorporating emerging technologies and delivery methods can have positive benefits for students and classroom structure (Ashman & Conway, 2017). Previous work in online arenas has shown their influence on online participation, user experiences, and their role in socializing learners to be digital citizens (Luke, 2005).

Description of the Practice

Students participating in an *Introduction to Leadership* course at a large Midwestern University are challenged to learn about interpersonal skills within the classroom and to practice the skills in a service learning experience while developing a personal leadership philosophy.

One unit in the course has students examine digital footprints while exploring how interpersonal skills and leadership identity can translate into online communication; including social media and email communication. Along with selected articles and reading, the episode, *Nosedive*, of the Netflix series *Black Mirror* facilitates the lesson. *Nosedive* reveals its main character striving to be influential as she navigates the cultural exchanges of her society in order to use a ratings system to achieve external validation. She works hard interacting with others in order to receive “likes” on social media and to gain more specialized access to goods and services. This episode amplifies the relationship between people and illustrates the impact that interpersonal skills and social behavior has on the exchange of “likes”. This provides a revealing glimpse into the elements that drive social interactions and ways that the system work. This use of popular culture in the classroom increases student motivation and aids in the stimulation of content (Tierney, 2007; Dougherty, 2002). The objectives that frame this lesson are:

Five objectives guide the course lesson:

1. To observe and critique how the character’s behavior illuminates the values of the social culture and demonstrates her role of self-disclosure (Hanna, 1995) and use of interpersonal skills.
2. To identify specific scenes and behavioral interactions while watching the episode that relates to course content (values, power and influence, and others) specifically, but also could be altered or redirected through the use of interpersonal skills and a lens of leadership.
3. To reflect on one’s own use of social media, technology, and apps, in the creation of an online presence and pursuit of external validation.
4. To consider the similarities between the society portrayed in Nosedive and one’s own experience with social media.
5. Identify ways to utilize interpersonal skills through the social media/online presence and exchange behaviors in ways that pair with your understanding of your own leadership identity.

While the execution has derived from trial and error approach by both instructors, the essential elements of the core lesson plan remain the same for both instructors.

One class meeting day is designated for this lesson. Components of the lesson include: viewing the episode outside of instructional time with guided note-taking and class discussion over the episode framed by supplemental readings, course content, and personal student experiences. In addition, students create an infographic offering successful strategies for social media usage and its connection to their own leadership identity.

Viewing the Episode: Students view *Nosedive* outside of the classroom as a homework assignment. Students have watched it individually and held viewing parties, building classroom cohesion. Students must have access to Netflix streaming services in order to watch the episode. In leading up to the assignment, a hand poll is taken regarding student access to Netflix and all students have affirmed access for the past three years. The episode was released in 2016 and features Bryce Dallas Howard as the main character, Lac, and Alice Eve, as her childhood best friend, Naomi.

When students are given the assignment, they are provided with a note-taking guide to follow along with during the show [Appendix A]. They are instructed to pay special attention to Lacy and her interactions with others, her navigation through the portrayed culture, and to make notes related to scenes and characters they resonated with or saw an example of interpersonal skills used. The following instructions and synopsis, howbeit lighthearted, are provided:

> Let's face it. We live in a digital age. You have probably checked your phone for texts or posts on social media in the last ten minutes. Like it or not, we are reliant on technology for a large part of our lives. How we function in this digital age impacts us beyond the screen, including in our own understanding of who we are as a leader. Social media behavior can have an impact on future job prospects, scholarships, and how others perceive you.
>
> We will consider the "negative interpersonal skills used" and talk about the consequences and "rules" of online communication. Then we will "de-construct" the episode and consider our semester and the various "skills" used in interpersonal relations and how "being authentic" is important in our communities and areas of influence.
>
> This week, I want you to actually watch Netflix for class. *Black Mirror* is a Netflix series. Season 3-Episode 1 is titled *Nosedive*. For class purposes, I want you to watch *Nosedive* until the 35-minute mark (if you watch the remainder of the episode, this is up to you). This show takes place in the future (but how distant?!). This show does contain some adult language and situations. While I do not condone the use of some of the language, I believe that we are adults and scholars and I urge you to look past that for some of the larger ideas that exist within the show. Use the provided discussion guide to frame your thoughts and reflections.

The course textbook, *Interpersonal Skills for Leadership* (Fritz, 2005), serves as the foundational reading for the course curriculum in the *Introduction to Leadership* course. The text provides a solid context for students to understand the importance of an online presence and how interpersonal skills can guide the discussion. Supplemental readings include *Why Leaders Must Use Social Media Responsibly* (Elting, 2017) and other timely materials.

Connections Through Discussion and Practice

Utilizing a debrief discussion approach allows the students to reflect on their own thoughts, feelings, behaviors and actions that might be related to *Nosedive.* This approach helps students process the cognitive, affective, and behavioral insights and implications of the episode in a way of getting to the discussion about what was learned (Hammel, 1986). The approach is orchestrated through the discussion guide for a "write it, share it" method of debriefing using open-ended questions to make the resulting discussion more meaningful (Lunken, 1993). Personal notes and responses to the discussion guide serve as written responses that prompt discussion questions in small groups and with the larger classroom. The personalized response helps the students see that peers share similar thoughts with regard to social media and the intersection of interpersonal skills.

After the discussion of the episode and a lesson on email basics, students are divided into groups for the application stage of the activity. The objective is to create an infographic using a chosen online format to help peers with either a strategy for improving online presence, a strategy for linking one's online presence with leadership development and identity, or a strategy for crafting the perfect email. Encouraging this use of creative approach in the classroom has been linked to increased self-confidence, student voice, and the acceptance of different ideas (de Souza Flieth, 2000) and is a definitive way to apply lessons learned from the activity to the personal leadership plans.

Discussion of Outcomes/Results

While student response to the Nosedive activity varied, all students surveyed indicated that the impact of the activity was eye opening in some way. For many students the revelation and reflection about how they are personally and emotionally impacted by the interactions they make on social media is an important aspect of self-disclosure. While others realized that their behavior and interactions on social media did not actually represent either who they are or who they wanted to be. Through the design of the infographic and incorporation of personal leadership reflections, students verbalized a commitment to setting a "purpose" for their time and experience online. The students were reflective about how their personal purpose and leadership identity can have influence outside a traditional consideration of "being the leader".

Reflections of the Practitioner

As this activity was debriefed, students demonstrated an understanding of the various topics explored throughout the semester. Essentially, this activity provided a way for the students to consider the interpersonal skills examined and practiced in the course of the semester and "put it all together" in a different context- a digital community with a

leadership plan. Developing leader competencies requires practice, reflection and the receipt of applicable feedback in a timely and meaningful way. The use of popular culture to scaffold ideas more easily allows learners to recognize the personal impact that utilizing interpersonal skills as part of the enacting of a leadership plan will have in areas of life that matter to the student. This is meaningful.

Recommendations

Leadership educators have the challenge of connecting the intricacies of the leadership phenomenon into the praxis of students and scholars in the field to build understanding and practical application. The mastery of interpersonal skills and one's leader identity development can be complex in nature and it is our recommendation that public pedagogy and popular culture be used as often as appropriate connections with content-specific learning can be made. Instructors must balance theories with the contextual framework of pedagogy and the secondary elements associated with the formation of instructional activity. Eich (2008) discusses the need for a student-centered learning experience that includes practice and reflective activities. Using this Black Mirror episode as public pedagogy provides the type of student reflection that enhances leadership learning.

References

Alhabash, S., & Ma, M. (2017). A tale of four platforms: motivations and uses of Facebook, Twitter, Instagram, and Snapchat among college students?. *Social Media+ Society*, *3*(1), 2056305117691544.

Ashman, A. F., & Conway, R. N. (2017). *Using cognitive methods in the classroom*. Routledge.

Bolkan, S., & Goodboy, A. K. (2009). Transformational leadership in the classroom: Fostering student learning, student participation, and teacher credibility. *Journal of Instructional Psychology*, *36*(4), 296-307.

Burbach, M. E., Matkin, G. S., & Fritz, S. M. (2004). Teaching critical thinking in an introductory leadership course utilizing active learning strategies: A confirmatory study. *College Student Journal*, *38*(3), 482-494.

de Souza Fleith, D. (2000). Teacher and student perceptions of creativity in the classroom environment. *Roeper Review*, *22*(3), 148-153.

Dougherty, B.K. (2002) 'Comic Relief: Using Political Cartoons in the Classroom', *International Studies Perspectives*, 3(3): 258-70.

Dijkstra, J., (2015) Social exchange: relations and networks. Social Network Analysis and Mining. 5 (1) 60.

Elting, L. (2017, November 30). Why Leaders Must Use Social Media Responsibly. *Forbes Online.* Accessed https://www.forbes.com/sites/lizelting/2017/11/30/why-leaders-must-use-social-media-responsibly/#3a6f38324649.

Emerson, Richard M. (1962). Power dependent Relations. American Sociological Review, Vol. 27, No. 1. (Feb., *1962*), pp. 31-41

Fritz, S. (Ed.). (2005). *Interpersonal skills for leadership*. Prentice Hall.

Guthrie, K. L., & Jenkins, D. M. (2018). *The role of leadership educators: Transforming learning*. IAP.

Hammel, H. (1986). How to design a debriefing session. *Journal of Experiential Education*, *9*(3), 20-25.

Holmes, M. R., Tracy, E. M., Painter, L. L., Oestreich, T., & Park, H. (2015). Moving from flipcharts to the flipped classroom: Using technology driven teaching methods to promote active learning in foundation and advanced masters social work courses. *Clinical social work journal*, *43*(2), 215-224.

Homans, George C. (1958). Social behavior as exchange. J Am Soc 62:597–606.

Lunken, H. P. (1993). THE ART AND DISCIPLINE OF DEBRIEFING. In *Discovering Creativity: Proceedings of the 1992 International Creativity & Innovation Networking Conference* (p. 105). Center for Creative Leadership.

Maudlin, J.G., & Sandlin, J.A. (2015) Pop Culture Pedagogies: Process and Praxis, Educational Studies, 51:5, 368-384, DOI: 10.1080/00131946.2015.1075992.

Molm, Linda D. (1990). Structure, Action and Outcomes: the Dynamic Exchange Relations." American Sociological Review 55:427-47.

Sandholtz, J. H. (1997). *Teaching with technology: Creating student-centered classrooms*. Teachers College Press, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1234 Amsterdam Ave., New York, NY 10027.

Sandlin, Jennifer A.; O'Malley, Michael P., & Burdick, Jake (2011) Mapping the Complexity of Public Pedagogy Scholarship: 1894–2010. Review of Educational Research, Vol. 81, No. 3, pp. 338–375

Sculos, B. W. (2017). Screen savior: How Black Mirror reflects the present more than the future. *Class, race and corporate power*, *5*(1), 4.

Stedman, N. L. (2009). Casting the net of critical thinking: A look into the collegiate leadership classroom. *Journal of Leadership Education*, *7*(3), 201-218.

Tierney, M.J. (2007) 'Schoolhouse Rock: Pedagogy, Politics, and Pop', *International Studies Perspectives*, 8(1): iii-v.

Vesterbacka, P. (2013). Education Is for the (Angry) Birds. Scientific American, 309(2), 68.

Wang, J. L., Wang, H. Z., Gaskin, J., & Wang, L. H. (2015). The role of stress and motivation in problematic smartphone use among college students. *Computers in Human Behavior*, *53*, 181-188.

Yeager, K. L., & Callahan, J. L. (2016). Learning to lead: Foundations of emerging leader identity development. *Advances in Developing Human Resources*, *18*(3), 286-300.

Appendix A

Discussion Guide
Black Mirror: Nosedive
Due _____

Let's face it. We live in a digital age. You have probably checked your phone for texts or posts on social media in the last ten minutes. Like it or not, we are reliant on technology for a large part of our lives. How we function in this digital age impacts us beyond the screen, including in our own understanding of who we are as a leader. Social media behavior can have an impact on future job prospects, scholarships, and how you are perceived by others.

We will consider the "negative interpersonal skills used" and talk about the consequences and "rules" of online communication. Then we will "de-construct" the episode and consider our semester and the various "skills" used in interpersonal relations and how "being authentic" is important in our communities and areas of influence.

This week, I want you to actually watch Netflix for class. *Black Mirror* is a Netflix series. Season 3-Episode 1 is titled *Nosedive*. For class purposes, I want you to watch *Nosedive* until the 35-minute mark (if you watch the remainder of the episode, this is up to you). This show takes place in the future (but how distant?!). This show does contain some adult language and situations. While I do not condone the use of some of the language, I believe that we are adults and scholars and I urge you to look past that for some of the larger ideas that exist within the show. Use the provided discussion guide to frame your thoughts and reflections.

Part A:

1. List interpersonal skills demonstrated “positively” in this section that you observed. Explain what you saw and how they were used/what they meant (their purpose).

2. What were the “rules” and values that seem to apply to the world of earning or getting and being a “4.5” in the “online” format?

Rules:

Values demonstrated:

Part B

3. List one interpersonal interaction that ended poorly, and explain what behavior or conflict resolution might have alleviated this situation.

Part C: De-Constructing the Demonstrated Community

1. What seems to be the eventual goal or purpose of the main character's life plan?

2. What are her strategies or plan to attain her goal?

3. What are the values of the community? (What do people need?)

4. Are their insiders and outsiders?

What are the objective characteristics of this culture?

What are the subjective characteristics of this culture?

What place does Empathy have in this community?

5. How did the main character use social media in terms or power and influence?

6. What lessons in using technology can we get from this episode of *Black Mirror*?

5. Did you make any connections with any characters in the episode? Have you seen parallels to any of your friends or family?

6. What suggestions do you have for the main character or for others in regard to the use of technology? What is the big take-a-way for you?

7. And for fun- what's your rating?!

Creating a State System-wide Transfer Leadership Course

Jill Arensdorf, PhD
Fort Hays State University

Brett Whitaker, PhD
Fort Hays State University

Michael Gleason, PhD
Washburn University

Lauren Edelman, MA
Washburn University

Trisha Gott, EdD
Kansas State University

Marg Yaroslaski, MS
Independence Community College

Mary Banwart, PhD
University of Kansas

Abstract

With the growing emphasis on increased graduation rates and student success, transfer and articulation of college credit is a crucial element of a student's ability to successfully complete their post-secondary degree(s) efficiently. It also contributes to the success of and collaborative opportunities for higher education institutions. Leadership programs in higher education institutions continue to be on the rise. This practice paper will describe one state system's process to develop a system-wide introductory leadership course for seamless transfer amongst public community colleges and four-year institutions. Challenges, opportunities, processes, and next steps will be shared through this presentation.

Introduction

With the growing emphasis on increased graduation rates and student success, transfer and articulation of college credit is a crucial element of not only a student's ability to successfully complete their post-secondary degree(s), but it also contributes to the success of and collaborative opportunities for higher education institutions. Because higher education leadership programs are on the rise, it is imperative that institutions work to create pathways for transfer students to advance their leadership studies. Within leadership studies, challenges arise as the field itself has yet to agree on common learning outcomes, while institutions within the state are being encouraged to develop agreed upon outcomes related to an introductory course.

This paper focuses on one state's experience in creating opportunities for a seamless course transfer for an introductory leadership course across the state. While the focus of this paper is on the response of institutions within one state, the process followed can inform the practice of other institutions interested in working to coordinate courses among various institutions.

Review of Related Scholarship

A dominant function of two-year institutions has been the transfer pathway (Taylor & Jain, 2017). Mobility, clear paths, and diversity of course transfer options are critical for four-year institutions to maximize transfer student recruitment because students are transferring courses between higher education institutions at an increased rate (Jenkins, Kadlec, & Votruba, 2014). The 2018 report by the National Student Clearinghouse Research Center, found that over one million of a fall 2011 cohort of 2.8 million students transferred to a different institution, resulting in an overall transfer rate of 38.0 percent. The National Student Clearinghouse annually reports the completion rate for students who start at a two-year public institution and receive a degree from a four-year institution within six years. The state discussed in this paper ranked #1 in completion rate data from 2014 – 2018; thus indicating that for institutions to remain nimble and attractive to students, courses must be transferrable (Shapiro, Dundar, Huie, Wakhungu, Bhimdiwali, Nathan, & Youngsik, 2018).

This transfer phenomenon will continue to grow in size and scope across the country. It is codified through policies at the state and federal levels including [State] Board of Regents goals to align course and curriculum offerings and create pathways for system-wide transfer of credits (What is Program Alignment, n.d.,; Workforce Development, n.d.). Strengthening pathways for students to transfer courses from two- to four-year institutions is paramount to maintaining relevance and opportunity in the higher education ecosystem. The reasons students transfer vary and pathways and policy should be flexible enough to accommodate students' needs and robust enough to maintain high quality student learning a priority (Taylor & Jain, 2017). The challenge for each discipline is to be cognizant of common learning outcomes and priorities in coursework.

The number of leadership courses offered at higher education institutions has grown exponentially over the past decade. At this point in the field of study, there is not a unifying theory or set of outcomes from which to frame those leadership courses and programs. Conversations around unification of the field are relevant and critical, but there is not yet an agreed upon common framework for leadership education, let alone common student learning outcomes. Critical questions surrounding the unification of the field of leadership studies were recently addressed in the *Journal of Leadership Studies* (Friesen, 2018; Gott, Kliewer, Priest, & Tolar, 2018; Greenleaf, Kastle, Sramek, & Brungardt, 2018; Whitaker & Arensdorf, 2018). Friesen (2018) addressed what constitutes the creation of a discipline, indicating that not only teaching and research, but also educational pathways for students could be enhanced through disciplinary norms. Gott et al. (2018) articulated that "embracing the in-between" (p. 57) would allow leadership studies to stay on the leading edge of the field by engaging other disciplines, but also measure impact in a way that gives credibility to stakeholders, including students. The way forward for the field of leadership studies is exciting, yet educators are far from agreement on program standards and outcomes.

An interesting juxtaposition occurs here related to leadership studies and transferable coursework. While common learning outcomes are sought for system-wide transfer, common learning outcomes are not collectively shared across the field of study. Thus the task of creating common learning outcomes in a course across institutions for seamless transfer is a challenge.

Description of the Practice

In response to challenges students face in system-wide transfer, difficulties aligning transfer courses for degree completion, and to provide structure and oversight to the process for quality seamless transfer the state Board of Regents created a Transfer and Articulation Council (TAC). The Council's outcomes feature 1) the identification of courses acceptable for system-wide articulation and transfer; 2) the creation of a faculty-led structure for discipline-level articulations based on learning outcomes; 3) to ensure individual and system level appeals processes exist; 4) to address barriers to cooperation; 5) to utilize learning outcomes to determine course equivalencies; and 6) to implement a clear and seamless transfer structure ([State] Transfer and Articulation Council Operating Procedures, n.d.).

The TAC oversees the Core Outcomes Groups (COG), groups of faculty in a common field/discipline, who meet annually for discipline specific course transfer and articulation work. COG groups are organized by discipline to find common learning outcomes for courses to facilitate seamless system-wide transfer for public institutions in the state. By October 2018, 84 courses in 26 different disciplines ([State] Board of Regents, 2019) were approved for transfer through this process. Even with the growing number of leadership programs across the state, a leadership course had not yet been discussed nor reviewed for system-wide transfer. In 2017, TAC installed a COG group for leadership courses to address system-wide transfer. Leadership program faculty from 22 higher education institutions in the state, both two- and four-year institutions, met to discuss learning outcomes for a Principles of Leadership course up for seamless transfer.

The first meeting took place in October of 2017. Representatives of every Regent's institution in the state that offered any credit-bearing leadership studies course or program gathered for a one-day conference. COG organizers charged the group to develop three to five shared outcomes that all institutions would be able to achieve in their designated course.

While simple in form, this charge was not going to be easy to achieve. Unlike other courses previous assessed for system-wide transfer the great variety of programs and courses in leadership across the state did not lend themselves to a singular set of outcomes. In fact, through conversation, it became clear that faculty from these different programs were approaching leadership education from very different perspectives. Programs had been developed to serve different roles at each institution. Each institution had a different emphasis that altered the theoretical foundations of respective programs. The greater we began to understand each other's programs, the farther we moved from a single set of universal outcomes.

Upon conclusion of the first meeting, the COG determined the institutions would go back to their respective campuses and discuss the transfer opportunities and leadership courses that were a potential "best fit" for this process. The Regents TAC granted the Leadership COG an additional

year to work through the challenges posed at the initial gathering. Throughout the year, institutions worked to learn more about the leadership courses being taught by two- and four-year schools in the state and to identify specific processes on campuses by which transfercourses could be accepted into leadership programs. Through this discovery institutions uncovered that leadership is taught differently across the state. Some programs utilized a theory based foundations course while others taught theory and skills together in one course. Many programs utilized an experiential pedagogy, while others utilized customized curriculum from a national organization. Some programs had similarity in program learning outcomes, but content was delivered throughout different courses within the curriculum and transfer at the course level was therefore difficult. This phenomena in diverse leadership content and delivery is not unheard of in that leadership educators are using multiple pedagogies (Jenkins, 2012) and coming to this work of leadership education and development from multiple disciplinary backgrounds (Jenkins & Owen, 2016). Therefore, it is even more important that educators develop and reflect on their identity as a leadership educator (Seemiller & Priest, 2017). This was one area that the COG identified as an opportunity.

The second meeting of the Leadership COG occurred in October 2018 with 28 faculty from 22 different two- and four-year public institutions gathering to discuss common learning outcomes. Co-chairs, one from a two-year and one from a four-year institution, led the meeting with the first item of business being a robust discussion of the types of leadership programs offered at the four-year institutions and the curriculum that two-year institutions used to drive their leadership course(s).

Leadership courses at the four-year universities are housed in centers/units/institutes dedicated to leadership studies and each four-year offers a minor in leadership studies. Multiple programs offer certificates in leadership studies. Only one four-year institution offers a major in organizational leadership. Across the community colleges the leadership course is typically offered in units such as Business, Humanities, Interdisciplinary Studies, and Honors programs. Leadership courses at the four-year universities fulfill different general education/core requirements, from Human Diversity, to Ethics, to Critical Thinking/Social Sciences. Courses at the community college level are frequently based on a national curriculum or on content specifically relating to civic activities, service-learning, management, and organizational behavior ([State] Core Outcomes Groups Conference Report, 2018).

The Leadership Core Outcomes Group quickly realized that the diversity of and disparity of demands that each respective leadership course is meeting on its campus created a fundamental inability to identify one leadership course that could meet the requirements of the TAC agreement/outcomes ([State] Core Outcomes Groups Conference Report, 2018). Intense discussions then led to the creation of common learning outcomes that could be agreed upon and utilized in creative ways by different programs across the state, still keeping in mind the seamless transfer process. The aforementioned outcomes are as follows:

- Analyze personal strengths, styles and preferences that contribute to leadership
- Explore, apply, and reflect on basic concepts of leadership
- Examine the relationship of ethics, diversity, and inclusion in leadership
- Communicate knowledge about and application of leadership to others

- Observe and critique leadership in a community setting

Multiple factions were at play in this process with each individual institution and the Regents TAC displaying different priorities through the process. While student transfer was a primary goal for all, the process needed to be faculty driven and make sense for the field of study. The proposed, and subsequently approved outcomes, are being carried out in different ways amongst the two- and four-year institutions. Some are creating new courses, some are tweaking existing courses, and others are developing a "receiving" leadership course for which a course can be transferred in to the institution. This process revealed the complexities that we are facing as a field. One of those complexities includes the question as to whether or not as a discipline we should be working to create common learning outcomes (Whitaker & Arensdorf, 2018).

Discussion of the Outcomes/Results

While this process proved to be challenging, there are multiple outcomes that have come to fruition over the past two years. The Regents' celebrated result of this process will be that students can seamlessly transfer an introductory leadership course across the public two- and four-year institutions in the state. Deeper than this result is the discussion and collaborations that have begun amongst the two- and four-year institutions teaching leadership in the state. The synergy around five course outcomes and development process has created new momentum for recognizing and appreciating differences in leadership programs, but also revealed the need for more conversation and development for leadership educators in the state. The process has strengthened our network of leadership educators while developing an enhanced appreciation for the ways we each fit leadership education within our greater institutional missions. Faculty come to leadership studies from so many different backgrounds and disciplines. The two- and four-year institutions plan to re-visit the objectives and progress in the state on leadership education at a state leadership educator summit in the spring. The Core Outcomes Group will convene in three years as per the Regents agreement.

Reflections of the Practitioner

As we reflect on the process described in this paper, several things have become apparent. This has been an enlightening experience for us in ways that we did not realize would happen at the outset. Not all of our reflections are necessarily positive, but they are certainly informative for our field and our own development as leadership educators.

Our first reflection is that the process of developing shared perspectives of leadership education between two and four-year institutions has caused us to reconsider basic elements of leadership education. All of the participants at the first meeting of the Core Outcomes Group approached leadership education from the lens of their own program and institutional alignment. Cultural differences around course creation and institutional perspectives between two- and four-year institutions posed communication barriers early in the process. Overcoming these communication barriers to reach a consensus driven solution provided incredible opportunities for deepened relationships between all faculty members teaching leadership in [State]. Some of the most beneficial and impactful conversations were when we realized just how different these programs were, and went back to the basics of describing why and how each program originated.

By understanding the original intent, alignment, and basis for each program, we were better able to draft outcomes that aligned with our shared perspectives. The deliberate decision to practice leadership rather than authority through this process built the beginnings of a bridge between what can often feel like widely disparate cultures in two- and four-year institutions.

A second reflection that has arisen from this process is that our field might certainly benefit from additional and ongoing professional development in leadership theory and discipline training. Leadership educators participating in this process come from a wide range of backgrounds, with dramatically different training and formal education in leadership as a field. This is both a strength and a weakness of our interdisciplinary heritage. As we shared our stories, it became obvious that many faculty had arrived at their leadership educator position through circumstance. This does not invalidate their contributions, but it does create an opportunity for additional training, particularly in theory, to drive forward the development of our field. As Komives stated, "Just as any student has the potential to develop leadership capacity, all educators have the potential to expand their educator identity to include being a leadership educator" (Guthrie & Jenkins, p. xix). We reflect on the fact that we must be stewards of our own discipline in driving this identity development forward.

Finally, one reflection that has been sobering for us is that this process has laid bare the great divides we still need to navigate in leadership education. Programs are, with perfectly good intention and justification, teaching leadership in vastly different context, with varying theories, and with outcomes that do not approach convergence. Despite decades of strong development, leadership education is still a young field. We, that is, leadership educators, have a responsibility to understand the diffuse nature of what we are attempting to teach, and shepherd this field forward into a future that ensures high quality and effective education for our students. We will never do this by simply engaging in our own parochial educational perspectives and neglecting the hard conversations that acknowledge our diversity. The conversations that happened through this Core Outcomes Group process were not fun or easy, but they were an important step forward in doing just this kind of critical work.

Recommendations

The rich field of leadership studies has permeated to hundreds if not thousands of higher education institutions. Creating seamless transfer courses in leadership could be a best practice for states to consider. Because our field is constantly evolving, progressing, and changing, we as leadership educators must also. It was evident from the work on the Core Outcomes that development of leadership educator identities has tremendous potential in the state. The seminal work done by Seemiller and Priest (2017) illustrated a model for professional development which might assist in advancing those who are new to teaching leadership in the state. This might be a starting point for the next hosted state leadership educator summit, a practice that began in 2017 (Priest, Stephens, & Kliewer, 2017).

The Council for the Advancement of Standards (CAS) for Student Leadership Programs suggest that professionals, both staff and faculty, teaching leadership should have knowledge of the theory, context, and experiences in leadership to be effective in course outcome development, delivery and assessment (CAS, 2015). Encouraging and supporting memberships in

organizations such as the Association of Leadership Educators and International Leadership Association, can give faculty and staff much of this development opportunity. Hosting a statewide leadership summit may be another good opportunity for further development.

This system-wide transfer course process instilled in participants the need to keep developing and training leadership educators in the state for the state. In their article focused on analyzing who teaches leadership, Jenkins and Owen (2016) ask "How are leadership educators socialized to the field of leadership studies, especially if they lack relevant coursework in leadership theory and evidence-based practice" (p. 109)? This critical question should frame our work of training and educating future leadership educators. What began as an opportunity for the creation and development of a seamless transferable leadership course, has led to not only that, but also the opportunity for deep, meaningful conversations about leadership education in the state.

Institutions that move through this process in other states can develop a strategic vision that aligns leadership learning goals, positions learning in the field, and holds true to the goals of higher education as the central drivers of such efforts. If leadership educators and administrators can initiate future alignment efforts prior to a state mandate, possibilities for deepened understanding, enhanced offerings, innovative collaborations across institutions, and articulated pathways for graduation and employment can be opened more broadly as a collaborative, not competitive process.

References

Council for the Advancement of Standards in Higher Education. (2015). *Standards and guidelines for student services development programs* (9th ed.). Washington, DC: Author.

Friesen, K.L. (2018). Considerations for collective thinking about academic leadership programs. *Journal of Leadership Studies, 12*(2), 49-52, Doi: 10.1002/jls.21576

Gott, T., Kliewer, B.W., Priest, K.L., Tolar, M.H. (2018). The path forward: A case for openness in leadership studies. *Journal of Leadership Studies, 12*(2), 56-59. Doi: 10.1002/jls.21578

Greenleaf, J., Kastle, S., Sramek, K., Brungardt, C. (2018). Majoring in leadership: Issues of consistency and credibility. *Journal of Leadership Studies, 12*(2), 53-55. Doi: 10.1102/jls.21577

Guthrie, K. & Jenkins, D. (2018). *The role of leadership educators: Transforming learning.* Charlotte, NC: Information Age Publishing.

Jenkins, D. (2012). Exploring signature pedagogies in undergraduate leadership education. *Journal of Leadership Education, 11*(1), 1-27. Doi: 10.12806/V11/I1/RF1

Jenkins, D. & Owen, J. (2016). Who teaches leadership? A comparative analysis of faculty and

student affairs leadership educators and implications for leadership learning. *Journal of Leadership Education, 15*(2), 98 – 113. Doi: 10.12806/V15/I1/R1

Jenkins, D., Kadlec, A., & Votruba, J. (2014). *Maximizing resources for student success: The business case for regional public universities to strengthen community college transfer pathways (with guidance on leading the process).* Overland Park, KS: Author.

[State] Board of Regents. (2019). *Transfer and Articulation Council Quality Assurance Subcommittee Report.* Retrieved from https://www.kansasregents.org/resources/PDF/Academic_Affairs/TAAC/2018_TAAC_Quality_Assurance_Report_Jan_2019.pdf

[State] Core Outcomes Groups Conference Report. (2018). Unpublished manuscript.

[State] Transfer and Articulation Council Operating Procedures. (n.d.). Retrieved from https://www.kansasregents.org/resources/PDF/Academic_Affairs/TAAC/2018_01_10_TAAC_Operating_Procedures.pdf

Priest, K., Stephens, C.M., & Kliewer, B.W. (2017). *Kansas leadership studies summit: Cultivating collaborative capacity for the common good.* Paper presented at the 27th Annual Association of Leadership Educators Conference, Charleston, SC. Retrieved from https://www.leadershipeducators.org/resources/Pictures/ALE%202017%20Conference%20Proceedings.pdf.

Seemiller, C. & Priest, K. (2017). Leadership educator journeys: Expanding a model of leadership educator professional identity development. *Journal of Leadership Education, 16*(2), 1-22. Doi: 10.12806/V16/I2/R1

Shapiro, D., Dundar, A., Huie, F., Wakhungu, P.K., Bhimdiwali, A., Nathan, A., & Youngsik, H. (2018, July). *Transfer and mobility: A national view of student movement in postsecondary institutions, Fall 2011 cohort* (Signature Report No. 15). Herndon, VA: National Student Clearinghouse Research Center.

Taylor, J. L. & Jain, D. (2017). The multiple dimensions of transfer: Examining the transfer function in American higher education. *Community College Review*, *45*(4), p. 273-293.

What is Program Alignment. (n.d.). Retrieved February 27, 2019, from https://www.kansasregents.org/workforce_development/program-alignment

Workforce Development. (n.d.). Retrieved February 27, 2019, from https://www.kansasregents.org/workforce_development

Whitaker, B. & Arensdorf, J. (2018). Big questions for leadership education. *Journal of Leadership Studies, 12*(2), 46-48. Doi: 10.1002/jls.21575

Developing Diversity Consciousness in Leaders: The Proof is in the Pudding

Cammie Grace Weaver, Graduate Student; William Weeks, Professor; Penny Pennington Weeks, Professor; Katherine Bezner, Undergraduate Student, *Oklahoma State University*

Abstract

This innovative practice was designed to develop diversity consciousness among undergraduate students in an online multicultural leadership course. Diversity consciousness is defined as having an understanding and skill set relating to diversity (Bucher, 2015). As the first major course assignment, *Food and My Story* asks students to reflect and examine their own culture through a family recipe. Each year 450 students participate in this assignment with overwhelmingly positive feedback. In the spring of 2019, online students were given the option to present their project face-to-face, and share in each other's recipes, in a hosted campus event. The students that selected to present face-to-face expressed that the opportunity to meet fellow students and talk about diversity and culture in person was highly valuable to their learning experience.

Introduction

Diversity consciousness, defined as having an understanding and skill set relating to diversity (Bucher, 2015), is perhaps the starting point in diversity education. Bucher (2015) outlines six stages of development in diversity consciousness. In the first stage, we ask students to explore their own cultural diversity. Before students can make sense of other cultures, they have to be aware of their own. *What makes me unique? What is my own culture? How am I different from other students?* These are questions we ask students to reflect upon as a part of the *Food and My Story* assignment.

Review of Related Scholarship

Helping future leaders develop diversity consciousness is important as the population of the United States is rapidly diversifying (Bruner, 2008). Future leaders need to be prepared so they are able to work with individuals from various cultures. The United States Census Bureau (n.d.) estimated the following percentages for the United States population: 13.4 percent is black or African American; 5.8 percent is Asian, 1.3 percent is American Indian and Alaska Native, 0.2 percent is Native Hawaiian and Other Pacific Islander, 2.7 percent is two or more races, 18.1 percent is Hispanic or Latino. Future leaders need to develop diversity conscious so they are able to understand varying cultures and how cultures view leadership, so they are able to lead effectively (Northouse, 2019).

"Food and food behaviors are an integral part of every culture," (Pazzaglia & Williams, 2012, p. 577). Food is a meaningful and relaxed tool that can be used to help future leaders develop their diversity consciousness (Pazzaglia & Williams, 2012). There are many metaphors relating food to how individuals think, such as: "food for thought"; "chew over" something"; and "eating your words", (Cooper, 2013, p. 94). Our goal is to help students learn to appreciate cultural differences, by accepting and (hopefully) celebrating different cultures through food.

Students need to recognize cultures other than their own if they are to work effectively with others, and students need to be prepared for diversity in the workforce (Rodriguez & Lamm, 2016). Our innovation, *Food and My Story*, is a class assignment used to increase diversity consciousness in an online course in multicultural leadership. As the number of students interested in online coursework continues to increase, exploring approaches to learning in the online classroom continues to be of utmost importance. Inside Higher Ed reports that the number of undergraduate students "enrolled in as least one distance education course" continues to rise (Lederman, 2018, para. 6).

Description of the Practice

Food and My Story

In this assignment, we ask students to prepare a food item with special significance to their family and culture. This food item can be eaten on a regular basis or prepared for special gatherings. As the course is taught entirely online, students document their activity with photos and prepare a six-slide PowerPoint presentation. The presentation is posted to the course discussion board. The following instructions for the assignment are provided to students:

- Before preparing the item, contact a family member to discuss the recipe and your family's history behind this item being served at family meals, holidays, or other gatherings. Include your family members' reaction to this assignment.
- Cook/bake/prepare the item and take photos of you preparing the item. Include three to five pictures in your presentation. To receive documentation points, you must be in at least one of the photos and the photos must clearly demonstrate that you prepared the item yourself. Invite friends over to sample your wares when you are done cooking.
- In your PowerPoint presentation, include the recipe (ingredients and instructions) as well as your family's story as it relates to the food item.
- Integrate at least three course concepts or quotes from our text in your six-slide PowerPoint presentation. Use BOLD print to signify keywords or quotes.

Students submit their presentation to the course management system for grading and post to the course's online discussion board with a brief introduction to the dish. Over the next few days, students can view their classmates' presentations and ask questions about recipes shared to better understand how family food traditions represent unique aspects of their cultures. Students are also required to reflect on course concepts related to the *Food and My Story* presentation.

Let's Eat!

During the spring 2019 semester, faculty offered the option for students to present their assignment on campus instead of the traditional online PowerPoint presentation and discussion. Students opting to join us for the campus event were asked to prepare there dish per the original instructions. They were then asked to bring their prepared dish and family recipe to share with others. Specifically, students were instructed to bring their food item to a designated classroom at 6:00 p.m. on Wednesday of the third week of the class, the same day that the PowerPoint assignment was due. Sharing of the food items and an hour of conversation about diversity were the only expectations expressed to students.

Results

Experiential Learning in the Online Classroom

Approximately 450 students, through five different sections, enroll in the multicultural leadership course each year and complete the *Food and My Story* assignment. Student feedback has been overwhelmingly positive. Many students comment about the excitement of family members getting to participate in the class by helping with the assignment through shared stories and family recipes.

- "My mother always prepares the Ota for my family, and when I told her about this project and how I would have to prepare the food; she was excited to give me the recipe" (Sione).
- "When I told our family about this assignment my wife actually shouted 'Sopa dePollo'. The same reaction occurred with many of my other family members" (Matt).
- "I called my grandma and told her that I had an assignment to make a family recipe. She was excited to hear that I had chosen her recipe and was eager to help. I FaceTimed her through the whole process" (Jeremy).

Through creating their own presentation and reviewing those of their classmates, students increase their diversity consciousness, which is assessed through the integration of course concepts in their presentations. There are several recurring concepts in the projects that students connect to course content, especially, assimilation, pluralism, and cultural cruise control (Bucher, 2015).

- "A few of my friends from different places around the U.S. also have this class and I went to try their foods and I think that helps with cultural cruise control by tryingnew things," (Jamaal)
- "Culture is something I believe that is special, and when it comes to foods, it is definitely something that unites people," (Jessica).
- "Although generations and cultures seem to change overtime as they choose to assimilate with coexisting cultures, my grandmother's recipe stayed true to its origin" (Tyrell).
- "Just think, if people only ate fast food or boxed meals our food pluralism would soon all start to assimilate, and everyone would be eating nearly the same thing, there would be no history or diversity in our food," (Amanda).

Bringing Online Students to the Classroom

Knowing most of our online students resided on campus, we wanted to explore if students would be interested in meeting face-to-face with their instructor and other students for presentation of this assignment. (Our faculty were also very interested in trying the recipes made by our students.) Students cite various reasons for taking on-line courses including, making good use of their time and added flexibility to their schedule (Friedman, 2018). But we were not sure if that meant that a one-time face-to-face meeting was or was not of interest to our students.

Ten students took us up on our offer to present their *Food and My Story* assignment face-to-face. There were 96 students enrolled in the course section. Students selecting to participate reacted positively. After the campus meeting, several students sent thank you emails and expressed that they think more students should participate in the face-to-face opportunity.

- "I truly enjoyed coming to the potluck tonight… sharing our stories in person made the experience so much more wholesome," (Makena).
- "I think you need to find a way to encourage more students to participate in the face to face option," (Gabby)

The students that participated in the *Food and My Story* Potluck are increasing their cultural awareness through each student's recipe as it celebrates and highlights their individual cultures. Discussion was rich and the learning objectives were accomplished, similar to the online only assignment.

Motivation and the Online Student

Knowing that the number of students interested in enrolling in our online diversity course outstrips the capacity, faculty interest in the online student is heightened. As we continuously try to improve our diversity course through options such as the campus-based *Food and My Story* opportunity, faculty also have begun an exploration of student motivation.

We asked all students in the class to complete the Motivation Sources Inventory (MSI). The MSI is designed to help understand behaviors and decision making through five sources of motivation: *intrinsic, instrumental, external self-concept, internal self-concept, and goal internalization.* (Barbuto & Scholl, 1998). The purpose was to explore motivation sources of those that participated in the campus-based opportunity as compared to those who completed the traditional online only assignment. The data was collected in an effort to explore our innovative practice not as an effort to report research findings.

Students who did not participate in the MSI or who did not complete the *Food and My Story* were removed from the population. Additionally, two students who were not enrolled in any on campus courses were excluded as it would have been inconvenient for them to participate in the face-to-face activity. The mean was calculated for each motivation source based on participation in the potluck or turning in a PowerPoint. A total of 86 students participated in the assignment; 10 came to campus for the potluck and 76 turned in a PowerPoint to the course management system.

Table 1

Comparison of MSI Scores for Students who participated in the optional Potluck as compared to those submitting a PowerPoint (N=86)

Motivation Source	Potluck (N=10)	PowerPoint (N=76)	Difference
Intrinsic Process	26.1	23.1	3.0
Instrumental	25.7	21.6	4.1
External Self-Concept	22.0	19.7	2.3
Internal Self-Concept	28.6	27.3	1.3
Goal Internalization	25.2	23.0	2.2

In reviewing the results, we found a positive difference between motivation sources for every one of the scales, with the potluck scores being higher on each scale. These results reveal the students who participated in the potluck were motivated differently from those who did not participate in the potluck. Students who are motivated by intrinsic process might participate in the *Food and My Story* potluck if they thought it would be a fun activity; that they would enjoy sharing their dish with others. Engaging with other students and their professor would also fall in line with those motivated by intrinsic process.

The largest difference in scores was for instrumental motivation. While students were told there would be no extra credit for participating in the potluck, it is possible they believed there would be some type of credit for coming to the potluck; this could explain the difference in the instrumental motivation scores. Another instrumental reward the students could have been motivated by was the meal itself they shared in the potluck.

The students who chose to participate in the potluck could have been seeking affirmation from their professor and peers, which could explain why the self-concept external motivation source score was higher. The self-concept internal motivation score difference could be explained through the students' need for achievement and those who chose to participate in the potluck had a higher need for achievement than the other students did.

Finally, goal internalization occurs when a student participates because the activity is congruent with their own value system and has developed a strong sense of duty. Students who participated in the potluck may have believed that the potluck better served their goal of developing their own diversity consciousness.

Reflections of the Practitioners

Food and My Story serves as an opportunity for students to begin exploring their own culture as we prepare to explore diversity issues throughout the semester. The assignment is well-received and initiates conversations related to deepening our own diversity consciousness. As more and more students seek out online courses to meet graduation requirements, we find ourselves in a position to seek out best practices in the online classroom. Based on our experience, we know that *Food and My Story* works—*online*, but we are still curious to discover if it can "work" even better.

We believe that the face-to-face presentation opportunity, although not for every distance student, works better for some students. As leadership educators we recognize that students are motivated in different ways and have different learning styles. As researchers our work is just beginning.

Recommendations

We plan to continue the use of *Food and My Story* in the multicultural leadership course and are considering other variations on this assignment including repeating the face-to-face option. We also plan to continue our exploration of sources of motivation as it relates to learning and the online student.

References

Barbuto, J. E., Jr., & Scholl, R. W. (1998). Motivation sources inventory: Development and validation of new scales to measure an integrative taxonomy of motivation. *Psychological Reports, 82*, 1011-1022.

Barbuto, J. E., Jr., & Fritz, S. M., & Plummer, B. A. (2004). Is there a difference between agriculture/natural resources and non-agriculture/natural resources majors' motivation sources? *NACTA Journal, 48*(3), 30-35.

Bruner, D. Y. (2008). Aspiring and practicing leaders addressing issues of diversity and social justice. *Race, Ethnicity and Education, 11*(4), 483-500. doi:10.1080/13613320802479059

Bucher, R. D. (2015). *Diversity consciousness: Opening our minds to people, cultures, and opportunities* (4th ed.). Boston, MA: Pearson.

Cooper, E. E. (2013). Something to sink their teeth into: teaching culture through food. *The Journal of Inclusive Scholarship and Pedagogy, 23*(2), 92-105. Retrieved from https://www.jstor.org/stable/pdf/10.5325/trajincschped.23.2.0092.pdf?refreqid=excelsior%3A66e73cf11a5586fae167624b5f9e13f5

Friedman, J. (2018, January 11). Study: More students are enrolling in online courses. *U.S. News & World Report.* Retrieved from https://www.usnews.com/higher-education/online-education/articles/2018-01-11/study-more-students-are-enrolling-in-online-courses

Lederman, D. (2018, January 5). Who is studying online (and where). *Inside Higher Ed*. Retrieved from https://www.insidehighered.com/digital-learning/article/2018/01/05/new-us-data-show-continued-growth-college-students-studying

Northouse, P. G. (2019). Culture and leadership. *Leadership: Theory and practice.* (pp. 443-472). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications, Inc.

Pazzaglia, G., & Williams, C. (2012). Bring food and culture to the classroom. *Journal of School Health, 82*(12), 577-580. doi:10.1111/j.1746-1561.2012.00739.x

Rodriguez, M. T., & Lamm, A. J. (2016). Identifying student cultural awareness and perceptions of different cultures. *Journal of Agricultural Education, 57*(2), 106-118. Doi:10.5032/jae.2016.02106

U.S. Census Bureau. (n.d.). *U.S. Census Bureau QuickFacts: United States* [Data file]. Retrieved from https://www.census.gov/quickfacts/fact/table/US/PST045218

Vincent, S., Killingsworth, J., & Torres, R. (2012). Multicultural teaching concerns: A comparison between disciplines at the secondary pre-service level. *Journal of Agricultural Education, 53*(4), 171-186. Doi:10.5032/jae.2012.04171

Inclusive Community Leadership Development: Creating a Culture of Leadership for All

Abstract

Combining the lessons learned from two competitive grants related to rural community programs to create an Inclusive Community Leadership Development (ICLD) Fellows program. This program is designed to create a culture of leadership by enhancing Inclusive Leadership capacity in students, and the rural community leaders who mentor them. We would like our work to expand the body of knowledge in inclusive leadership and build on it by creating an ICLD model to serve students, rural communities, and rural community leader development.

Introduction

In the movie, Doc Hollywood (1991), actor Michael J. Fox's character is a cocky physician bound for the big city of Los Angeles to become a plastic surgeon. He has an accident, in his foreign car, in a small rural community in North Carolina. He hits the local judge's fence and is fined with having to complete community service by helping the soon-to-retire town doctor. During his time in the rural community, he falls in love with the community, rural life, and a young lady. While this kind of thing happens in movies, what would happen if universities partnered with rural communities make this kind of thing happen in real life? Create opportunities for students to live, work, and serve in rural communities?

Nebraska is made up of mostly rural communities. And according to the University of Nebraska at Omaha Center for Public Affairs Research, one of the trends affecting Nebraska population is, "the majority of growth is coming from an increase in ethnically and racially diverse populations." Based on this trend, it is predicted that by 2030, Nebraska will be 40% non-White.

Many of the students who pursue a Leadership major or minor from the Agricultural Leadership Education, and Communication at University of Nebraska-Lincoln, come from rural communities from around the state of Nebraska. Often the students desire to return to their rural community and have a positive impact in their community.

Through two different competitive awards by Rural Futures Institute (RFI) at University of Nebraska, faculty in partnerships with community agencies and leaders worked together to understand how students could be offered the opportunity to apply leadership education to working/living/serving in the rural community. Based on the lessons learned from these two competitive awards, the ICLD Fellows program has been created. Community leaders and students will come together for training, then embark on working/serving/living in the rural community while having ongoing individually-guided development through coaching in intercultural mindset by faculty. The faculty and RFI staff will be evaluating the impact on students, community leaders, and the community with the goal to expand the body of knowledge in inclusive leadership and by creating an ICLD model to serve students, rural communities, and rural community leader development.

Review of Related Scholarship

President Harrison, at California State University-Northridge, stated “employers expect a graduate and new hiree to come into their organizations and be able to add value immediately. We need to become very good at putting together diverse teams to innovate and design responsive solutions. We need to prepare today's students to assume leadership roles” (2017).

Many rural communities face the issue of decreasing populations due to movement into larger or more urban towns/cities. As President Harrison infers, leaders need to know how they can simultaneously work to retain current community members while also creating welcoming, inclusive environments for newly arriving populations. The mentoring and serviceship aspect of this program creates an opportunity to realize both of these goals.

Students and community leaders described the experience of Serviceship and Rural Diversity Action Project (RDAP) as “transformative”. One student stated, “nothing in my college career has shaped me the way the Serviceship opportunity has”. Another student stated, “living in an urban community my whole life, I had no idea the challenges faced by rural communities. This has totally changed my perspective on diversity of needs and a leaders’ role.” Mezirow’s theory of transformative learning helps us understand what happened and ensure we continue to build on that as we embark on the Inclusive Community Leader Development in 2019. Mezirow (2003) defined transformative learning as “learning that transforms problematic frames of reference—sets of fixed assumptions and expectations (habits of mind, meaning perspectives, mindsets)—to make them more inclusive, discriminating, open, reflective, and emotionally able to change” (p. 58).

Komives and Wagner in the book Leadership for a Better World (2009), state that contemporary problems require a collaborative approach to addressing the challenges of our times. Theirmodel posits that self-awareness, combined with leadership competence and collaboration brings about positive social change. ICLD will be the process by which students and community leaders will be developed to work on projects identified by community leaders to help them create a thriving rural community facing demographic shifts. Historically, assimilation has been the expectation of new members into a community. As Rhodes (1997) states, with assimilation we assume that our community or culture’s approach to solving issues is the best way. This is considered to be the process by which a person in the Monocultural Mindset (on the Intercultural Development Continuum, (Hammer, 2015)) gives meaning to differences. In the Monocultural Mindset (as measured by the Intercultural Development Inventory), the individual makes sense of cultural differences based on their own cultural values and practices. Assimilation becomes the norm of expectation of others. The challenge with this is, when people choose to not assimilate, we see the trend of increase in one population and decrease in the other population. In Nebraska, ten of the fast growing counties experienced this divergence in population change. The goal of the ICLD is to help students and leaders to grow to the Intercultural Mindset.

In the Intercultural Mindset, the individual makes sense of cultural differences through their own and others’ cultural values and practices (Hammer, 2015). In dissertation research conducted by Fagan, (2014), individuals with relatively high Psychological Capital (PsyCap) and relatively high Intercultural mindset, created an environment where diverse individuals felt encouraged and supported to grow in their mindset. In the mixed methods study, Fagan also found that those higher in PsyCap, a higher order construct comprised of Hope, Efficacy, Resilience, and

Optimism (Luthans, Youssef, & Avolio, 2007), tended to be more interested and willing to grow in the Intercultural Mindset. Psychologist Edwin Hollander (2008) writes "Inclusive leadership is about relationships that can accomplish things for mutual benefit. Reaching leadership at this next level means 'doing things with people, rather than to people'." Building on the knowledge gained from the Serviceship and RDAP, community leaders and students will have the opportunity to grow into the Intercultural Mindset to serve the community as it goes through demographic shifts.

Description of the Practice

In 2013, University of Nebraska-Lincoln faculty in partnership with community members designed the Serviceship program through RFI competitive award for teaching and engagement. RFI is one of four university-wide institutes that supports faculty and staff in all university campuses. Serviceship (a hybrid between service-learning and traditional internships), provided communities with tangible results on important self-defined projects while giving students resume-building work and insight into the career and life opportunities in rural places. In this unique experience, intern pairs directly supported community efforts as a whole, often serving as the link between many entities. (Hastings, Wall, & Montoya 2018).

Community host teams included subject-matter experts and leadership mentors that assisted with students' major projects, connected them with volunteering opportunities, invited them to participate in community events and activities and provided diverse perspectives. To prepare students for the serviceship experience, RFI in partnership with the Heartland Center for Leadership Development, trained students while RFI staff provided support and guidance throughout the experience. From 2013-2018, sixty students from a variety of university campuses worked and served in thirty Nebraska communities and communities of practice through a serviceship experience.

A second project funded by an RFI competitive award, the RDAP resulted in creating a special projects course in leadership education. The course provided students a continuation of learning from the Leadership and Diversity course by giving them the opportunity to go into a rural community facing major demographic shifts, and partner with community leaders to conduct an asset-based PEST analysis (Political, Economical, Sociological, and Technological) of the rural community, and a SWOT analysis (Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities, and Threats) of an agency serving the diverse community members who were new to the community. For this project the faculty partnered with another community agency, the Center for Rural Affairs (CFRA), to identify and connect faculty and students to rural communities who had expressed an interest to work with university students and faculty.

Students were guided through the process in the classroom by faculty, and in the community by CFRA staff, community leaders, and agency leaders. Students spent 4-5 hours per week in the community interviewing leaders and serving in the agency. Through the process, students also had weekly class times where the experience was discussed and unpacked using the content of the book, *Leadership in a Diverse and Multicultural Environment* (Connerley & Pedersen, 2015).

This project allowed students to become part of a small Nebraska community – to work with organizations, to shadow, and talk with city officials, and not only learn about, but also assist communities in considering the needs of diverse populations. Through applying the skills learned in the Leadership and Diversity course prior to this special projects class, and building on that by learning the application to a rural community utilizing the content of Connerley and Pedersen's (2015) book, and community research readings, and learning the skills of assessing (SWOT and PEST analyses) organizations and communities, as well as seeing up close the community assets, support structures, and challenges students gained far more than they could have solely in the classroom in the one leadership and diversity course.

At the end of the semester, students created a final report and presented their cohort findings and personal reflections on the process with staff of RFI, CFRA, faculty in Leadership Education, along with community leaders and community agency leaders. During the three-semester life of this funded course, 3 communities were served by 8 students. The faculty would have liked to have applied for a larger competitive award and expanded the offering to additional students. However, due to budget cuts, competitive awards were eliminated as part of RFI's budget.

Discussion of Outcomes/Results

Hastings, et al (2018) stated that after five years, "the combination of discipline, community engagement, and leadership training/experience created human capacity and opened the door for active recruitment of new graduates and young professionals into the fabric of rural communities."

Both the Serviceship project and the RDAP special projects course had transformative impact on the students and on the communities. However, through budget cuts at University of Nebraska, both projects were no longer able to be funded. Yet, the benefit was too great for the projects to be eliminated in their entirety. So, they were combined to create the ICLD Fellows program.

Even with the budget cuts that RFI experienced, the expectation is that RFI would continue to find ways to prepare socially responsible and inclusive leaders who can contribute to the thriving of rural communities now and into the future. According to Littrell & Littrell (2006), "community development by practice and thought aren't rooted in polite deference to the status quo." The underlying assumption that Littrell and Littrell (2006) posit is that when there are many different views and value systems, there naturally exists a spirited level of civic tension, and to create an inclusive community there has to be inclusive dialogue.

Like the rural communities it serves, RFI is evolving. Shrinking resources across the rural landscape, increasing complexities and ever-growing challenges force focus and innovation, while technology, increasing global connections and awareness create opportunities. RFI is stretching its own intellectual and resource capacity to harness the energy of the University of Nebraska, the communities of Nebraska and its global partners.

We are colliding our former serviceship and RDAP together to cultivate communities. We created the RFI Fellows program. Students, community innovators and faculty fellows will be the inspirational and action-oriented mechanism by which we plan to create meaningful, tangible

impact. The goal is that the RFI Fellows will be a transformational experience for students, community leaders and researchers.

We recognize the shift in the rural landscape isn't isolated to [STATE] — there is a rural demographic shift happening across the country. By 2030, one in five Americans is projected to be 65 and over; by 2044, more than half of all Americans are projected to belong to a minority group (any group other than non-Hispanic White alone); and by 2060, nearly one in five of the nation's total population is projected to be foreign born (U.S. Census Bureau).

When it comes to dollars and cents, private companies are realizing the effects of purposeful inclusion initiatives. The latest *Diversity Matters* report (2018) from McKinsey and Company examined proprietary data sets for 366 public companies across a range of industries in Canada, Latin America, the United Kingdom and the United States. In this research, metrics such as financial results and the composition of top management and boards were examined, and the findings were clear: Companies in the top quartile for racial and ethnic diversity are 35 percent more likely to have financial returns above their respective national industry medians.

As our program is pivoting, RFI Student Fellows, RFI Community Innovation Fellows, and RFI Faculty Fellows will work with faculty to become Inclusive Community Leaders. We are developing the Intercultural Mindset, Psychological Capital, Emotional Intelligence of the diverse teams to better understand how Intercultural Mindset, PsyCap and EQ enable inclusive approach to community leadership. The process by which we have been developing the fellows is three fold: 1) Online Academy, (2) an In-person Academy, and (3) three individual coaching sessions with the lead researcher.

Utilizing an online platform and collaborating with other faculty, our team created 8-10 hours of content for the fellows to complete in preparation for coming to a 3-day Inclusive Leadership Academy. The online content focused on Foundations of Leadership, Group Dynamics, Personality Differences, Community Capitals/Development, and Entrepreneurial Strengths (a Gallup tool). Also, an important part of the online platform is completing assessments before and after the program. These assessments are: The Psychological Capital Questionnaire (PCQ), Authentic Leadership Questionnaire (ALQ), and Intercultural Development Inventory (IDI). The participants also all had a 30-minute confidential developmental coaching session with the lead researcher which will serve as additional qualitative data to help evaluate program outcomes.

The 3-day in-person content of the Academy brought together the Community Fellows and Student Fellows to allow them to connect and become a cohesive team. Using the Gardenswartz, Rowe, and Cheborsque workbook, *Emotional Intelligence for Diverse Teams*, the teams participated in understanding how their differences can help them to achieve more. The debriefing and lecture portions of the content utilized content from *Psychological Capital* by Luthans, Youssef, and Avolio (2007). The agenda for the three days included specific discussions related to team differences and how to utilize them best, along with authentic dialogue about creating a culture of inclusion in their team once they are in the community. The reason for bringing community leaders and having them participate in the academy is to develop their capacity which will remain in the community after the student fellows leave. Two Community Innovation Fellows from each community are participating in the pilot. After the 3-

day academy, the students moved to their designated rural community to live, work, and serve. The students will live in the community for approximately 10 weeks while working 400 hours and getting paid for it. They will also do a minimum of 10-hours of Service-learning.

The developmental coaching utilizes the content of the IDI Guided Development Plan specific to each person's goals and needs for growing into the Intercultural (Ethnorelative) Mindset. The lead researcher is trained and has nearly a decade of experience in leadership coaching and has coached individuals from all different backgrounds using this process. Each participant will have 3 one-hour individual coaching sessions during the 10-week program. The goal of coaching is to empower them to create inclusion in their small teams with the goal of using the lessons learned to apply to other teams.

This three-part approach is the culmination of the collision of the former RFI Serviceship and RDAP to cultivate inclusion in leaders and students who are the fellows in the rural communities.

Student Fellows and Community Innovation Fellows are participating in ongoing Intercultural Mindset Developmental Coaching (using the IDI Guided Development Plan) during the course of the 10-week fellowship with the lead researcher.

At the end of the 10 weeks, the fellows will do final presentations which will be used as artifacts for evaluation. The pre-post assessment along with artifacts collected during the 10-week program, and interview data, will be used for evaluating the impact, as well as a pilot for conducting a Mixed Methods Case Study research the following year. Our hope is to collect both quantitative and qualitative data to further understand how this process of leadership education impacts student fellows and community innovation fellows' development as inclusive leaders.

The faculty and RFI staff will be utilizing the findings with the goal to expand the body of knowledge in inclusive leadership and build on it by creating an ICLD model to serve students, rural communities, and rural community leader development.

Reflections of the Practitioner

In the summer of 2018, as we traveled around the state to the 11 communities that had students, we heard from the 22 students and 20 plus community leaders how powerful the experience has been for them each for different reasons. From some students who could never see themselves living in a rural community we heard I could see myself making a home here. While other students who couldn't see how the course Interpersonal Skills for Leaders, or Team Leadership, or Leadership and Diversity apply in real life, we saw the excitement in them as they explained what they observed or were involved in during a town hall meeting or an economic development board meeting. From the community leaders, we heard that they were impressed and all their stereotypes were being shattered of "this generation" not wanting to be involved in the community. They were asking for additional training and development for them. We could see the hunger in their eyes and heard it in their words as they asked us for "the same kind of training and preparation the students get". We especially heard this from communities that were

experiencing demographic shift, or were wanting to be attractive to a younger generation, or tout themselves as the perfect place for “techies, writers, artists” who could work from anywhere.

Recommendations

The field of ICLD is still in its infancy. The research in developing Inclusive leaders is growing, though the majority of the research applies to organizational leaders. This practice related approach and research provides the opportunity to expand the body of knowledge to include community leaders’ needs and the emerging student leaders’ perceptions. In this expansion we believe that we can help communities build on the strengths they have to create and nurture a culture of leadership that includes everyone.

It is hoped that this work will encourage more practice related inclusive community leadership development. Additionally, future work could help create a means to assess the outcome of these practices.

References

Colby, S. Ortman, J. (2015). *Projections of the Size and Composition of the U.S. Population: 2014 to 2060*, Current Population Reports, P25-1143, U.S. Census Bureau, Washington, DC, 2014.

Connerley, M. L. & Pedersen, P. B. (2005). *Leadership in a Diverse and Multicultural Environment: Developing Awareness, Knowledge, and Skills.* Sage Publications. Thousand Oaks, CA. ISBN 978-0-7619-8860-1

Fagan, H.A. (2014). *PsyCap and the Impact on the Development of Intercultural Sensitivity of Healthcare Educators: A Mixed Methods Study.* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). University of Nebraska-Lincoln, NE.

Gardenswartz, L., Rowe, A., & Cheborsque, J. (2015). *Emotional Intelligence for Managing Diverse Teams: A Workbook.* Nicholas Brealy.

Hammer, M. (2015). The Developmental paradigm for intercultural competence research. *International Journal of Intercultural Communication*. *48* (2015), 12-13.

Harrison, D. (2017). *The Role of Higher Education in the Changing World of Work: Leadership Views from the Top*. *EDUCAUSE Review* 52, no. 6. Obtained from: https://er.educause.edu/articles/2017/10/the-role-of-higher-education-in-the-changing-world-of-work

Hastings, L., Wall, M., & Mantonya, K. (2018). Developing Leadership Through "Serviceship": Leveraging the Intersection Between Service-Learning and Professional Internship. *Journal of Leadership Education, 17*(1), 141-151. DOI:10.12806/V17/I1/A2.

Hollander Edwin P. (2008) *Inclusive Leadership: The Essential Leader-Follower-Relationships.* The Pennsylvania State University. ISBN-13: 978-0805864397

Hunt V., Prince, S., Dixon-Fyle, S., Yee, L. (2018). *Diversity Matters: Delivering through Diversity. McKinsey&Company.* Retrieved from https://www.mckinsey.com/~/media/McKinsey/Business%20Functions/Organization/Our%20Insights/Delivering%20through%20diversity/Delivering-through-diversity_full-report.ashx

Johnson, D. (Producer), Solt, S. (Producer) & Caton-Jones, M. (Director). (1991). *Doc Hollywood* [Motion Picture]. United States: Warner Brothers.

Komives, S., Wagner, W. (2009). *Leadership for a Better World: Understanding the Social Change Model of Leadership Development*. Jossey-Bass. San Francisco, CA. ISBN: 978-0-470-44949-3

Luthans, F., Youssef, C. M., Avolio, B. J. (2007). *Psychological Capital*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Mezirow, J. (2003). Transformative learning as discourse. *Journal of Transformative Education, 1*(1): 58-63. doi:10.1177/1541344603252172

Building a Culture of Leadership Through Inter-State Exchange Experience

Dr. Laura L. Greenhaw, University of Florida
M. Annabelle Stokes, Mississippi State University

Abstract

The purpose of this innovative practice session is to facilitate discussion evaluating the costs and benefits associated with an inter-state leadership development seminar. This seminar occurred as one of a series of leadership development seminars attended by a cohort of adult industry leaders. Participant interviews were conducted at the beginning of the seminar and again at the conclusion of the seminar to better understand their expectations and experiences. In addition, observation notes were recorded throughout the weeklong experience.

Introduction

Throughout the nation, multitudes of leadership programs exist to sculpt future leaders at local, regional, state, and national levels. These programs serve a wide variety of clientele and stakeholders, encompassing a broad array of themes and technical foci. In 1965, the original agricultural leadership development program called the Kellogg Farmers Study Program was created at Michigan State University (W.K. Kellogg Foundation, n.d.). Today, approximately 40 states host adult leadership programs with an agriculture and/or rural community development focus (J. Waldrum, personal communication, October 7, 2018). Most of these programs are similar in design components; however, curriculum content and structure of individual seminars vary from state to state. McKee, Carter, and Kent (2018) report that on average, these programs deliver education through 10 seminars or meetings over 19 months and have an average class size of 22 participants. Programs utilize a variety of teaching methods including lecture, field tours, external facilitators, workshops, and others (McKee, Carter, & Kent, 2018). The vast majority of programs hold a seminar in Washington, D.C., as well as an out of country seminar (McKee, Carter, & Kent, 2018). However, one component that seems to be less consistent across programs is the inclusion of an inter-state exchange seminar.

The Thad Cochran Agricultural Leadership Program (TCALP) began in 2017. Mississippi State University Extension Service launched TCALP to meet the increasing need for leadership within the state's agriculture and support industries. TCALP was developed on the well-established model of program structure and content refined by programs across the country since 1965. Applications were solicited for the first class of participants throughout the spring of 2017. A committee reviewed the applications, conducted interviews, and selected qualified candidates. TCALP includes nine seminars over the course of 22 months. Six seminars occur in state and are hosted at or near regional Research and Extension Centers as well as the main university campus. Like the majority of other programs, we hold seminars in Washington, D.C. and an international location. In addition to these travel seminars, we chose to include a trip to another state to investigate crosscutting agricultural issues with nation-wide implications. In-state seminars include 2 ½ days of instruction. Out-of-state seminars range from 5 days to 10 days. Each seminar has a theme with related learning objectives. Learning objectives for each seminar include leadership development objectives as well as knowledge objectives related to the agriculture, forestry, and natural resources industries.

Review of Related Scholarship

Teaching adults poses unique challenges. Kaoun (2019) suggested combining Knowles's principles of andragogy with Kolb's experiential learning theory as a framework upon which to develop adult education. Knowles (1984) articulated five assumptions regarding adult learners. These assumptions can be used as guiding principles for educators.

1. As a person matures, his or her self-concept moves from that of a dependent personality toward one of a self-directing human being.
2. An adult accumulates a growing reservoir of experience, which is a rich resource for learning.
3. The readiness of an adult to learn is closely related to the developmental tasks of his or her social role.
4. There is a change in time perspective as people mature, from future application of knowledge to immediacy of application. Thus, an adult is more problem-centered than subject-centered in learning.
5. Adults' motivation it learn is internal.

According to Kolb's (1984), "Learning is the process whereby knowledge is created through the transformation of experience" (p. 38). Experiential learning is achieved as the learner progresses through four stages: concrete experience, reflective observation, abstract conceptualization, and active experimentation. During concrete experience, the learner has the experience. This is followed by reflective observation, where the learner will review or reflect on the experience. Reflecting allows the learner to develop a new idea or modify an existing one, analyzing and drawing conclusions during the abstract conceptualization stage. The learner then actively experiments, applying these new ideas and conclusions to future situations.

These two widely known models laid the foundation for the development of the inter-state exchange for TCALP.

Description of the Practice

Arizona was selected for the inter-state exchange destination for TCALP Class 1. The executive director of Project CENTRL, Arizona's equivalent rural leadership development program, assisted with planning and implementation of the seminar. The learning objectives for this seminar were:

1) Compare and contrast water issues related to quantity, quality, agricultural use, and municipal use in Arizona and Mississippi.
2) Increase knowledge regarding the intersection of food security, food safety, migrant labor, and border security.
3) Experience and analyze challenges and opportunities of agricultural production in Yuma, Arizona.
4) Network with experts, elected officials and Project CENTRL current class members and alumni regarding the topics presented throughout the seminar.

5) Explore how an Arizona Town Hall is conducted to bring diverse perspectives and gain skills in using "civil discourse" to achieve a more productive dialog on divisive issues.

Eight of the nine TCALP Class 1 members met in Las Vegas, Nevada on Monday, January 21, 2019, to begin the seminar. One class member was unable to attend due to work requirements. This was the sixth of nine total seminars the cohort will complete. Together, the group traveled from Las Vegas to Yuma over the course of five days, returning to Phoenix on the sixth day. A full itinerary is included in the appendix, however, stops included Lake Meade and the Hoover Dam, the Grand Canyon, Cottonwood, Tempe, Scottsdale, and Yuma. A combination of field tours, group and panel discussions, lectures and other methods were utilized throughout the seminar. We arrived in Yuma on Thursday, January 24, where we joined the current Project CENTRL class members. The groups traveled and learned together until our departure back to Phoenix on Saturday, January 26.

A graduate assistant for TCALP attended the seminar to conduct evaluation, collecting qualitative data from selected class members and recording her observations. Using a moderator's guide, she interviewed five class members on Monday, January 21 as we began our seminar. She interviewed those same class members again on Saturday, January 26 as we concluded the seminar. All interviews were recorded, transcribed, and analyzed to better understand program participants' expectations and perceived value of the inter-state seminar. The interview data were combined with her observations for a more robust representation of the actual seminar.

Discussion of Outcomes/Results

The purpose of the Thad Cochran Agricultural Leadership Program is to provide rigorous and relevant education, increasing the leadership capacity within the agriculture and natural resources industries in Mississippi. As part of the initial application, demographic information, agricultural interest, and developmental goals were recorded for each class member. Applicants also prioritized the planned learning experiences the program would encompass based on what was most relevant to their needs. This information was used to inform the content of seminars throughout the program, including the seminar in Arizona. In order to better understand participant perceptions of the inter-state exchange, five TCALP participants were interviewed.

Alpha is a manager in an ag lending firm. She is employed full time and her spouse manages around 300 head of cattle at their ranch. Alpha ranked experiencing agriculture in another state low on her priority for the learning experiences. Alpha is also the only female in the group.

Bravo is the owner of a row crop farm and is self-employed. He also runs a trucking company. Bravo sought participation in TCALP specifically to develop his agribusiness skills. Bravo ranked experiencing agriculture in another state low on his priority for the learning experiences.

Charlie is the manager and co-owner of a diversified farming operation. He grows row crops, cattle, and catfish. Charlie ranked experiencing agriculture in another state low on his priority for the learning experiences. Charlie is the youngest member of the group.

Delta is a regional harvest and transportation manager for a timber company. He also ranked experiencing agriculture in another state low on his priority for the learning experiences.

Echo is the owner and operator of a hog farm and harvesting facility. He ranked experiencing agriculture in another state lowest on his priority for the learning experiences.

Participant interviews revealed two overarching themes, content and structure. Content included three sub-themes. Collaboration is key, crosscutting issues in agriculture exist and benefit from networking, and seeking similarities while also appreciating diversity. Structure included the sub-themes building practice into the structure of the program and networking and meeting/interacting with others.

Content

Collaboration is Key.

All five of the participants agreed that collaboration plays a large and essential role in the leadership of agricultural industries; members indicated collaboration was important between members within the industry but also across industries. Beta explained that one of his take-aways from learning about Arizona's water policies was the collaboration between different interest groups. "You got to work together for the common goal because if they were to just dig in and each interest group only focused on themselves they wouldn't be able to solve the problem…" Delta pointed out the agriculture industries must collaborate to create a larger representation when presented with political issues. "I think we must because at the end of the day, it's all about the votes and it's all about getting the majority to be the drivers behind a topic. Ag is a large industry providing for the masses, but it's a small group of people working in that industry. I think we've got to get some collaboration outside of our industry."

Crosscutting Issues Exit and Benefit from Networking/Unification.

Participants acknowledged that there many of the same issues that producers face in Arizona can be related to their home state of Mississippi. Bravo and Charlie spoke specifically about water sourcing and rights issues that Arizona faces, saying that their own industries in Mississippi have the potential to face the same concern. Echo pointed out that seeing Arizona's interest groups collaborating on water issues makes him want to become more proactive in his home state about similar issues, "...I was very impressed by the way Arizona has all the things they've done with the water problems... There's a lot to be learned there specifically to taking care of water, but also the way in which they were proactive." Charlie said that experiencing the talks about water he has a better understanding of how a unified voice on an issue, despite differing interests, has a much more powerful effect in creating a political voice. Echo said, "The agriculture industries are going to have to stick together on a lot of common interests. There should be plenty of common ground that we can do that."

Seek Similarities/Appreciate Diversity.

Mississippi and Arizona differ greatly in their agriculture commodity groups. Participants recognized that Arizona has different niches in agriculture, yet were open about seeking diversity that might relate to their home state. Charlie believes innovation can be taken from best practices in other states and incorporated into his own operation. Other participants, including Echo, focused on the diversity of management styles from differing industries, leadership styles, and how their grassroots organizations are run, indicating those were observations he could apply to his life. Delta pointed out, "One of the most important things I've seen within our organization is having a diverse group generating diverse thinking. If everybody thought like me, we'd probably be out of business quick. It really pays dividends to go visit with different backgrounds, different cultures to see how they think and address some of the same problems we face back home." Despite Arizona's different commodity interests, Delta acknowledged that many of the issues he faces as an agriculturist, such as transportation and labor, are experienced nationwide.

Structure

Building Practice into the Structure of the Program.

Adult learners are often self-directed. TCALP participants alluded to a desire to take on more roles within the program that would allow them to direct their learning. Even though Bravo does not particularly enjoy exercises that bring him out of his comfort zone, he realizes that they are impactful on his educational experience, "...continue to bring us out of our comfort zone and cause I think we're going to be doing less kind of site seeing and maybe more class time and just push us to improve and public speaking and our comfort level with things like that and I think those are good things..." Many of the members expressed that at this point in the program, they are less interested in learning about agricultural commodities and would prefer more insight on how to become involved in leadership roles, specifically becoming more involved with their legislators. Echo said he would like help with the "next step" of interacting with other leaders, as he has a drive to become connected with his legislator and has been trying to build his contacts in his community. Participants noticed the members of Project CENTRL had assigned leadership roles within their seminar, and indicated that might be important to incorporate in TCALP.

Networking and Meeting/Interacting with Others.

A unique experience from this out-of-state seminar was TCALP's opportunity to merge with Project CENTRL. Participants spoke about the benefit of interacting with another leadership group. Project CENTRL is primarily focused on rural development and many members are not directly involved with agriculture. Alpha stated interacting with Project CENTRL members was beneficial from an educational or networking standpoint. She said for some it was definitely educational, and if one chose to become more involved with federal level organizations there was now an opportunity to use networking with that connection. Delta confirmed this, indicating he interacted with a Project CENTRL class member that experienced many of the same issues he does, only with another product. They exchanged contacts intending to work together to resolve issues in the future. Delta says, "The more people you can network with, especially diverse groups, the stronger leader you will be."

Reflections of the Practitioner

The feedback received from the class participants was mostly positive, with some constructive criticism. Concluding their interviews, while there were varying opinions regarding the length of the seminar, all participants identified multiple benefits and aspects they enjoyed. With regard to Knowles's (1984) generalizations, it was clear that internal motivations differed and as such, class members sought out different experiences throughout the seminar. Indeed their experiences shaped how they approached the learning and dictated where they seemed to be most engaged. Finally, given the objectives of the seminar were intentionally related to timely and relevant issues in the agriculture industry, most participants were able to identify specific "urgent" learning and conceptualize how they would apply it in their own life or operation. This indicates progression through Kolb's (1984) experiential learning cycle as well, as we heard participants reflect on their experiences in Arizona, analyze them, and conceptualize how they might apply in Mississippi.

The seminar was well planned and flowed according to plan. Only two components of the original plan did not occur because of the government shutdown. Upon review of the sub-themes related to content, I was pleased to see class members identifying learning they could apply to their own lives and operations. We take great care to consider our class members' interests and development goals in planning seminar content. However, in evaluations of previous seminars it seemed they struggled to find value in some of the content provided. Regarding the structural components, I was pleased to hear a desire for more responsibility. Knowles's principles indicate that adults are self-directed and must understand why they need to learn something. Oftentimes, it is unclear if the adults in this program believe they "need" some of the learning experiences we present, particularly those that "move them out of their comfort zone". Their interaction with another class who readily rises to those expectations gave me confidence in integrating those learning opportunities into the structure of TCALP.

Recommendations

I would recommend other practitioners consider the opportunity to add value to a leadership development class through and inter-state exchange. Several logistical considerations must be made including budget, length of trip, crosscutting issues, diversity and similarity of agricultural production, and appropriate time of year. Initially, we planned to travel in June, but upon recommendation of the other program, we changed our travel dates to coincide with harvest for that area. The adjustment was crucial to the success of the program. In addition, I recommend providing means of reflection for participants to insure the trip is experiential learning and not just sight-seeing. Finally, it was important for those participants interviewed to be able to speak freely, especially with constructive criticism. They met the graduate assistant for the first time on that trip and thus had no prior connection or apprehension to answering her questions, which helped to provide an accurate assessment of their perceived value of the seminar.

References

McKee, V., Carter, H. S., & Kent, K. (2018). A Comprehensive Review of IAPAL Programming. UF/IFAS Center for Leadership: Gainesville, FL.

Kaoun, T. M. (2019). Enhancing Leaders' Emotional Intelligence: Why Mindfulness? Journal of Leadership Education, 18(1), 207-208. doi: 10.12806/V18/I1/T2

Knowles, M. S. (1984). *The adult learner: A neglected species* (3rd ed.). Houston: Gulf.

Kolb, D. A. (1984). *Experiential learning: Experience as the source of learning and development*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

W.K. Kellogg Foundation (n.d.) The Legacy of the Ag Leadership Development Program: Rich Heritage Cultivates Future Opportunities. Retrieved from: https://www.wkkf.org/~/media/ECECC15737E84FAFAFAB08CC1BCFEA6F.ashx

Appendix

Monday, January 21, 2019
Attire: Business casual; dress jeans or slacks and collared shirt.

12:30pm Depart Hampton Suite for Hoover Dam/Lake Meade

2:00 pm Hoover Dam visitors center

4:00 pm Depart Hoover Dam for Grand Canyon, south rim

7:30 pm Arrive, Grand Canyon, south rim
https://www.nps.gov/grca/index.htm
Hotel: Maswik Lodge
https://www.grandcanyonlodges.com/lodging/maswik-lodge/

Tuesday, January 22, 2019
Attire: Business casual; dress jeans or slacks and collared shirt.

Morning Explore Grand Canyon south rim *(on your own)*

10:00 am Depart Maswik Lodge for Cottonwood

12:30 pm Arrive, Cottonwood Water Reclamation Facility
Welcome by Yavapai County Supervisor Randi Garrison, Lunch
1:30 pm Presentation: Partnerships for revitalization of Old Town Cottonwood
Casey Rooney (CENTRL Class 21), City of Cottonwood Economic Development Director

- Tom Whitmer, City of Cottonwood Natural Resource Manager

4:00 pm Southwest Wine Center

Evening Hotel: The Tavern Hotel

Dinner *On your own* in Old Town Cottonwood

Wednesday, January 23, 2019
Attire: Business professional; Slacks, tie, and jacket for men, Slacks/skirt and blouse, or dress, and jacket.

7:30 am Depart Cottonwood for Tempe

10:00 am Salt River Project, Talk and tour of the Heritage Center

11:30 pm Luncheon

2:00 pm TPC Scottsdale

Scottsdale Water Campus

4:00 pm Hotel: DoubleTree Resort

Evening Free, dinner on your own

Thursday, January 24, 2019
*Attire: Business casual; Slacks (*no jeans for the evening event) and collared shirt*
8:00 am Central Arizona Project

10:00 am Freeport McMoRan, Inc.

2:30 pm Arrive, Yuma
Hotel: Holiday Inn Express

** **For the remainder of our time, we will join Project CENTRL Class 27 ****
5:30 pm Networking and dinner with Project CENTRL Class 27
please remember, no jeans

6:00 pm Yuma Water Districts Panel
CENTRL Class Chair: Tabatha Langland
Moderated by Paul Brierley, CENTRL Class 16, Executive Director, US Yuma Center for Excellence in Desert Agriculture
Panelists: Tom Davis, Manger, Yuma County Water Users' Assoc.
Wade Noble, Attorney at Law Specializing in Water
Elston Grubaugh, General Manager, Welton-Mohawk Irrigation & Drainage District
Lynne Pancarzi, Yuma County Supervisor, District 5

7:00 pm Return to hotel

Friday, January 25, 2019
Note: Bus will NOT be returning to the hotel until the end of the study tour. Bring a warm coat and any other personal items that may be needed during the day.
Attire: Farm/Field Tours: Jeans ok, closed toe shoes required, WARM clothes and layers
We leave very early in the morning and it will be cold, but will warm throughout the day. Scott stressed layers when we talked about attire.

4:45 am Depart Holiday Inn Express for San Luis Port of Entry
Highway 95 & International Border, San Luis, AZ 85349
Class Chair: Lucy Valencia
Tour Guides: Sonny Rodrigues, Class 12
Jose Solorzano, Class 16

5:45 am The Walk of the Farm Worker

6:15 am Session at San Luis I (Pedestrian and Private Vehicle) and
Port of Entry II (Commercial use only)
John Schwamm, Port Director
Chris Leon, Assistant Port Director
Tom Schmunk, Assistant Port Director

8:15 am Breakfast on the Street

8:45 am Agriculture, Labor, and Immigration FIELD TOURS
Sonny Rodriguez, Class 12, President, The Growers Company, Inc.

11:45 am Depart for Takii Seed
Noon Hosted Luncheon and Presentation
Class Chair: Emily Hagen
Jose Solorzano, Class 14
Research Station Manager, Takii Seed
Past President, Seed Trade Association of Arizona

1:15 pm Depart for U.S. Border Patrol Office- Yuma Sector Headquarters

1:30 pm Presentation on U.S. Border Patrol - YUMA SECTOR HEADQUARTERS
Class Chair: Chris McCormack
John Fountai, Assistant Chief
Alfredo Prieto, Operations' Officer U.S. Border Patrol

2:45 pm Depart for GREENGATE FRESH SALAD PLANT

3:00 pm Presentation, Greengate Fresh Salad Plant
Class Chair: Eric Wofford
Walter Hepner, Director of Operations, GreenGate Fresh Salad

4:15 pm Depart for Downtown Yuma, Lee Hotel/Gowan Company
4:30 pm Dinner, Lee Hotel/Gowan Co.

5:00 pm Food Safety Panel
Class Chair: Kami Weddle
Moderated by Paul Brierley, Class 16
Panel: John Boelts, Yume Farmer and Agriculture Advocate
Channah Rock, US Assoc. Professor & Extension Specialist- Water quality
Vicki Scott, Director, Food Safety Amigo Farms & Yuma Safe Produce Council

6:30 pm Returns to hotel *Option to stay in Downtown and taxi/uber/lyft on your own

Saturday, January 26, 2019
Attire: Farm/Field Tours; Jeans ok, closed toe shoes required

7:45 am Check out and load bus

8:00 am Overview of Arizona "Town Hall"
Class Chair: Anna Chaulk

8:20 am Mini Town Hall #1
Question: How does Arizona speak with one voice about water security in a diverse environment?

8:45 am Mini Town Hall #2:
Question: How can the agricultural community most effectively and efficiently communicate to the widest audience the measures take to ensure a safe and reliable food supply?

9:10 am Debrief

9:30 am Break and Pick up Boxed Lunches
9:30 am Depart for Five Rivers Cattle Feeding
McElhaney Feedyard

10:15 am Tour McElhaney Feedyard

^11:30 am Depart for Sunset Farms/Paloma Dairy (1.5hrs)

1:00 pm Tour Sunset Farms/Paloma Dairy
Robert Van Hofwegen, XIX

2:00 pm Seminar concludes, depart for Phoenix to hotel
DoubleTree Resort

Sunday, January 27, 2019

Return home, Fly out of Phoenix

^ If Paloma Dairy is unavailable, we will travel instead to
Kerr Dairy, (2 hrs)
Bill (Class 27) and Sine (Class 22) Kerr; son Wes Kerr (Class 20)

A Service-Learning introduction of the Beliefs, Events Values Inventory (BEVI) as a Method of Building a Culture of Leadership

Abstract

We will introduce the Beliefs, Events Values Inventory (BEVI) as it relates to intercultural leadership competencies and the National Leadership Education Research Agenda's (NLERA) 2013-2018 priority areas. Many of the competencies in NLERA's agenda align with the goals and processes of transformative learning (TL) theory, and the BEVI instrument is well-suited to supporting the development and evaluation of TL outcomes and processes. By presenting this case study example, an international service-learning program to Haiti for agricultural majors, participants will better understand how the BEVI can be used to address pedagogical priority areas in the leadership education research agenda for both the teaching, learning and curriculum development process and programmatic assessment and evaluation. The BEVI may be employed as a pedagogical tool to help scaffold a learner's understanding of social identity and development, psychological capacity, and global and intercultural leadership. The BEVI also offers instructors insight into aspects of group members' worldviews that may facilitate or hinder their engagement within the educational experience. These insights are especially critical for both instructor and student when learning outcomes include developing intercultural competencies, adaptive and critical thinking, and a willingness to engage and attempt to resolve complex, real-world problems. If administered in a pre/post experience, the instrument may also capture evidence of transformative learning and can be used to gauge a program's effectiveness.

Introduction

One of the learning outcomes of the undergraduate International Engagement Methods and Food Security service-learning course to Haiti is "to demonstrate intercultural knowledge and effectiveness to successfully communicate, understand, and interact among people with differing assumptions that exist because of ethnic and cultural differences." A growing body of evidence indicates that who a learner is, i.e. how the individual views the self, the larger world, and interactions - dramatically influences how an educational program is experienced and whether the intended learning outcomes are attained (Wandschneider et al., 2015). The effects of learners' worldviews and values are especially relevant when the learning outcomes include: developing intercultural competency (ICC), i.e. "a set of cognitive, affective, and behavioral skills and characteristics that support effective and appropriate interaction in a variety of cultural contexts" (Bennett, 2008, pp. 95-110); critical self-awareness; critical thinking; and successful collaboration between learners and community partners which result in satisfactory, co-developed interventions. Developing leaders' capacities for ICC is essential, as it is "through a deeper understanding of self and the predispositions and biases we possess, individuals can begin to deconstruct expectations and more fully engage in the opportunity to share culture and develop sustainable relationships in international contexts" (Andenoro, Popa, Bletscher, & Albert, 2012, p. 106).

To find an affordable and validated framework to assess learning outcomes and to help scaffold students' exploration of their own cultural assumptions, we were introduced to the Beliefs, Events Values Inventory (BEVI) and its theoretical framework, Equilintegration (EI)

Theory (Shealy, 2105). The learner objectives of this session are that participants will 1) become aware of the instrument and model and 2) understand how it can be applied to establish affective characteristics of a cohort and assess change resulting from intentional interventions.

Description of the International Program

A sequence of three service-learning courses is offered annually with a 10-day immersive experience in Cap Haitien, Haiti at its core.[1] The mission is "to inspire, engage, and teach Purdue and Haitian students through service-learning in agriculture." Using established partner relationships, students work with international partners to address identified challenges to learn the principles of extension methodology and sustainable community development by integrating their discipline knowledge and technical skills from previous courses. Students learn the intercultural competencies needed for engagement, market analysis, project design and planning, business planning for micro-credit loans and business ventures, and cultural factors affecting community food security while they work in bi-national teams.

During the winter break in Cap Haitien, students: make entries into a daily journal; complete three qualitative and quantitative "Guided Reflection Journals"; work in teams with Haitian university students to organize, deliver, and evaluate the effectiveness of their presentation/demonstration at an International Agri-Symposium with approximately 100 students in attendance. Upon return to the evaluating course, student teams: document their projects; write a team reflection article; submit a revised Symposium lesson plan; create a three-minute individual reflective video; write a "Community Partner Snapshot"; and plan the improvements and direction for the next class of students who will begin the process in the subsequent fall semester.

The BEVI was administered after students' international travel to facilitate students' understanding of their value systems and worldviews. Students were also requested to complete a T2 BEVI in order to assess two learning outcomes attached to the entire 3-credit sequence: to "demonstrate intercultural knowledge and effectiveness to successfully communicate, understand, and interact among people with differing assumptions that exist because of ethnic and cultural differences;" and to "demonstrate critical thinking and emotional intelligence in evaluation of what is read and heard by using data and reasoning to identify and assess opportunities and develop sound responses to complex problems in a rural international village setting." A trained BEVI administer conducted a debriefing session in which intra-group differences were discussed as well as how the group adhered to or departed from patterns of response typically observed in other undergraduate groups (Wandschneider et al., 2015). In addition to the BEVI, several other materials and activities such as the Abridged Scale of Ethno-cultural Empathy, Intercultural Attitudes, Skills, and Knowledge Short Scale (A.S.K.S2+), a Who am I? Social/Cultural Identity exercise, and Haitian Cultural research were used to support students' learning and development.

[1] Syllabi for the three courses, Planning for International Engagement Methods, International Engagement Methods, and Evaluating International Engagement Methods, will be provided at the ALE session.

Review of Related Scholarship

To support the development of leaders capable of powerful, transformative engagement with community stakeholders and within organizational contexts, individuals themselves typically must first be transformed. Within the field of leadership education, this emphasis on transformation and collaboration are often associated with leadership styles such as transformational leadership (Northouse, 2018), servant leadership (Greenleaf, 1970) and charismatic leadership (Conger & N. Kanungo, 1987). More recently, the Association of Leadership Educators (ALE)'s inaugural effort defined leadership education and clarified the focus and direction of leadership education research in ways related to these more adaptive and transformative perspectives on leadership education. Specifically, the National Leadership Education Research Agenda 2013-2018 (Andenoro et al., 2013) highlighted the need to expand the current frameworks for immersive international experiences and to conduct research on these types of learning opportunities Kuh (2008) describes as potentially high-impact pedagogies. The Agenda also emphasized the "expansion of understanding for intercultural competences" as they relate to Leadership Education and development" (p. 27).

The authors organized NERLA 2013-2018 around seven priority areas, two of which address pedagogical priorities and five which address content-based priorities. The latter, the "Applied What and Who of Leadership Education" suggest a broad set of competencies, knowledge, values, abilities, and behaviors that are required if leaders are to negotiate cultural complexities of a global society, work in concert with stakeholders, and accommodate the adaptive needs of organizations (Lictenstein et al, 2006). The five content areas are all germane to the learning outcomes of the Haiti program. They are:

- Priority #3: The Psychological Development of Leaders, Followers, & Learners
- Priority #4: The Sociological Development of Leaders, Followers, & Learners
- Priority #5: The Influences of Social Identity
- Priority #6: Social Change and Community Development
- Priority #7: Global and Intercultural Capacity

Andenoro et al., 2013, p. 13-25

These content-based priority areas are marked by a subtle shift to place "renewed emphasis on capacity building within the individuals" (p. 29). Transformative learning (TL) theory (Cranton, 2006; Hoggan, 2015; Mezirow, 1978, 2000), which originally emerged from the field of andragogy over 40 years ago, may be particularly well-suited to this end. According to Bamber (Bamber, 2015) who conceives TL as "a process of becoming" (p. 29):

> For transformative learning conceived holistically, knowing emerges from a way of being, not vice versa… From this view, education must be concerned less with knowledge acquisition and more with supporting individuals as they move into alternative modes of being… (p. 29)

Over the past decades, the field of TL has wrestled with: defining how individuals and groups undergo "processes that result in significant and irreversible changes in the way a person experiences, conceptualizes, and interacts with the world" (Hoggan, 2015, p. 71); the relationship between learning experiences and significant changes to the self; and how to assess these changes. Ideally, the "end result of transformative learning is that one is empowered by learning to be more socially responsible, self-directed, and less dependent on false assumptions" (Kiely, 2005, p. 7) – outcomes which seem highly aligned with the previously noted priority areas. Within higher education, TL Theory is frequently applied to high impact learning experiences such as ISL, internships, and learning communities (Bamber, 2016).

In addition, TL Theory contributed to the development of the EI Theory and the BEVI. The BEVI, consequently, can likely capture evidence of TL. Here we reach a point of confluence: the goals of the Haiti ISL program and course series, and, incidentally, the priority areas of the NERLA 2013-18 fall within the purview of TL. Given that the BEVI theoretically would measure TL, the instrument appeared to be a highly promising tool to assess program participants' learning. Practitioners and researchers in leadership education practitioners should also be made aware of the inventory and investigate its utility in advancing the field's priority areas.

Description of the Instrument

The BEVI, which has been in development since the 1990s, focuses on capturing who learners are, and can be used as an assessment tool when educational interventions and outcomes are related to significant changes to the self. The BEVI emerged from Equilintegration (EI) Theory, a framework that seeks to explain "the processes by which beliefs, values, and 'worldviews' are acquired and maintained, why their alteration is typically resisted, and how and under what circumstances their modification occurs" (Shealy, 2004, p. 1075). Applied to the educational research, the BEVI can provide insight into "who learns what, why, and under what circumstances" (Shealy, 2015). Researchers and practitioners have recently operationalized the BEVI to assess TL (Acheson, Dirkx, Ullum, Kapadia, & Bhuyan, in press), global identity (Wang, 2018), ICC, and numerous studies have provided robust evidence of the validity of the instrument (Wandschneider et al., 2015).

The web-based instrument takes between 25-45 minutes to complete. After completing a series of demographic questions, students provide Likert-type responses to 185 belief statements (e.g.: "Men and women are simply different.") which are associated with the seven BEVI domains (e.g.: "Self-Access" and "Other-Access") and 17 subscales. Scales of particular relevance to the Haiti program include: Basic Determinism, Basic Openness, Sociocultural Openness, Ecological Resonance, and Global Resonance (See Appendix A for an overview of the domains and subscales). Qualitative data is also collected via open ended response questions.

The BEVI can reveal complex patterns within and between groups and can demonstrate how people grow and change over time. Students receive their reports in narrative form, however multiple types of de-identified, quantitative group reports are shared with the instructors by a trained BEVI administrator. The reports can provide instructors insight into within-group dynamics which may facilitate or hinder learning. For example, the decile report, which shows the percentage of the group falls within a 10-point decile on each of the scales. The breakdown

of the deciles may show diverse, bi-modal, or homogenous distributions and can reveal salient features of the class that may be otherwise obscured by group means. Instructors may, for example, structure activities and group discussions differently if a group appears to have highly polarized beliefs. Figure 1, demonstrates the decile profile from the Haiti group. Indeed, on some scales the group was polarized. For Scale 1. Negative Life Events, 42 percent reported exceptionally high levels of negative life events while 48 percent of the class reported exceptionally low levels, i.e. reporting in the first and second deciles. This scale and Global Resonance have a bi-modal distribution which suggests the group may have polarized values and beliefs in these areas.

1. Negative Life Events	37%	11%	0%	0%	5%	5%	0%	0%	0%	42%
2. Needs Closure	47%	5%	0%	5%	0%	5%	0%	5%	5%	26%
3. Needs Fulfillment	26%	16%	5%	11%	0%	5%	11%	0%	0%	26%
4. Identity Diffusion	37%	11%	5%	0%	11%	0%	0%	5%	11%	21%
5. Basic Openness	21%	0%	21%	21%	0%	0%	11%	5%	0%	21%
6. Self Certitude	26%	5%	0%	16%	0%	16%	5%	5%	5%	21%
7. Basic Determinism	37%	5%	11%	11%	0%	0%	5%	0%	11%	21%
8. Socioemotional Convergence	21%	5%	16%	5%	11%	5%	0%	0%	11%	26%
9. Physical Resonance	21%	0%	5%	5%	5%	21%	5%	5%	5%	26%
10. Emotional Attunement	26%	0%	5%	16%	5%	16%	0%	5%	0%	26%
11. Self Awareness	21%	0%	0%	5%	11%	0%	32%	0%	5%	26%
12. Meaning Quest	42%	5%	11%	11%	0%	0%	5%	0%	5%	21%
13. Religious Traditionalism	16%	0%	11%	5%	16%	5%	0%	11%	5%	32%
14. Gender Traditionalism	32%	11%	11%	5%	11%	5%	0%	0%	0%	26%
15. Sociocultural Openness	26%	5%	11%	0%	0%	11%	5%	0%	5%	37%
16. Ecological Resonance	26%	11%	5%	0%	11%	0%	11%	5%	5%	26%
17. Global Resonance	21%	5%	16%	5%	0%	0%	11%	5%	16%	21%
Deciles:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

Figure 1: The decile report for the Haiti participants at T1.

With 21 percent of the class at one extreme of the Global Resonance scale and 21 percent at the other extreme and no students in the middle, imagine, for example, the vastly disparate perspectives on global governing bodies like the United Nations and students' responses to the recommendations of expert groups such as Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change. In contrast, if the BEVI profiles suggest that a group has overwhelmingly similar profiles, groupthink may need to be addressed and diverse perspectives more intentionally added to the experience. BEVI profiles can be viewed by several the demographic factors collected such as gender, ethnicity, nationality, and political affiliation.

One of the most essential group reports is the aggregate profile report; it presents aggregated background information, the results of two validity measures, the group mean averages on each of the 17 scales, and averages of a composite score called the BEVI Full Scale score (FSS). The FSS provides a numerical value which captures the "core essence" of what the

BEVI measures by compiling and computing the result of 11 of the 14 scales. Some scales contribute positively to the FSS (e.g. Basic Openness, Emotional Attunement, Global Resonance etc.) while others contribute negatively (e.g. Basic Determinism and Needs Closure). Average group FSS are calculated. The FSS provide a snapshot of who students are at the start of the program, and in post-test scenarios, how they may have changed because of a learning experience. Higher FSS or gains in FSS are typically preferred by those administering the BEVI for assessment.

Whereas the BEVI itself is neutral, making no claims as to a preferred worldview, the FSS is highly aligned with TL Theory, the processes and goals associated with ICC, and the learning outcomes for the Haiti ISL course series. The FSS is predicated on perspective supported by a vast, interdisciplinary literature base that indicates that there are intra-personally healthier, interpersonally more effective, and societally more productive ways of understanding the self, others, and the larger world (Shealy, 2015). These include basic openness; receptivity to different cultures, religions, and social practices; the tendency (or not) to stereotype in particular ways; a preference for complex versus simplistic explanations; self and emotional awareness; and preferred but implicit strategies for making sense of why "other" people and cultures "do what they do" (Wandschneider et al., 2015). BEVI profiles can identify "open" individuals whose worldviews prime them for gains in learning objectives such as increases in ICC as well as identify those who are more "closed" to TL, i.e. individuals who are less likely to experience alterations to their beliefs. This difference in baseline orientations has significant implications for program assessment, as it could be highly successful for some students but not for others.

Discussion of Outcomes/Results

Only five of the class of 14 completed both T1 and T2, and this does not a permit a valid quantitative assessment of the program as intended. We would have hoped to have seen increases in the average FSS. However, here we present the pre-experience (T1) results to demonstrate where the students were at the start of two-post experience classes and present how the instrument can be employed to inform pedagogical practice.

In group debriefing sessions, facilitators make note of similarities and differences among the group and how the group's result compare patterns that have emerged from large-scale, multi-institutional analyses (Shealy, 2015; Wandschneider et al., 2015). The group's aggregate BEVI profile is overall like the average aggregate profile of a large, US STEM university. (The Haiti students also attend a similar institution type.) Interestingly, the students of the Haiti program expressed an exceptionally high degree of religious traditionalism (71 vs. 44). As expected of a group electing to participate in an ISL experience, the global resonance score was higher than that the average (46 vs. 36). Motivations to participate in the program could possibly be related to the students' religious identities. Unique, highly specific findings such as this can be used to facilitate robust group discussion.

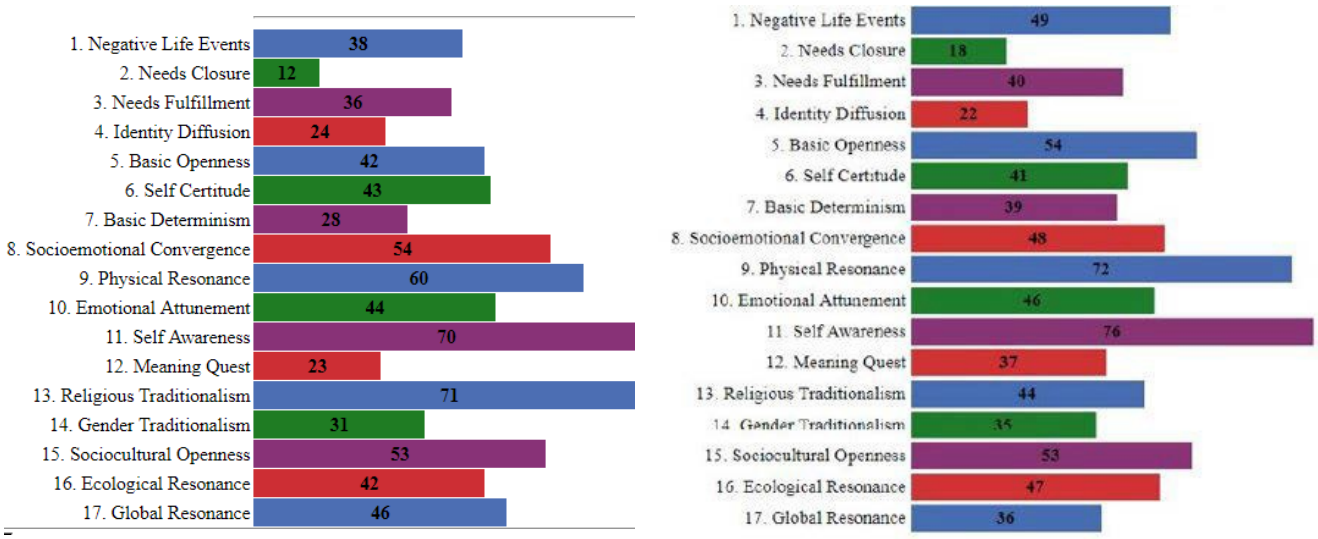


Figure 2: Aggregate BEVI profiles of the Haiti Program participants alongside that of an average aggregate profile of large, American STEM university.

In addition to a reporting a group's average FSS, the BEVI divides the group into thirds - lowest, middle, and top Full-Scale Score (FSS). These three groups are then used in the Profile Report to identify intragroup variation and/or similarity among the 17 scales. Among program participants, two scales, Need Closure and Basic Openness (figure 3), showed little variation among the high, middle, and low FSS groups. The fact that the Needs Closure values were lowis significant given that 42 percent of the class reported that they have experienced high levels of Negative Live Events. Paired together, this suggests that these participants have developed a high capacity for resilience.

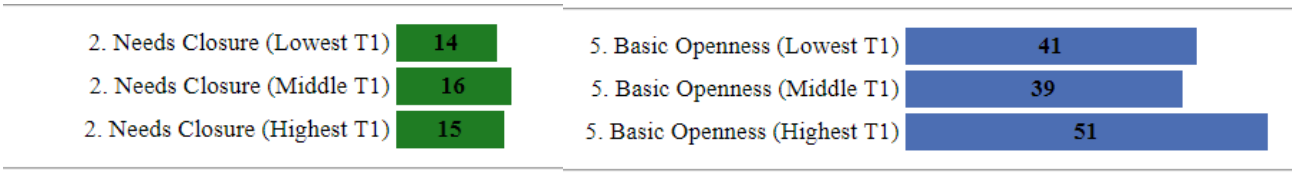


Figure 3: Two scales demonstrating little variation among the groups with low, medium, and high BEVI Full Scale Scores (FSS)

In contrast, in figure 4, we can see that the Self-Certitude and Basic Determinism scores are highest among the group with the lowest FSS profile score. This indicates that roughly a third of the group may be more impatient with difficulties and emphasizes positive thinking (e.g. "You can overcome almost any problem if you just try harder.") (Self-Certitude) and tend to prefer more black-and-white, simplistic explanations for differences and behaviors (Basic Determinism). While it is erroneous to describe high self-certitudes scores as undesirable in a general sense, when paired with high basic determinism scores it suggests that these learners are

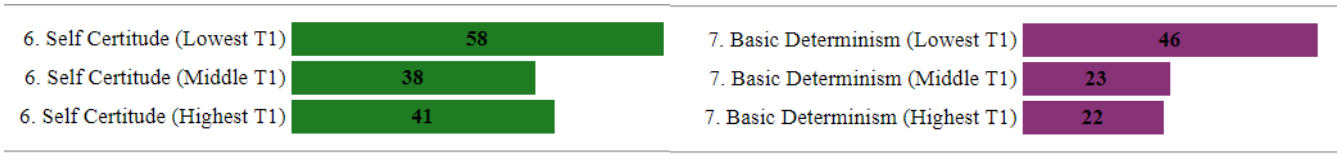


Figure 4: Two scales demonstrating that group with the lowest FSS have the greatest potential for change if the intended learning objectives for the programs were achieved.

more likely to express certitude that the way they view the world is the correct one. Ideally, scores would decrease post-experience for this group as students become more familiar with the nature of complex social problems and accept that there are neither simple explanations or solutions.

Many of the BEVI scales are positively and/or negatively correlated (Shealy, 2015). Many of the scales cluster into one of two positively correlated sets. However, the scales which comprise these sets are often negatively correlated. "Group A"(Negative Life Events, Basic Determinism, Religious Traditionalism, and Gender Traditionalism) have been found to be positively correlated to one another as are "Group B" (Basic Openness Sociocultural Openness, Emotional Attunement, Self-Awareness Ecological Resonance, and Global Resonance). Scales in either Group A and B, however, are often negatively correlated. These patterns emerged among the Haiti program participants. Figures 5 demonstrates the clear positive relationships among some scales (13 and 14; 15, 16, and 17) and negative correlations between the two groups (Groups A and B).

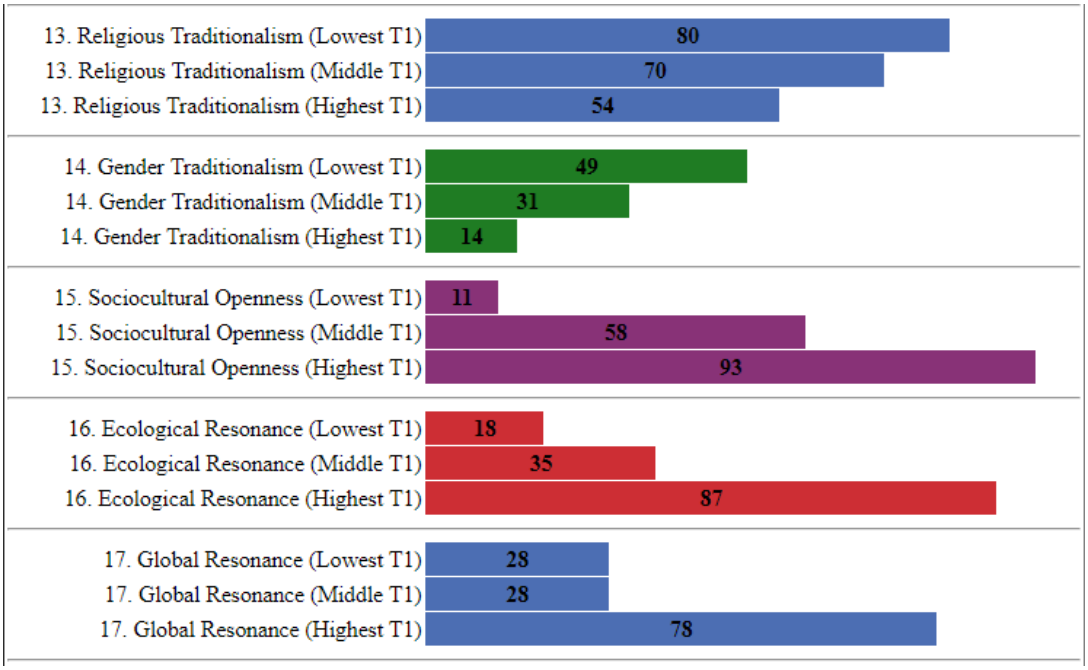


Figure 5: Positive and negative correlations scales. Notice the mirror pattern as clusters of scales appear to be inversely related.

As previously mentioned, profiles can be viewed by several demographic factors. Gender is one of the most commonly selected in debriefing sessions to discuss. Interestingly, the Haiti program participants reported highly atypical results - males scored higher on the Self Awareness (82 vs. 65), Sociocultural Openness (74 vs. 44), and Global Resonance (60 vs. 41) and a lower score on Gender Traditionalism (24 vs. 34) than the females. Several other intra-group differences could also be noted.

Finally, the BEVI inventory also asks open-ended qualitative questions which can be coded using the learning objectives as an assessment. The participants were asked:

- First, please describe which aspect of this experience has had the greatest impact upon you and why?
- Second, is there some aspect of your own 'self' or 'identity' (e.g., gender, ethnicity, sexual orientation, religious or political background, etc.) that has become especially clear or relevant to you or others as a result of this experience?
- Third, what are you learning or how are you different as a result of this experience?

Three students' responses to the last question may illustrate varying inclinations and capacities for self-reflection as well as the degree to which the in-country experience impacted the learner.

> Learner 1. I have learned what it means to be in poverty and exactly how important education is. I think it has changed my goal in life and why I am learning.
>
> Learner 2: I have learned that just because I am from rural Indiana does not mean I am the exact same as anyone else in the world. That I can use to capitalize on to set myself a part and grow as a person to then make a difference and impact in the world and on its inhabitants.
>
> Learner 3. To be honest, I don't really know.
>
> The questions are the last items presented in the lengthy instrument. Learner 3's response, could, to be honest, merely indicate assessment fatigue.

Reflections of the Practitioner

Instructors implementing high-impact pedagogical programs need validated instruments capable of assessing changes in the learners' worldview and self-perception that are both available and affordable. The BEVI is purchased via institutional license and typically offered free of cost to instructors and researchers. This contrasts with other proprietary instruments which charge a fee per assessment. However, a trained administrator must be available for the debrief to the participants and to assist with the interpretation. The use of the BEVI likely require some degree of organizational buy-in and support.

The BEVI can provide a wealth of information of who our students are and how they may have changed post-experience. However, the complexity of the instrument can seemingly provide too much information and prove overwhelming initially. Again, having access to a well-trained BEVI administrator and specialist is essential, especially for those new to the instrument. It would be even more beneficial if this administrator or possibly another curriculum expert could assist the instructor in converting the findings into actionable strategies for the current course and inform program refinement for future cohorts. It will be an evolving process of learning and articulating more clearly how the FSS and the 17 subscales relate to each of the core learning objectives of the Haiti course sequence and in what ways the T1 BEVI results can be used to maximize TL while the course is ongoing.

Collecting post-experience T2 BEVIs to measure TL outcomes may be an inherently fraught endeavor due to the nature of TL. Logistically, non-response rates to collect T2 BEVI data may be high, especially if the request is made after students have completed a program and feel less obligated to complete the lengthy assessment for a second time. It is important to note that there are many observations of a backlash effect as characterized by decreases in FSS and scores on subscales if a second assessment is conducted soon after the learning experience has ended (Wandschneider et al., 2015). TL theory anticipates this possibility, as TL is catalyzed by a "disorienting dilemmas" (Mezirow, 2000) and these significant events take time and proactive engagement to resolve. From the perspective of EI Theory, Wandersneider et. al (2015) explain the greater the discrepancy between an individual's native, deeply familiar cultures and a different, unfamiliar culture:

> the greater degree of potential "affective/cognitive shut down" occurs, as the "self" strives essentially to protect "its self" from the intensely experienced shock of such exposure, which may in qualitative terms be described as 'amazing' but nonetheless exerts a toll. (p. 184)

The experience, very simply, can cause students to regress away from the intended learning outcomes. Alternatively, lower T2 scores could be interpreted in a positive light - that the program was deeply impactful and succeeded in challenging the learner core beliefs. Administering the BEVI for a third time after the learner has had the opportunity to process the experience more thoroughly could clarify which is the more likely scenario. Indeed, Wanderscneider et al. (2015) reported findings a study abroad program that administered the BEVI at T1/T2/T3 with the third assessment conducted 10-22 months after the initial one. After a drop in all the scales which contribute positively to the FSS, they not only rebounded to levels higher than those at T1, several scores which contribute negatively also decreased. As predicted by EI and TL theories, this would be the very portrait of TL as operationalized by the instrument (See Appendix B).

Recommendations

As we seek quantitative instruments to help measure and support the complex, interrelated learning processes and outcomes such as those highlighted in NERLA 2013-18 and targeted by programs like the Haiti learning experience, the utility of the BEVI should continue

to be explored. The power of using the BEVI as an assessment lies in everyone completing the instrument at the beginning (T1) and at least the T2. Practitioners will likely have to become comfortable with the ambiguity of lower T2 scores collected near the end of an experience and the deeply unsettling possibility that students would have been better off having never participated in a program. Practitioners and researchers should therefore familiarize themselves with the literature on TL to better come to terms with this phenomenon. In addition, a T3 is likely necessary to make valid claims about the experience and to be aware that at immediate re-entry into a familiar culture after an intense and potentially "transformational experience" is a period in which the structure of the self may be in flux. If the experience successfully disturbed the self-structure, then students may need additional support in this phase to ensure that the reorganization is in the direction aligned with the learning objectives.

We believe, that when possible, the post-trip class is essential and raises a larger issue - that the learning outcomes targeted in high-impact pedagogies should be supported throughout students' coursework and validated by the culture of the organization. If we are serious about creating and evaluating TL experiences, we should continue to evaluate instruments that are theoretically and empirically validated like the BEVI no matter the difficulty doing so.

References

Acheson, K., Dirkx, J. M., Ullum, C., Kapadia, S., & Bhuyan, D. (in press). Operationalizing transformation of the self in high impact learning: Methodological considerations. In Shealy, Craig N (Ed.), *The globally sustainable self.* Oxford University Press.

Andenoro, A. C., Popa, A. B., Bletscher, C. G., & Albert, J. (2012). Storytelling as a vehicle for self-awareness: Establishing a foundation for intercultural competency development. *Journal of Leadership Studies*, *6*(2), 102–109.

Bamber, P. M. (2015). Becoming Other-wise: Transforming International Service-Learning Through Nurturing Cosmopolitanism. *Journal of Transformative Education*, *13*(1), 26–45. https://doi.org/10.1177/1541344614551636

Bamber, P. M. (2016). *Transformative Education through International Service-Learning Realising an ethical ecology of learning.* Routledge.

Bennett, J. M. (2008). Transformative training: Designing programs for culture learning. In Moodian, M.A. (Ed.), *Contemporary leadership and intercultural competence: Understanding and utilizing cultural diversity to build successful organizations* (pp. 95–110). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.

Conger, J., & N. Kanungo, R. (1987). Toward a Behavioral Theory of Charismatic Leadership in Organizational Settings. *Academy of Management Review*, *12*.

Cranton, P. (2006). *Understanding and promoting transformative learning : a guide for educators of adults* (2nd ed..). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Greenleaf, R. (1970). *The servant as leader*. Westfield, IN: The Greenleaf Center for Servant Leadership.

Hoggan, C. (2015). Transformative Learning as a Metatheory. *Adult Education Quarterly*. https://doi.org/10.1177/0741713615611216

Kiely, R. (2005). A transformative learning model for service-learning: A longitudinal case study. *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning*, *12*(1). Retrieved from http://quod.lib.umich.edu/m/mjcsl/3239521.0012.101?rgn=main;view=fulltext

Mezirow, J. (1978). Perspective Transformation. *Adult Education Quarterly*, *28*(2), 100–110. https://doi.org/10.1177/074171367802800202

Mezirow, J. (Ed.). (2000). *Learning as Transformation: Critical Perspectives on a Theory in Progress. The Jossey-Bass Higher and Adult Education Series*. Jossey-Bass Publishers, 350 Sansome Way, San Francisco, CA 94104.

Northouse, P. (2018). *Leadership Theory and Practice* (Eighth). SAGE.

Shealy, C. N., Dr. ,. PhD. (2015). *Making Sense of Beliefs and Values: Theory, Research, and Practice*. Retrieved from http://ebookcentral.proquest.com/lib/purdue/detail.action?docID=4206553

Wandschneider, E., Pysarchik, D. T. 1, Sternberger, L. G. 2, Wenjuan Ma1, Acheson, K., Baltensperger, B., … Hart, V. (2015). The Forum BEVI Project: Applications and Implications for International, Multicultural, and Transformative Learning. *Frontiers: The Interdisciplinary Journal of Study Abroad*, *25*, 150–228.

Wang, F. (2018). *Moderators and Mediators of Global Identity Development: Implications from the EI Model and BEVI Method*. Università Cattolica del Sacro Cuore, Milan, Italy.

Appendix A: BEVI Scale and domain composition

Domain	Description of scales within each domain
Validity Scales	***Consistency:*** captures consistency of response to differently worded items that measure the same construct ***Congruency:*** degree to which responses follow statistically expected patterns
Formative Variables	***Demographics:*** background items such as gender, economic status, age, ethnicity, etc. ***Scale 1: Negative Life Events:*** Conflict in family; trouble as a child; many regrets.
Fulfillment of Core Needs	***Scale 2: Needs Closure:*** Lack of connection to core needs in self or other ***Scale 3: Needs Fulfillment:*** Open to needs of self and others ***Scale 4: Identity Diffusion:*** Difficult crisis of identity; no sense of control over life outcomes ***Scale 2: Needs Closure:*** Lack of connection to core needs in self or other
Tolerance for Disequilibrium	***Scale 5: Basic Openness:*** Ability to be open with self and others about thoughts, feelings, and needs ***Scale 6: Self Certitude:*** does not have the capacity for deep analysis; strong sense of will
Critical Thinking	***Scale 7: Basic Determinism:*** Chooses simple explanations for phenomena; sense of fixed character ***Scale 8: Socioemotional Convergence:*** thoughtful; sees complexities in circumstances; aware of connectivity between self and the larger world
Self Access	***Scale 9: Physical Resonance:*** receptive to needs & feelings of own body ***Scale 10: Emotional Attunement:*** connected to own emotions; sensitive to & accepting of expressions of affect in others ***Scale 11: Self Awareness:*** reflective, okay with complexity & difficult feelings ***Scale 12: Meaning Quest:*** seeking balance in life; searching for meaning
Other Access	***Scale 13: Religions Traditionalism:*** sees life as mediated by God; highly committed to religious doctrine ***Scale 14: Gender Traditionalism:*** binary in thinking about sexes and roles that are assigned to sexes; refers simple view of sex & gender. ***Scale 15: Sociocultural Openness:*** open to an array of policies and practices; looks for experience of difference
Global Access	***Scale 16: Ecological Resonance:*** highly committed to environmental sustainability ***Scale 17: Global Resonance:*** desire to learn about different cultures, share experience with others from differing culture groups

Select materials and content from the from BEVI Authorized Administrator Training Workshop, Craig Shealy, PhD, Kris Acheson-Clair, PhD, Jennifer Wiley, EdD, 2018

Appendix B: Comparison of T1/T2/T3 BEVI group report results for the same group of study abroad students.

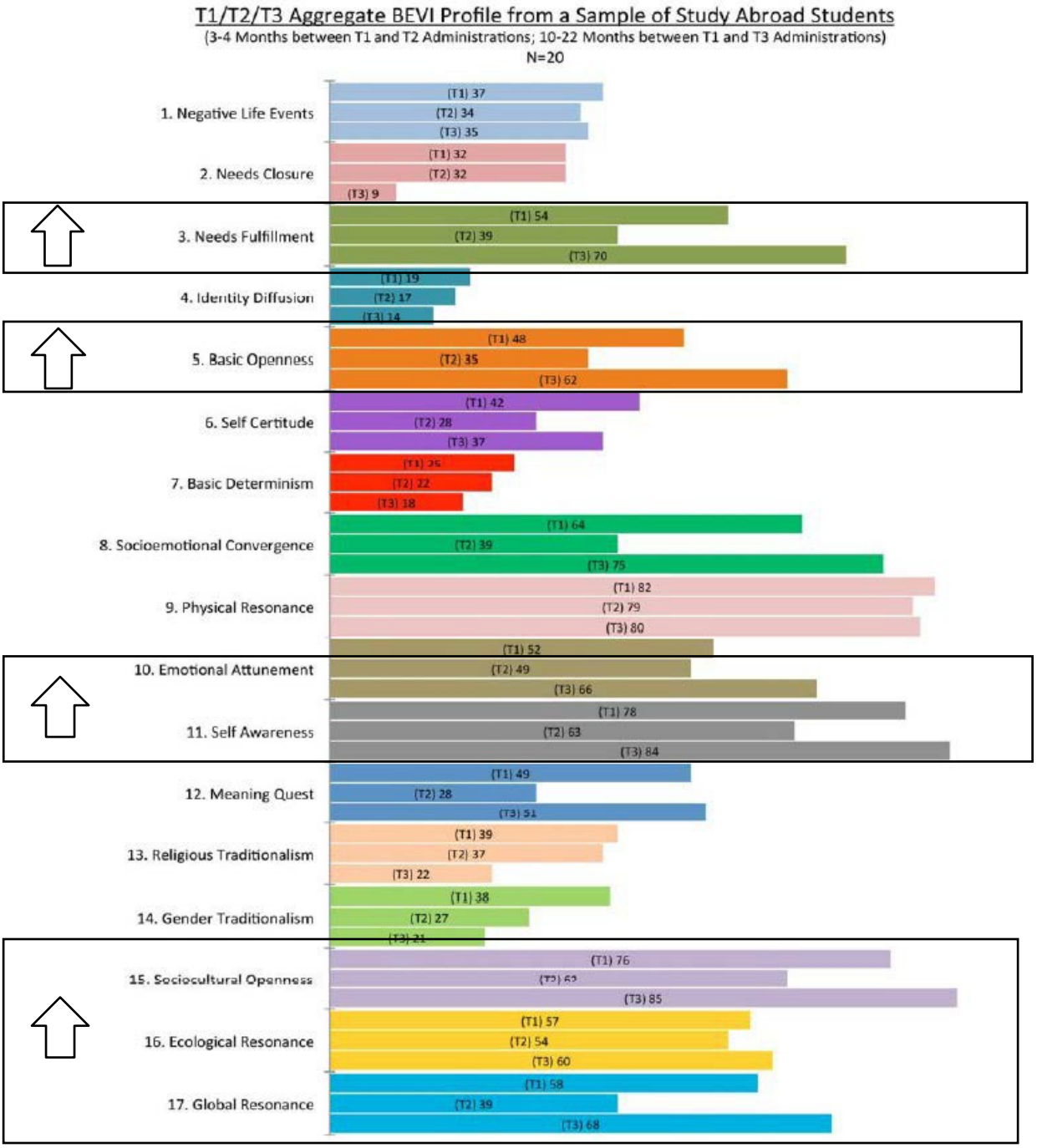


Figure 1. Comparison of T1/T2/T3 BEVI group report results for the same group of study abroad students with the scales which contribute positively to the Full Scale Score highlighted. *Adapted from Wandschneider et. al, 2015.*

Leadership and the Good Life

Zachary Wooten, Instructor, Honors College
Matthew Pierlott, Associate Professor of Philosophy
West Chester University of Pennsylvania

Abstract

In partnership with Yale's Center for Faith and Culture's *Life Worth Living* project, the authors launched a new class entitled, "Leadership and the Good Life." During this class, students engaged with various philosophical and spiritual traditions, including visits from current community leaders who aim to shape their lives by the traditions in question. Along the way, students dove into texts from some of the 'great thinkers' of leadership, in order to consider the role of a leader in cultivating a good life for one's individual benefit as well as for the sake of a community. This practice paper presents a path for linking questions of leadership and discussion of "the good life" in an undergraduate academic context.

Introduction

What makes a good life? What does it mean to live life well? What does leadership have to do with a life well lived? These are difficult questions that require philosophical muscles many of us have left untrained; we need one another's help and perspective to answer them. Most people can and should consider individual questions of "the good life," but leaders *must* ask these questions on behalf of and for the sake of the communities they lead. Throughout world history and in contemporary practice, leaders participate in spiritual expression to: 1) cultivate individual and communal identity; 2) address progress, endure suffering, or make meaning; 3) develop ethical/moral paradigms for decision-making. Modifying the model course of Yale's Center for Faith and Culture's *Life Worth Living* project, we developed an upper-level elective course, *HON 382: Leadership and The Good Life*, which explored the relationship between leadership and the good life (at times as spiritual expression, broadly conceived).

Through reading, guest lectures, service-learning, group discussion, and written reflection, this course utilized an interdisciplinary approach (e.g. philosophy, ethics, communication studies, medicine, poetry, psychology, anthropology, literature, astronomy, women's and gender studies, and sociology). Most often, the course drew upon the broad fields of philosophy, literature, and leadership studies. The course paid special attention to issues of: religious privilege, inter-tradition (and non-tradition) dialogue, and spiritual expression and influence. In this way, the course provides students an opportunity to further cultivate an 'authentic self' against the backdrop of grounding traditions (Taylor, 2018).

Review of Related Scholarship

In 2009, leadership educator Dr. Marilyn Bugenhagen called for pedagogues in higher education to focus on developing the "whole" student, engaging both "spirituality" and "leadership" in the classroom. Khan (2009) echoe this sentiment, claiming higher education in the United States has largely abandoned "inner development, emotional guidance, moral advancement, and self-

understanding on the part of its learners...the proverbial whole person" (p. 77). Citing Chickering et al. (2005), Bugenhagen (2009), agreed with the assessment that higher education leadership curricula ought to include attention to "values and beliefs, emotional maturity, moral development, spirituality, and self-understanding" (p. vii). Engaging with the life story of students and helping them wrestle with the "big questions" of life's meaning and one's values is what this class aimed to do. As Bugenhagen (2009) suggested, perhaps one of the best places to engage these questions is leadership courses due to the embedded tendency (and need) to move from theory to practice.

The assignments in the course and the class meeting itself were often reflective in nature, and thus the class served as a large "personal growth project" (Boyd & Williams, 2010). As such, the class followed in line with what Kouzes and Posner (2007) stated, "The instrument of leadership is the self, and mastery of the art of leadership comes from mastery of the self" (p. 344). While this class built upon this reflective educational practice, it also went beyond the self and placed varying views of leadership and the good life into conflict with one another.

Like many educators, our hope was to equip students to continue critical engagement with the subject matter beyond the semester. Thus, the class aimed to usher students into a "life-long" process of discerning answers to the questions of the course (described later). Fischer (1999) pointed out that life-long learning is both an attitude and a patterned action. Boyd and Williams (2010) summarized life-long learning as including "self-directed learning, learning on demand, informal learning, and collaborative and organizational learning" (p. 145). This class included all of these elements. Furthermore, this class follows the principles laid out by Conger (1992) following four key mechanisms and primary aspects to leadership development: (a) personal growth, (b) conceptual understanding, (c) feedback, and (d) skill development.

Lastly, the course puts into conversation from a variety of religious and philosophical traditions heeding the call of Miroslav Volf (2016) to help students ground values within traditions in an increasingly globalized world. At the same time, the course also aimed to offer assignments which enable students to "[synthesize] course concepts with the students' leadership visions and values, helping them to think about their futures and develop plans to realize their leadership visions," as suggested by Scott, Whiddon, Brown, & Weeks (2015, p. 77).

Description of the Practice

In this approach to leadership education, key pedagogical practices included: 1) centering core questions throughout the course; 2) reflecting on leadership topics to synthesize knowledge; 3) exposure to practitioners as guest speakers; 4) writing assignments; 5) leadership studies fellows; 6) peer leadership roles; and 7) a retreat.

First, every class discussion focused on core questions established by the Yale Center for Faith and Culture's *Life Worth Living* project (*LWL*), with the addition of one new leadership question, representing the thematic intersectional thinking about both leadership and the good life. These questions included:

1. According to this tradition, what does it mean for life: A) To go well? (What is important in terms of life's circumstances?); B) To feel good? (and does it matter? Might the good life be miserable?); and C) To be led well? (What do we need to *do* in order to *lead* a good life?);
2. What reasons and/or motivations does the tradition offer for its vision of the good life?
3. What resources does the tradition offer for human beings to be able to have a good life?
4. According to the tradition, to whom are we responsible for living our lives a certain way?
5. What does the tradition suggest that people do when they fail to live such a life?
6. What is distinctive about how one might *lead* from this perspective?

The additional question on leadership was added to tie the course to the theme of leadership, which is the backbone of West Chester University's Honors College Program, the Honors Seminar Program, and the Civic and Professional Leadership minor. The course served all three of those programs. These questions proved extremely useful, and referring to them consistently enabled students to dive deeply into the material and create a common language for the course.

Second, following the *LWL* model, the course oscillated week by week between focusing on a tradition and examining broader synthetic topics. Because of our emphasis on leadership, our synthetic discussion focused on leadership topics from *Leadership: Essential Writings by Our Greatest Thinkers (Norton Anthology)*, edited by Elizabeth D. Samet (2015). The assumption was made that leaders ought to think through and apply such learnings not only for their own benefit but for the benefit of the communities that they did or will serve. These ideas were developed and reinforced with our guest speakers and the anthology project discussed below.

Third, each week that focused on a spiritual or philosophical tradition included a guest speaker representative of the leadership within that tradition. Most of the guest speakers were both personally and vocationally-bound to their tradition (e.g. Pastors, Rabbis, Seminarians) or were active in their communities in some leadership role. This allowed students to hear how the worldviews were lived out in concrete ways, and provided a chance for students to reflect on how those worldviews influence leadership practices.

Fourth, the class included three main papers and a multi-stage group paper. The first paper explored the students' understanding of their university's leadership and vision of the good life, largely based on a "welcome back address" from the university President in which students analyzed implicit and explicit messaging regarding the good life at their institution. The second analyzed the vision of the good life from a tradition of their choosing. Peer presentation of the second paper helped remind students that they were gaining skills that were applicable beyond the traditions represented in the course. Students engaged a topic of their choosing through the questions of the course. Topics included: Hinduism, Mormonism, Sikhism, ancient Greek religion, absurdism, cultural relativism, existentialism, stoicism, Taoism, feminism, womanism, #votethemout, #whyididntreport, mindfulness, positive psychology, and CrossFit. The third paper called for students to voice their own views of leadership and the good life, either in a traditional paper or in a creative project. Most of the students elected to do a traditional paper, but the students who did choose the creative piece (a rap, an odyssey style blog post -which was later published, etc.) found it to be a rewarding experience.

A leadership and the good life anthology multi-stage paper was created by students through a scaffolded assignment. The anthology aimed to link leadership theory and practice, encourage conversations around living life well across the campus and greater community, and celebrate community members who exemplify students' understanding of good leadership. First, students selected a leader who had impacted them, the university, or the greater community. Next, students interviewed the respective leaders based on the core questions of the course. These interviews were turned into feature articles that went through a peer-editing process. Students submitted a reflection paper about their submission and interview, reflecting on their leader's responses and how those responses connected to the students' own vision of the good life. Lastly, the students worked in small groups to analyze the final anthology project for themes, gaps, and takeaways. Leaders featured in the anthology were given a bound copy of the project and honored with a reception.

Fifth, four students who had taken a class previously which incorporated this material served as Leadership Studies Fellows (LSFs). These students were tasked with facilitating small group discussions, keeping a journal of what went well and what did not go well throughout the semester, coordinating guest speaker contact and follow-up, recruiting students for the course, and developing a pilot podcast about course content or related material. Moreover, they also worked to edit the leadership anthology project and coordinate a reception for leaders honored through the project. These students also met weekly with the instructor to debrief the course.

Sixth, all students practiced leadership within the classroom through peer leadership roles. While the LSFs served in a leadership capacity, every student in the course took on a peer leadership role during the semester. Each student, whether in pairs or a group, presented key takeaways based on the readings at least twice during the semester. Additionally, students took turns developing questions and facilitating class-wide discussions once during the semester. Lastly, students took turns ending each class with a poem relevant to "the good life" as a closing ritual.

Last, modeled after the retreat led by Matt Croasmun in his *LWL* course at Yale, our retreat included three reflection sessions, journaling, and a presentation of his "What's Worth Wanting" model (see 2015, p. 6-7, for a sketch). Each of the three reflection sessions focus on different aspects of students' vision of the good life: past ("How does your past shape your implicit or explicit notions of the good life? What resources does your past offer you?"), present ("What are the habits and practices you want to cultivate in your life?"), and future ("Where and how do you hope to engage the world, and why?") Some reflection sessions are facilitated in small groups while others utilize the whole group.

Discussion of Outcomes/Results

HON 382: Leadership and The Good Life aligned with West Chester University's Honors College mission statement, which seeks to: "prepare students to become forces for positive change in the life of the campus and the broader community through scholarship, co-curricular activities, service, teamwork, and leadership…[and] motivate students to examine and refine character, become active global citizens, and value lifelong learning" (WCU, 2019). By the end of the course, students gained the several significant skills and experiences. First, students

gained an enhanced quality of effective communication. Second, they developed a recognition of the role effective communication plays in enhancing leadership. Third, their experience resulted in a heightened understanding of community through interdisciplinary inquiry, utilizing multiple disciplinary perspectives of leadership and the good life. Fourth, students exercised their ability to respond thoughtfully to diverse perspectives, by identifying issues of religious privilege and structural inequality within the intersection of leadership and the good life, and committing to active engagement in the campus and local community through interfaith dialogue and service. Fifth, they engaged in self-reflection with respect to making informed decisions, not only though critical thinking and exposure to various spiritual perspectives, approaches, and styles, to generate and defend a personal definition of leadership and the good life, but also through examination and written reflection about the values of the institutions to which they belong, and the influence of their peers.

In addition to these student learning outcomes, we also had tremendous excitement about the course, revealed through student feedback. One student is leading an effort to create a student club to continue reflective communal atmosphere created by the course to discuss deeply held values and commitments in a supportive and exploratory framework. Many students reported that the course contributed significantly to students' undergraduate experience. Below is representative feedback from one student in the course:

> I am so sad this class is ending. HON 382 has become one of my absolute favorite college experiences. I have learned so much, not just from the class material, but from the professor, the Leadership Fellows, and my cohort of students. I saw so much growth in my group from the first day to the last and I am truly so proud of each and every one of them. I particularly appreciate that the class allowed me to ponder existential matters close to my heart, while also providing me the opportunity to create tangible, marketable materials. This class is unparalleled in the level and depth of material and the learning produced as a result thereof….I feel confident that the class has prepared me in a way so that such conversations don't have to end, they'll just now occur in a different setting. I'm so thankful for [the professor], my fellows, my group, and the rest of the class.

The Retreat Survey indicated that 16 out of 18 retreatants found that the retreat was "an essential part of this course," and "plays a crucial role in the student experience." These open-ended responses confirmed what was obvious to the facilitators, and became a recurrent theme of the course: the retreat allowed the students to open up about their own expectations, and to bond in mutually supporting ways that allowed for much greater dialogue and learning as the semester continued. One student wrote: "I LOVE the community aspect of the course. The retreat provided a sense of trust and compassion that is rare in classes. I am in awe that we made that happen."

During the course, we conducted two (pre-/post-) student surveys on questions around exposure to diverse religious ideas and to learning about leadership (see Appendix). Prior to this class, less than 20% of students 'agreed' or 'strongly agreed' that they had meaningful exposure to real people living out traditions other than their own. By the end of the class, over 95% of students 'agreed' or 'strongly agreed' to this statement. When asked if their education at the institution so far is addressing significant topics and questions about how to live well, students who 'agreed' or

‘strongly agreed’ rose from roughly 24% prior to taking the class to 81% upon completion of the course. Regarding leadership, by the end of the class 95% of students said that their view of leadership had changed or developed, 86% said the class prepared them to lead and engage civically, and 100% said they had a strong understanding of leadership theories, concepts, and practices.

Looking at the average scores for particular items [1-5 Likert scale, 3 being neutral], we observed that students reporting: that their willingness to explore different traditions increased from a 3.6 to a 4.2 average; that their WCU education addresses significant topics about how to live well increased from a 2.8 to a 4.1 average; that they have had good exposure to real people living out traditions other than their own increased from a 2.7 to a 4.8 average; that they could incorporate insights from a variety of faith traditions increased from a 3.8 to a 4.1 average, and their sense that traditions are exclusivist decreased from a 3.3 to a 2.5 average; that their views on leadership changing since coming to WCU increased only slightly from 4.3 to a 4.5, but student reporting that they gained a better understanding of leadership concepts and practices increased from 3.1 to a 4.5 average.

Reflections of the Practitioners

This course carries risk and potential for leadership education generally. The class has great potential to meet students’ need for their education to address significant questions of living life well, while simultaneously introducing students to traditions different from their own, thereby enhancing their worldview. Moreover, words like “spirituality” and “religion” carry ambiguous and at times even alarming connotations at state-affiliated institutions. Still, students remain hungry for conversation that engages their deepest selves: their longings for transcendence, their fears of the future, and their hopes for a life ahead that aligns with their values and passions. The greatest potential in a course like this is to offer students space to engage in deep reflection about the nature of and engagement with life itself.

We plan to continue assessment to gather a more robust data set with these tools and others, now that we know the class will be successful. This will ensure that we can confidently argue for additional institutional support for the model we have adopted, already generating a reputation among students. Additionally, we will develop direct student learning assessment for understanding leadership concepts and practices, since this is a central aspect of the Honors College curriculum. We believe that the cultural competency gained through interfaith dialogue aids in one's leadership capacity, and the leadership examples of those working within faith communities sheds light on the various principles discussed in leadership studies.

Recommendations

Leadership educators ought to consider incorporating questions of the good life into their courses. Particularly, classes that focus on ethics, self-awareness, or personal development seem most helpful. The movement to consider such questions in the context of higher education is growing, and leadership educators should be at the forefront of such important conversations.

References

Boyd, B., & Williams, J. (2010). Developing life-long learners through personal growth projects. *Journal of Leadership Education*, 9(2), 144-150.

Bugenhagen, M. J. (2009). Spirituality and leadership: Engaging both in higher education. *Journal of Leadership Studies*, *3*(3), 69-74.

Chickering, A., Dalton, J., & Stamm, L. (2005). *Encouraging authenticity and spirituality in higher education*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Conger, J. (1992). *Learning to lead: The art of transforming managers into leaders.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Croasmun, M. (2015) *Christ and human flourishing: An introduction to the thinking of Miroslav Volf.* Lecture at the University of Fribourg, May 13, 2015. Retrieved from Yale Center for Faith and Culture website: http://faith.yale.edu/sites/default/files/christ_and_human_flourishing-volf-croasmun.pdf

Fischer, G. (1999). *Life-long learning: Changing mindsets. In Advanced research in computers and communications in education.* G. Cumming et al. (Eds.). 21-30. Amsterdam: IOS Press.

Khan, A. (2009). Revisiting spiritual and emotional emptiness in American higher education. *Journal of Leadership Studies*, *3*(3), 75-78.

Kouzes, J. M., & Posner, B. Z. (2017). *The Leadership challenge: How to make extraordinary things happen in organizations.* Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons.

Samet, E. D. (ed.) (2015) *Leadership: Essential writings by our greatest thinkers*. New York, N.Y.: W. W. Norton & Co.

San Kuh, G. D. (2001). Assessing what really matters to student learning: Inside the National Survey of Student Engagement. *Change*, 33(3), 10-17.

Scott, M., Whiddon, A., Brown, N., & Weeks, P. (2015). The journey to authenticity: An Analysis of undergraduate personal development. *Journal of Leadership Education*, 14(2), 65–81.

Taylor, C. (2018). *The Ethics of authenticity*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Volf, M. (2016). *Flourishing: Why we need religion in a globalized world.* New Haven: Yale University.

---. West Chester University Honors College Mission Statement. Retrieved from Honors college webpage: https://www.wcupa.edu/viceProvost/honorsCollege/historyMissions.aspx

Appendix

HON 382 - Leadership and The Good Life
West Chester University – Honors College
Student Self-reporting Assessment Post-test

Think about these statements and **rate the extent to which you agree with each**.

Those following are **general statements** about the various **traditions** that present *a way of living* and *a vision of how to live*, only some of which we studied this semester.

After having experienced this class...

1. I imagine myself being open to taking up as a way of life a tradition other than my own.

1	2	3	4	5
(strongly disagree)		(neutral)		(strongly agree)

2. I feel that my education at WCU so far is addressing significant topics and questions about how to live well.

1	2	3	4	5
(strongly disagree)		(neutral)		(strongly agree)

3. I have had a good amount of exposure to real people who live out traditions other than my own.

1	2	3	4	5
(strongly disagree)		(neutral)		(strongly agree)

4. I would say that it is best to pick out parts of traditions that one likes to create one's own way of life.

1	2	3	4	5
(strongly disagree)		(neutral)		(strongly agree)

5. I believe that most traditions are 'exclusive,' meaning that they present something or other as true and contradict traditions that claim otherwise.

1	2	3	4	5
(strongly disagree)		(neutral)		(strongly agree)

Those following are **general statements** about your own **understanding of leadership**.

After having experienced this class...

1. My view of leadership has changed or developed.

1	2	3	4	5
(strongly disagree)		(neutral)		(strongly agree)

2. I generally view myself as a leader or as having leadership qualities

1	2	3	4	5
(strongly disagree)		(neutral)		(strongly agree)

3. I have a strong understanding of leadership theories, concepts and practices.

1	2	3	4	5
(strongly disagree)		(neutral)		(strongly agree)

4. My classes here at WCU have prepared me to serve lead and engage civically.

1	2	3	4	5
(strongly disagree)		(neutral)		(strongly agree)

Those following are **general statements** about the effectiveness of this course. Think about these statements and **rate the extent to which you agree with each.**

1. This course helped me become more familiar with diverse traditions and viewpoints.

1	2	3	4	5
(strongly disagree)		(neutral)		(strongly agree)

2. This course helped me understand what is involved in being a leader.

1	2	3	4	5
(strongly disagree)		(neutral)		(strongly agree)

3. This course provided a meaningful educational experience otherwise hard to find at WCU.

1	2	3	4	5
(strongly disagree)		(neutral)		(strongly agree)

RESEARCH PAPERS

1. **Research Paper: Building a Leader-Follower Culture: The Nexus Between Transformational Leadership and Effective Followership Behaviors**
   Ibukun D. Alegbeleye, Ph.D. Candidate, Virginia Tech
   Eric K. Kaufman, Associate Professor, Virginia Tech

2. **Research Paper: Reconceptualizing Followership Identity: Why Leadership Educators Should Care About Followership**
   Ibukun D. Alegbeleye, Ph.D. Candidate, Virginia Tech
   Eric K. Kaufman, Associate Professor, Virginia Tech

3. **Research Paper: A Culture of Leadership Identity Development: Big Problems, Big Possibilities**
   Jarred A. Shellhouse, Graduate Student, University of Florida
   Cameron J. Outlaw, Graduate Student, University of Florida
   Valerie M. Sledd, Graduate Student, University of Florida
   Hannah S. Carter, Associate Professor, University of Florida

4. **Research Paper: A Two-Method Approach to Exploring Affective Responses to Peer Evaluations in a Leadership Classroom**
   Jason Headrick, Graduate Teaching Assistant, University of Nebraska-Lincoln
   L.J. McElravy, Associate Professor, University of Nebraska-Lincoln

5. **Research Paper: The Art of Leadership: Exploring the Use of Photography and Narratives in Understanding Adaptive Leadership Concepts**
   Jason Headrick, Graduate Teaching Assistant, University of Nebraska-Lincoln
   Kate McCain, Ph.D., University of Nebraska-Lincoln

6. **Research Paper: A Culture of Leadership Identity Development: Big Problems, Big Possibilities**
   Jarred A. Shellhouse, Graduate Student, University of Florida
   Cameron J. Outlaw, Graduate Student, University of Florida
   Valerie M. Sledd, Graduate Student, University of Florida
   Hannah S. Carter, Associate Professor, University of Florida

7. **Research Paper: A Two-Method Approach to Exploring Affective Responses to Peer Evaluations in a Leadership Classroom**
   Jason Headrick, Graduate Teaching Assistant, University of Nebraska-Lincoln
   L.J. McElravy, Associate Professor, University of Nebraska-Lincoln

8. **Research Paper: The Art of Leadership: Exploring the Use of Photography and Narratives in Understanding Adaptive Leadership Concepts**
   Jason Headrick, Graduate Teaching Assistant, University of Nebraska-Lincoln
   Kate McCain, Ph.D., University of Nebraska-Lincoln

Building a Leader-Follower Culture: The Nexus Between Transformational Leadership and Effective Followership Behaviors

Ibukun D. Alegbeleye
Virginia Tech
Blacksburg, VA, USA
ibukun@vt.edu

Eric K. Kaufman
Virginia Tech
Blacksburg, VA, USA
ekaufman@vt.edu

Abstract

In this paper, we proposed four hypotheses that predicted positive relationships between transformational leadership behaviors and effective followership behaviors. We collected data from 100 middle managers across the United States. Multiple regression results showed significant positive relationships between transformational leadership behaviors and effective followership behaviors, after we had controlled for age, gender, race, educational level, tenure with current organization, and tenure with current supervisor. However, the transformational leadership behavior of *Idealized Influence* was not significantly related to the effective followership behavior of *Building Trust*, after controlling for demographics. The findings have important implications for leaders, followers, leadership educators, organizations, and researchers.

Introduction

For too long, leadership studies have been leader-centered with little attention paid to the roles of followers in the leadership process. While the term 'leader' has been glamorized, the term 'follower' has been associated with passiveness, subservience, and lack of imagination (Agho, 2009). However, follower-centric leadership scholars have argued that while leader-follower roles are distinct, leaders and followers constantly switch between these roles (Chaleff, 2008; Kellerman, 2013). Consistent with this sentiment, Agho (2009) suggests that many employees, especially middle-management employees, often switch between leader-follower behaviors. In a study of the relationship between leader and follower characteristics at healthcare organizations in the United States, Baker, Mathis, and Stites-Doe (2011) found significant relationships between selected exemplary leadership behaviors and effective followership behaviors. However, there appears to be a gap in the literature with regards to the relationship between transformational leadership behaviors and effective followership behaviors, hence, the justification for this study. Moreover, Baker and colleagues (2011) studied only those followership and leadership behaviors that are performance-based, while leaving out relationship-based behaviors.

Consequently, this paper aims to study the relationship between middle managers' effective followership behaviors and transformational leadership behaviors. This study explores both performance and relationship-based followership and leadership behaviors.

Literature Review/Theoretical Framework

To effectively approach and frame this study, it is important to consider prior literature on the key variables: effective followership behaviors and transformational leadership behaviors.

Effective Followership Behaviors

The first theory on followership has been attributed to Kelley (1988), who conceptualized followership style and/or behaviors along two major dimensions: (1) engagement, and (2) dependence and critical thinking. Along these two dimensions, Kelley (1988) classified followers into five styles:

- Passive followers: those who engage passively, think uncritically, and depend on leaders;
- Alienated followers: those who engage passively, while thinking independently and critically;
- Conformist followers: those who engage actively, but think uncritically and depend on leaders;
- Exemplary followers: those who engage actively, and at the same time think independently and critically; and
- Pragmatist followers: those that can switch between behaviors to match leaders' expectations.

According to Kelley (1988), only exemplary followers could be considered effective followers. They make their leaders better by contributing innovative ideas and actively questioning leaders' rationale in decision making; they are not scared to oppose their leaders' views and are motivated by their desire to be effective followers (Kelley, 1992). Many studies have adapted this model to measure followership behaviors (Gatti, Ghislieri, & Cortese, 2017; Zhu, Avolio, & Walumbwa, 2009). Since Kelley's (1988) theory, emerging theories and conceptual models on followership have been sparse. Among the prominent few include Chaleff's (1995) courageous leadership conceptual model that identifies five dimensions of courageous followership behaviors. These courageous followership behaviors include: courage to assume responsibility, courage to serve, courage to challenge, courage to participate in transformation, and courage to take moral action (Chaleff, 1995). Chaleff (1995) challenged the notion that followers are 'subordinates' who are passive and always under their leader (Dixon & Westbrook, 2003). Consequently, many follower-centric researchers have chosen to describe followers in more active terms, such as 'collaborators' and 'partners' (Crossman & Crossman, 2008; Uhl-Bien, 2006).

Going beyond semantics, Pittman, Rosenbach, and Potter (1998) developed a conceptual model that is based on the idea of increased responsibility and participation of followers. According to the model, followers can operate in one of four styles: subordinate, politician, contributor, and partner. Among these four styles, only 'partner' is considered an effective followership style. Moreover, Pittman and colleagues (1998) identified eight effective followership behaviors that could be classified along two dimensions: performance and relationship. Four of these behaviors are related to work performance while the other four behaviors are connected to building relationships with others. The four followership behaviors under the performance dimension include: doing the job, embracing change, self as a resource, and working with others. On the other end, the relationship dimension includes four followership behaviors: building trust, courageous communication, identifying with the leader, and negotiating differences.

In this study, we selected four effective followership behaviors that we hypothesized would correlate with transformational leadership behaviors. These four behaviors comprise two performance-related behaviors (embracing change and working with others) and two relationship-related behaviors (building trust and identifying with leaders).

Transformational Leadership Behaviors

Bass (1985) conceptualized leadership as consisting of six behaviors: charismatic–inspirational leadership, intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration, contingent reward, management-by-exception, and laissez-faire leadership. With several colleagues (Avolio, Bass, & Jung, 1999; Bycio, Hackett, & Allen, 1995; Yammarino & Bass, 1990), Bass later developed 'The full range leadership model' (FRLM). The FRLM comprises three components: (a) laissez-faire, (b) transactional, and (c) transformational leadership. Laissez-faire leadership is a hands-off approach to leadership and has been tagged by many as 'no-leadership.' Transactional leadership is based on meeting performance expectation and receiving a reward. Transactional leadership behaviors include: passive management by exception, active management by exception, and contingent rewards (Avolio, Bass, & Jung, 1999). The third component of the FRLM is transformational leadership. According to Avolio and colleagues (1999), a leader transforms followers through the behaviors of: individualized consideration, intellectual stimulation, inspirational motivation, and idealized influence.

Relationship Between Effective Followership and Leadership Behaviors

Leader-follower roles are flexible: one can operate as a leader as well as a follower at the same time (Baker, 2007; Chaleff, 2008; Hurwitz & Hurwitz, 2009; Kellerman, 2013). Employees, especially middle-management staff, often switch between leader-follower roles in organizations (Baker et al., 2011; Nielsen & Cleal, 2011). Baker (2007) suggests the leadership and followership behaviors needed to perform leader-follower roles are distinct yet overlapping. To date, there has been little research published on the relationship between an individual's leadership and followership behaviors. One exception is Baker and colleagues' (2011) study of healthcare industry workers, which found a significant relationship between exemplary leadership behaviors and effective followership behaviors. Among other results, Baker and colleagues (2011) found that followers who reported having exemplary leadership behavior of 'challenging the process' also have effective followership behavior of 'doing the job.' Also, Baker found that followers who reported having leadership behavior of 'enabling others to act' also have followership behavior of 'working with others.' However, we are not aware of any other study that has examined the relationship between an individual's transformational leadership behaviors (as conceptualized by the full range leadership model) and effective followership behaviors. Consequently, there is a need to consider alignment with the full range leadership model.

Based on related literature, we posit four hypotheses.

Transformational Leaders and Effective Followers are Purpose-driven

According to Bass, Avolio, Jung, and Berson (2003), a transformational leader outlines a clear vision for followers through 'inspirational motivation.' A transformational leader is enthusiastic about the vision, purpose, and goals of the organization and presents them in a way that is compelling to followers. Furthermore, a transformational leader recognizes that a compelling vision is one that is shared by followers (Kouzes & Posner, 2006). While transformational leaders do not compromise their visions or goals, they are willing to accept followers' input, knowing fully well that followers would be more committed to a vision they help construct. This

motivates the follower to do work above and beyond what their job responsibilities require (Avolio et al., 1999).

Effective followers, on the other hand, identify with their leader by supporting the vision of the leader (Pittman et al., 1998); they support their leader's vision through devoted work engagements (Zhu et al., 2009). However, before executing a vision, effective followers ensure they have a clear understanding of the vision, offer alternative ideas when necessary, reconcile differences, and ultimately internalize the vision (Rosenbach, Pittman, & Potter, 1996). At this point, they are as committed as their leaders in achieving the vision; it is no longer the leader's vision but their vision. These followers see themselves as 'partners in vision' and are aware that their leader's success is also their success (Chaleff, 1995; Kelly, 1992; Pittman et al., 1998).

Hypothesis 1*: Middle managers who report having the transformational leadership behavior of 'inspirational motivation' would be more likely to have the effective followership behavior of 'identifying with the leader.'*

Transformational Leaders and Effective Followers Build Trust in Others

Bass and colleagues (2003) contend that transformational leaders have 'idealized influence' on followers. Transformational leaders lead with a higher purpose; they set high moral values for themselves and consider the ethical aspect of decisions, which makes them earn the respect and trust of their followers (Avolio & Bass, 1995; Avolio et al., 1999).

Similarly, effective followers' superior contributions and commitment to task naturally make them role models for their colleagues (Blanchard, Welbourne, Gilmore, & Bullock, 2009). They accept their roles as followers, act with integrity, and consistently look for opportunities to build the trust of their colleagues as well as their leaders (Pittman et al., 1998; Rosenbach et al., 1996).

Hypothesis 2: *Middle managers who report having the transformational leadership behavior of 'idealized influence behavior' would be more likely to have the effective followership behavior of 'building trust.'*

Transformational Leaders and Effective Followers Embrace Change

Transformational leaders use 'intellectual stimulation' to challenge followers to be innovative and creative (Bass et al., 2003; Sosik, 2006). They encourage followers to contribute to discussions and consider alternative ways of solving a problem (Kouzes & Posner, 2006).

On the other hand, Kelly (1992) posits that effective followers are innovative and independent critical thinkers. However, with innovation comes uncertainty and change that many followers are not prepared for; in fact, many followers resist change and would rather stick with proven methods (Heifetz, 2009). Effective followers are antitheses of this – not only do they embrace change, but they also anticipate it and continually look for ways to improve (Rosenbach et al., 1996). They are also agents of change and usually spend time explaining to their colleagues why and how things could be done differently (Pittman et al., 1998; Rosenbach et al., 1996).

Hypothesis 3: *Middle managers who report having the transformational leadership behavior of 'intellectual stimulation' would be more likely to have the effective followership behavior of 'embracing change.'*

Transformational Leaders and Effective Followers Coach and Develop People

Transformational leaders apply 'individualized consideration' when working with followers, teaching and mentoring them (Bass et al., 2003). They realize that no two followers are the same in terms of needs and abilities, and accordingly align their efforts to followers' specific needs, in a bid to helping them solve their challenges.

Similarly, the ability and desire of effective followers to work cooperatively and collaboratively with colleagues make their colleagues come to them with their problems (Rosenbach et al., 1996). As a result, they know their colleagues on a personal level and are able to teach and coach them through their problems.

Hypothesis 4: *Middle managers who report having the transformational leadership behavior of 'individualized consideration' would be more likely to have the effective followership behavior of 'working with others.'*

Method

Procedures and Sample

To investigate these four hypotheses, we designed a cross-sectional study of transformational leadership and effective followership behaviors of middle management employees across the United States. Our inclusion criteria required participants to be: a middle management employee (i.e., employees that have at least one superior and one subordinate), currently employed in the US, and at least 18 years old. We identified this population because of their relationship to our hypotheses – we needed individuals whose job duties require them to switch between leader and follower behaviors in their organization. We recognize that middle-management employees fit this criterion, as they often switch between leader-follower roles in organizations (Baker et al., 2011). Qualtrics Reseach Service sourced, advertised, and recruited participants that fit the study criteria. As an exploratory study, participants in a Qualtrics panel of respondents is sufficient and places minimal burden on research subjects (since those individuals have expressed an interested in completing surveys). Nonetheless, we received Institutional Review Board approval before engaging in this study. Prior to completing this survey, participants were assured of confidentiality and anonymity.

A total sample of 139 middle-level managers completed the survey; 37 survey responses were screened out because respondents had used less than the stipulated 5 minutes required to complete the survey, and 2 survey responses were removed due to missing data. The final sample included 100 middle management employees across the United States.

Our respondents reported an average age of 40.8 years, and they have been with their current organization for an average of 100.5 months (approximately 8 years). They reported being with

their current supervisor for an average of 49.2 months (approximately 4 years). Seventy-one percent reported they were females, while 29% reported they were males. Sixty-nine percent identified as White Americans; 10% as Black or African American; 8% as American Indian or Alaska Native; 8% as Spanish, Hispanic, or Latino; and 5% as Asian American. Forty-seven percent reported having a bachelor's degree or more. The predominant areas of work include retail trade (18%), health care or social assistance (15%), educational services (8%), construction (7%), and finance or insurance (7%).

Measures

Transformational leadership behaviors instrument. To measure transformational leadership behaviors, we used the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ-5X) developed by Avolio and Bass (1995). Sixteen items were used from the MLQ-5X to measure 4 transformational leadership behaviors (i.e., Idealized Influence Behavior, Inspirational Motivation, Intellectual Stimulation, and Individualized Consideration). Sample items rated by participants include: "As a leader, I talk optimistically about the future" and "As a leader, I spend time teaching and coaching." The MLQ-5X instrument uses a five-point scale ranging from 0 ('not at all') to 4 ('frequently, if not always'). In prior research, the MLQ-5X yielded a Cronbach's alpha above 0.70 for all the scales (Avolio, Bass, & Jung, 1999), and the instrument has also been well validated in the literature (Avolio, Bass, & Jung, 1999; Bycio, Hackett, & Allen, 1995; Muenjohn, & Armstrong, 2008). Nonetheless, we conducted a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) using AMOS 25 software to confirm the factor structure of the MLQ-5X. The initial CFA result was not satisfactory. As per the modification indices, we deleted one redundant item from *intellectual stimulation* scale to improve the fit indices. The final CFA result from the remaining 15 items suggest a satisfactory fit ($\chi^2 = 135.85$, $p < .01$, df = 83, comparative fit index [CFI] = .93, Tucker-Lewis index [TLI] = .91, standardized root mean square residual [SRMR] = .06)

Effective followership behaviors instrument. To measure effective followership behaviors, we used the Performance and Relationship Questionnaire (PRQ) developed by Rosenbach and colleagues (1996). In this study, we used four effective followership behavior scales, which include: building trust, identifying with leaders, embracing change, and working with others. Sample items include: "Has a clear sense of what is important from the leader's perspectives," and "I easily adapt to change to meet new challenges." Initially, each scale was measured with 5 items (making a total of 20 items) using a five-point scale ranging from 1 ('almost never') to 5 ('always'). Baker (2006) validated the PRQ and reported Cronbach's alphas ranging from 0.56 to 0.66. We conducted a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) using AMOS 25 software to confirm how well the model fits our data. Initial CFA result suggests model fit was not satisfactory. To improve the model, we deleted items that had very low or negative factor loadings: two items were deleted from the *embracing change* scale, one item from *working with others*, and one item from *identifying with the leader*. The items deleted were similar to those removed by Baker (2006) in their modified version of the PRQ. Moreover, as per the modification indices, we deleted one redundant item from *embracing change* scale to improve the fit indices. The final CFA results from the remaining 15 items suggest a satisfactory fit ($\chi^2 = 134.44$, $p < .01$, df = 83, comparative fit index [CFI] = .93, Tucker-Lewis index [TLI] = .91, standardized root mean square residual [SRMR] = .06).

Control variables. Research on the relationship between gender and leadership behaviors has intensified in the extant literature. While many leadership scholars argue that gender has little (if any) association with leadership behaviors (Powell, 1990), there is support for the notion that women exhibit more transformational leadership behaviors than men (Eagly, Johannesen-Schmidt, & van Engen, 2003). Boatwright and Forest (2000) found other demographic variables such as age, educational level, and organizational tenure to be related to follower's preference for leadership behaviors. Tenure with supervisor and race/ethnicity have also been identified as important variables to control for in leadership research (Baker et al., 2011; Gatti et al., 2017). Baker and colleagues (2011) suggested these variables might be as important to followership as followership is to leadership, since followership and leadership exist together in the same space. In this study, we controlled for demographic variables of age, gender, race, educational level, tenure with the current organization, and tenure with current supervisor.

Analysis

To begin with, a confirmatory factor analysis, using AMOS 25 software, was conducted to provide support for the model fit of the PRQ and MLQ-5X. Afterward, a Pearson product-moment correlation, using SPSS 25, was conducted to test the relationships between all variables. A multiple regression analysis, using SPSS 25, was conducted to test the hypotheses of the current study. A multiple regression analysis was chosen because of its ability to: 1) control for demographic variables, and 2) account for the proportion of variance caused in the dependent variable. The dependent variables included four effective followership behaviors: identifying with the leader, building trust, embracing change, and working with others. The independent variables included four transformational leadership behaviors: inspirational motivation, idealized influence behavior, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration.

Common Method Variance

Since we collected ratings of followership and leadership behaviors from the same source (i.e., middle managers), there was the possibility of common source variance. To reduce the likelihood of a common source variance, we adopted Harman's single factor test to see if a one-factor solution would explain a significant proportion of the variance in our data (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). To do this, we first conducted an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) using SPSS 25, to see if a single factor would emerge. The EFA result shows that a one-factor solution is inadequate, as a one-factor solution only explains only 33% of the variance in our data. To further test if a single-factor model would fit our data, we conducted a confirmatory factor analysis using AMOS 25. The CFA result suggested a poor fit ($\chi^2 = 1130.45$, $p < .01$, df = 405, comparative fit index [CFI] = .53, Tucker-Lewis index [TLI] = .50, standardized root mean square residual [SRMR] = .16), which indicates that our data was likely not affected by common source variance.

Results

As shown in Table 1, there was a significant negative relationship between gender and effective followership behavior of *Building Trust* ($r = -0.25$, $p < 0.05$). This suggests females exhibit significantly higher followership behavior of *Building Trust* than males. To further explore this,

we conducted an independent sample t-test, which showed females ($M = 4.37$, $SD = 0.53$) reported significantly higher followership behavior of *Building Trust* than males ($M = 3.99$, $SD = 0.93$), $t(98) = 2.06$, $p < 0.05$.

In addition, there was a significant negative relationship between the gender and effective follower behavior of *Working with Others* ($r = -0.37$, $p < 0.01$), which suggests females demonstrate significantly higher levels of this behavior than males. To compare the mean differences, we conducted an independent sample t-test, which showed females ($M = 4.36$, $SD = 0.56$) reported significantly higher followership behavior of *Working with Others* than males ($M = 3.80$, $SD = 0.82$), $t(98) = 3.36$, $p < 0.01$.

Other demographic variables were not correlated with transformational leadership and effective followership behaviors. While there were correlations among some control variables, we did not interpret these correlations as they were not the focus of this study.

Table 1.

Summary of Intercorrelations, Means, Standard Deviations, and Reliabilities of Variables

VAR[a]	Age	Race	Gen	Edu	Emp	Ten	IM	IIB	IS	IC	IL	BT	EC	WO
Age														
Race	0.02													
Gen	0.16	.25*												
Edu	0.14	-0.03	0.09											
Emp	.42**	0.04	0.15	0.08										
Ten	.25*	0.04	0.13	0.08	.41**									
IM	-0.04	0.12	-0.07	0.18	0.05	-0.06								
IIB	0.06	0.09	-0.07	0.19	0.13	-0.01	.73**							
IS	-0.04	0.06	-0.14	0.04	0.05	-0.05	.72**	.68**						
IC	-0.02	0.08	-0.15	0.15	0.09	-0.08	.76**	.66**	.77**					
IL	0.01	-0.04	-0.16	0.18	0.08	-0.12	.34**	.24*	.25*	.23*				
BT	-0.07	-0.03	-.25*	0.13	0.05	-0.06	.36**	.22*	.31**	.28**	.74**			
EC	-0.13	-0.01	-0.07	0.07	0.01	0.04	.19	.04	.29**	.23*	.52**	.62**		
WO	-0.07	.043	-0.37**	0.07	0.05	-0.03	.34**	.21*	.35**	.37**	.63*	.77**	.66**	
Mean	40.82	2.33	1.29	4.10	100.46	49.22	4.10	4.05	4.13	4.30	3.96	4.26	4.07	4.20
S.D.	12.01	0.92	0.46	1.51	83.31	47.00	0.76	0.76	0.70	0.70	0.72	0.69	0.74	0.69
α							0.79	0.71	0.74	0.79	0.78	0.82	0.67	0.80

Note. n = 100. **p < 0.01. *p < 0.05 level.

[a]VAR = Variables; Age = Age in Months; Race =Race/ethnicity; Gen = Gender; Edu = Educational Level; Emp = Employment Tenure with Organization in Months; Ten = Tenure with Supervisor in Months; IM = Inspirational Motivation; IIB = Individualized Influence Behavior; IS = Intellectual Stimulation; IC = Individualized Consideration; IL = Identifying with Leader; BT = Building Trust; EC = Embracing Change; WO = Working with Others; α = Cronbach Alpha.

[a]Coding was as follows: Gender: 1 = "Female," 2 = "Male," Education: 1 = "Less than high school degree," 2 = "High school graduate," 3 = "Some college but no degree," 4 = "Associate degree in college (2-year)," 5 = “Bachelor's degree in college (4-year)," 6 = " Master's degree," 7 = "Doctoral degree;" Race/Ethnicity: 1 = "Spanish, Hispanic, or Latino," 2 = "White American," 3 = "Black or African American," 4 = "American Indian or Alaska Native," 5 = "Asian American," 6 = "Native Hawaiian."

Hypotheses Tests

Hypothesis 1 predicted middle managers who report having the transformational leadership behavior (TLB) of *Inspirational Motivation* would be more likely to have the effective followership behavior (EFB) of *Identifying with the Leader*. As shown in Table 2, the TLB of *Inspirational Motivation* ($\beta = 0.29$, $p < 0.01$) was positively related to the EFB of *Identifying with the Leader*, after controlling for age, gender, race, educational level, tenure with the current organization, and tenure with current supervisor. This provides support for Hypothesis 1. Moreover, the TLB of *Inspirational Motivation* explained a significant proportion of variance in the EFB of *Identifying with the Leader*, $R^2 = 0.11$, $F(1, 98) = 2.94$, $p < 0.01$.

Table 2.
Summary of Linear Regression Weights, Standard Error, and T-value of Transformational Leadership and Effective followership Behaviors

Hypotheses	Standardized Coefficient (β)	SE	t-value	Conclusion
H_1: Inspirational Motivation ▶ Identifying with the Leader	0.290**	0.104	2.944	Supported
H_2: Idealized Influence Behavior ⟶ Building Trust	0.163	0.092	1.606	Unsupported
H_3: Intellectual Stimulation ⟶ Embracing Change	0.283**	0.107	2.819	Supported
H_4: Individualized Consideration ⟶ Working with Others	0.285**	0.093	3.017	Supported

Note. n = 100. ** $p < 0.01$. * $p < 0.05$ level (2-tailed).

Hypothesis 2 predicted middle managers who report having the transformational leadership behavior of *Idealized Influence Behavior* would be more likely to have the effective followership behavior of *Building Trust*. As shown in Table 2, the TLB of *Idealized Influence Behavior* ($\beta = 0.163$, $p > 0.05$) was not significantly related to the EFB of *Building Trust*, after controlling for age, gender, race/ethnicity, educational level, tenure with the current organization, and tenure with current supervisor. Thus, our analysis failed to provide support for Hypothesis 2.

Hypothesis 3 predicted middle managers who report having the transformational leadership behavior of *Intellectual Stimulation* would be more likely to have the effective followership behavior of *Embracing Change*. As shown in Table 2, the TLB of *Intellectual Stimulation* ($\beta = 0.283$, $p < 0.01$) was positively related to the EFB of *Embracing Change*, after controlling for age, gender, race/ethnicity, educational level, tenure with the current organization, and tenure with current supervisor. This provides support for Hypothesis 3. Moreover, the TLB of *Intellectual Stimulation* explained a significant proportion of variance in the EFB of *Embracing Change*, $R^2 = 0.09$, $F(1, 98) = 2.82$, $p < 0.01$.

Hypothesis 4 predicted that middle management employees who report having the leadership behavior *Individualized Consideration* would be more likely to have the followership behavior

Working with Others. As shown in Table 2, the TLB of *Individualized Consideration* ($\beta = 0.285$, $p < 0.01$) is positively related to the EFB of *Working with Others,* while controlling for age, gender, race/ethnicity, educational level, tenure with the current organization, and tenure with current supervisor. This provides support for Hypothesis 4. Leadership behavior *Individualized Consideration* also explained a significant proportion of variance in followership behavior *Working with Others,* $R^2 = 0.13$, $F(1, 98) = 3.02$, $p < 0.01$.

Conclusions and Implications

We proposed four hypotheses that predicted positive relationships between selected transformational leadership behaviors and effective followership behaviors of middle-management employees in the United States. Multiple regression results showed support for three out of four hypotheses proposed. Specifically, after we have controlled for age, gender, race, educational level, tenure with the current organization, and tenure with current supervisor, there were significant positive relationships between the following variables:

- transformational leadership behavior of *Inspirational Motivation* and effective followership behavior of *Identifying with the Leader;*
- the transformational leadership behavior of *Intellectual Stimulation* and effective followership behavior of *Embracing Change*; and
- the transformational leadership behavior of *Individualized Consideration* and effective followership behavior of *Working with Others.*

These findings suggest effective (transformational) leaders may also be effective as followers and vice-versa. This provides support for conceptual and theoretical models that suggest leadership and followership roles overlap and can be shared (Baker et al., 2011; Kellerman, 2013). Moreover, similarities between leadership and followership behaviors may help destigmatize followership, while simultaneously fostering teamwork between leaders and followers in organizations. This, we believe, may help organizations get more from their employees in terms of creativity and effectiveness.

However, the relationship between the transformational leadership behavior of *Idealized Influence Behavior* and the effective followership behavior of *Building Trust* was not found to be statistically significant. This might suggest that, although leader-follower roles can be said to overlap, they are distinct and may sometimes require unique behaviors which may not be transferable. For example, leaders might use to good effects some of their learned transformational leadership behaviors when following; however, when faced with certain situations, they may soon realize they lack the full range of behaviors that are required for effective followership. These findings may be useful to leadership educators and those involved in leadership development interventions to know that while leadership behaviors could be transferred to followership, they do not replace them. This may provide support for follower-centric scholars who recommend that leadership development programs develop a curriculum that is particularly designed for followership development (Dixon & Westbrook, 2003; Kellerman, 2013).

In all, we believe this study has helped broaden our understanding of leadership and followership, especially the overlap that exists between leader-follower behaviors and leader-follower roles in organizations.

Limitations and Recommendations for Future Research

One potential limitation of this study is the common source bias since ratings of transformational leadership behavior and effective followership behavior were self-reported by respondents. Although we showed a single-factor solution was inadequate, thereby reducing the likelihood of a common source affecting our results (Podsakoff et al., 2003), we nonetheless recommend future studies collect ratings of transformational leadership behavior and effective followership behavior from different sources.

Moreover, this is a cross-sectional study, which means it is inappropriate to make causal claims with the findings. Therefore, we recommend future studies adopt a longitudinal approach to explore the relationship between transformational leadership behavior and effective followership behavior over time.

Another potential weakness of this study is the relatively small sample size which may not adequately represent the population (i.e., United States workforce). Consequently, we recommend caution in extrapolating findings.

Lastly, we recommend future research explore other leader-follower roles that were not examined in this study. Also, the relationship between other positive forms of leadership (such as authentic leadership) and effective followership behaviors should be studied.

References

Agho, A. O. (2009). Perspectives of senior-level executives on effective followership and leadership. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, 16(2), 159-166. http://doi.org/10.1177/1548051809335360

Avolio, B. J. & Bass, B. M. (1995). Individual consideration viewed at multiple levels of analysis: A multi-level framework for examining the diffusion of transformational leadership. *Leadership Quarterly, 6* (2), 199–218. http://doi.org/10.1016/1048-9843(95)90035-7

Avolio, B. J., Bass, B. M., & Jung, D. I. (1999). Re-examining the components of transformational and transactional leadership using the multifactor leadership. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 72*(4), 441-462. http://doi.org/10.1348/096317999166789

Baker, S. D. (2006). The effect of leader-follower agreement on team effectiveness (Doctoral dissertation, George Washington University).

Baker, S. D. (2007). Followership: The theoretical foundation of a contemporary construct. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, *14*(1), 50-60. http://doi.org/10.1177/0002831207304343

Baker, S. D., Mathis, C. J., & Stites-Doe, S. (2011). An exploratory study investigating leader and follower characteristics at U.S. healthcare Organizations. *Journal of Managerial Issues*, 23(3), 341-363. Retrieved from http://www.jstor.org/stable/23209120

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

Bass, B. M., Avolio, B. J., Jung, D. I., & Berson, Y. (2003). Predicting unit performance by assessing transformational and transactional leadership. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *88*(2), 207-218. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.88.2.207

Blanchard, A. L., Welbourne, J., Gilmore, D., & Bullock, A. (2009). Followership styles and employee attachment to the organization. *The Psychologist-Manager Journal*, *12*(2), 111-131. http://doi.org/10.1080/10887150902888718

Boatwright, K. J., & Forrest, L. (2000). Leadership preferences: The influence of gender and needs for connection on workers' ideal preferences for leadership behaviors. *Journal of Leadership Studies, 7*(2), 18-34. http://doi.org/10.1177/107179190000700202

Bycio, P., Hackett, R. D. & Allen, J. S. (1995). Further assessments of Bass' conceptualization of transactional and transformational leadership. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 80*, 468–478. http://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.80.4.468

Chaleff, I. (1995). *The courageous follower: Standing up to & for our Leaders*. San Francisco, CA: Berrett-Koehler Publishers.

Chaleff, I. (2008) *Creating new ways of following. The art of followership: How great followers create great leaders and organizations*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Crossman, B., & Crossman, J. (2011). Conceptualising followership: A review of the literature. *Leadership*, 7(4), 481-497. http://doi.org/10.1177/1742715011416891

Dixon, G., & Westbrook, J. (2003) Followers revealed. *Engineering Management Journal*, *15*(1), 19-26. http://doi.org/10.1080/10429247.2003.11415192

Eagly, A. H., Johannesen-Schmidt, M. C., & Van Engen, M. L. (2003). Transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership styles: A meta-analysis comparing women and men. *Psychological Bulletin*, 129(4), 569-591. http://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.129.4.569

Gatti, P., Ghislieri, C., & Cortese, C. G. (2017). Relationships between followers' behaviors and job satisfaction in a sample of nurses. *PloS one*, *12*(10), 1-16. http://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0185905

Heifetz, R., Grashow, A., & Linsky, M. (2009). Leadership in a (permanent) crisis. *Harvard Business Review*, *87*(7/8), 62-69.

Hurwitz, M. and Hurwitz, S. (2009). The romance of the follower: Part 2. *Industrial and Commercial Training* 41(2), 80-86. http://doi.org/10.1108/00197850910939117

Kellerman, B. (2013). Leading questions: The end of leadership–redux. *Leadership*, *9*(1), 135-139. http://doi.org/10.1177/1742715012455132

Kelley, R. E. (1988). In praise of followers. *Harvard Business Review*, 66(6), 142-148.

Kelley, R. (1992). *The power of followership*. New York, NY: Doubleday.

Kouzes, J. M., & Posner, B. Z. (2006). *The leadership challenge* (Vol. 3). San Francisco, CA: John Wiley & Sons.

Muenjohn, N., & Armstrong, A. (2008). Evaluating the structural validity of the multifactor leadership questionnaire (MLQ), capturing the leadership factors of transformational-transactional leadership. *Contemporary Management Research*, 4(1), 3-14. https://doi.org/10.7903/cmr.704

Nielsen, K., & Cleal, B. (2011). Under which conditions do middle managers exhibit transformational leadership behaviors?—An experience sampling method study on the predictors of transformational leadership behaviors. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *22*(2), 344-352. http://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2011.02.009

Pittman, T. S., Rosenbach, W. E., & Potter III, E. H. (1998). Followers as partners: Taking the initiative for action. In W. E. Rosenbach and R. L. Taylor (Eds.), *Contemporary issues in leadership (4th ed.*, pp. 107-120). Boulder, CO: Westview Press.

Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Lee, J. L., & Podsakoff, N. P. (2003). Common method biases in behavioral research: A critical review of the literature and recommended remedies. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *88*(5), 879-903. http://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.88.5.879

Powell, G. N. (1990). One more time: Do female and male managers differ? *The Executive*, 4(3), 68-75. https://doi.org/10.5465/ame.1990.4274684

Rosenbach, W. E., Pittman, T. S., & Potter III, E. H. (1996). Performance and relationship questionnaire [Questionnaire]. Unpublished instrument. Retrieved from: http://www.leadingandfollowing.com/documents /PRQSample.pdf

Sosik, J. J. (2006). Full range leadership: Model, research, extensions and training. In Burke, R. J. & Cooper, C. (Eds.), *Inspiring leaders* (pp. 49-82). New York, NY: Routledge.

Uhl-Bien, M. (2006) Relational leadership theory: Exploring the social processes of leadership and organizing. *Leadership Quarterly*, *17*(6), 654–676. http://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2006.10.007

Yammarino, F. J. & Bass, B. M. (1990). Transformational leadership at multiple levels of analysis. *Human Relations*, *43*(10), 975–995. http://doi.org/10.1177/001872679004301003

Zhu, W., Avolio, B. J., & Walumbwa, F. O. (2009). Moderating role of follower characteristics with transformational leadership and follower work engagement. *Group & Organization Management*, *34*(5), 590-619. http://doi.org/10.1177/1059601108331242

Reconceptualizing Followership Identity: Why Leadership Educators Should Care About Followership

Ibukun D. Alegbeleye
Virginia Tech
Blacksburg, VA, USA
ibukun@vt.edu

Eric K. Kaufman
Virginia Tech
Blacksburg, VA, USA
ekaufman@vt.edu

Abstract

Research into followership is becoming increasingly popular, however, many have claimed that followership is not a genuine field of inquiry as there is a lack of follower self-identity. As a result, some have gone as far as to suggest that followership should be left unexplored. In this paper, we have addressed the issue of lack of follower self-identity while arguing for the legitimacy of followership. We prescribe new ways of approaching followership, examine how these new approaches fit within the modern discourses of leadership and recommend how leadership educators should incorporate followership into their academic programs. The review has important implications for leaders, followers, leadership educators, organizations, and researchers.

Introduction

It is no secret that the field of followership is gaining prominence in the broader field of leadership – and rightfully so. We all have been followers at one point or the other and many of us are more likely to be followers than leaders (at least positionally) in our lifetime (Kelley, 1992). While leadership literature has been relatively silent about followership, the role of followers in the leadership process cannot be overemphasized, as there cannot be a leader without a follower (Chaleff, 2008). Recently, there have been many critical perspectives contesting the authenticity of followership. Ford and Harding (2018) argue the term follower is a fiction that exists only in the imaginative realms, as nobody really identifies as a follower, and as a result the study into followership is meaningless. Similarly, Schedlitzki, Edwards, and Kempster (2018) alluded to the notion that the follower is an absent identity in the leadership process while going a step further to state that the leader-follower process is a creation of our imagination as there are no stable leader-follower relationships – except, of course, in our fantasies.

On one hand, these authors argue that leadership identity construction as described by many popular leadership models is devoid of reality (Ford and Harding, 2018; Schedlitzki, Edwards, & Kempster, 2018). For example, they claim the transformational leadership behaviors posited by Bass (1985) are unrealistic, as nobody truly identifies with these heroic traits. According to these authors, leaders are always trying to live up to these heroic behaviors but are usually let down when they are not able to attain such lofty standards. On the other hand, the authors claim the followership identity construction is just as bad or even worse, as nobody really identifies as followers.

The critics of followership then recommend we leave followership unexplored while we try to fix leadership (Ford & Harding, 2018; Schedlitzki et al., 2018). This recommendation, however, offers little insight into new ways of approaching followership – except to end it. To solve this conundrum of follower/ship identity, however, we need to reconsider how we have always approached followership.

Review of Relevant Literature

In this paper, we will prescribe new ways of approaching followership (and leadership), examine how these new approaches fit within the modern discourses of leadership and recommend how leadership educators should incorporate followership into their academic programs.

Dynamic Follower Identity Versus Stable Follower Identity

First, we need to embrace the idea of followership as a dynamic identity rather than a stable identity. While some aspects of our identity (e.g., gender orientation) are established at adolescence, many of our identities are still under construction well into adulthood (Waterman, 1982) – many would argue that even gender identity is not fixed these days. We have multiple identities that are constantly changing, and features of the environment such as language go a long way in influencing our identity (Burke, 2003; Lord, Brown, & Freiberg, 1999). Schedlitzki and colleague (2018) identified the insufficiency of the language as a major reason why people may not identify as followers. For example, children grow up learning that leadership is about being popular and being in charge; they are constantly bombarded with the adulation and reward of leadership in their schools, religious groups, television etc. So, yes, they grow up identifying with leadership because of language (Schedlitzki et al., 2018). Followership, on the other hand, is often characterized by degrading connotations (Chaleff, 2015). The traditional leadership discourse has mostly viewed the follower as someone who lacks imagination and is always reliant on the leader (Agho, 2009). This kind of degrading characterization is inimical to follower self-identity and could undermine the saliency of follower identity (Burke, 2003).

However, followership behaviors include many desirable behaviors that are rarely mentioned in leader-centric literature. For example, a follower while being a subordinate can be an independent critical thinker who can think outside the box to solve problems and help the leader out of a difficult situation (Kelley, 1988). A follower can also be a courageous person who discreetly disagrees with the leader or even intelligently disobeys the leader if need be (Chaleff, 2008); such followers make their leaders better by being effective. Therefore, we need to work on changing the narrative and connotations associated with follower/ship to foster followership identity. This followership identity then continues to develop as the features of the environment (e.g., language) continue to reinforce it.

Followership as Roles Rather Than Stable Identity

The perspective that followership should be based on a stable identity is concealed in the assumption that followership is person-based – that is, the person makes the follower (Grint, 2000). This is reflective of the great man theory that leadership is dispositional (Yukl, 1999); and while many leadership scholars would argue they have since moved on from this approach, their current perspective on followership is still reflective of this. The implication of seeing followership as a person is that it makes some people preclude themselves from being followers as soon as they identify as leaders. However, we can approach followership/leadership from a role perspective (Baker, 2007). Using a role perspective would invalidate the notion that we are constantly seeking a stable workplace identity as suggested by Schedlitzki and colleagues (2018), since the role perspective would then allow us to constantly switch between leader-

follower roles (and leader-follower identities) in organizations. This would make followership (and leadership) like the hats we wear, such that we can choose to wear different hats depending on the situation. Perhaps, a good example would be middle-level managers who often switch between leader-follower roles in organizations – they are leaders to their subordinate while at the same time followers to their superiors (Agho, 2009; Baker, Mathis, & Stites-Doe, 2011; Nielsen & Cleal, 2011).

Learning Followership Behaviors

Consequently, approaching followership as roles would necessitate individuals possess the requisite behaviors to function in such roles (Baker et al., 2011), which would then require them to learn these behaviors – and as is the case with leadership, followership can be learned. However, it almost sounds counterintuitive to learn about followership, since the general notion is that we automatically become followers the moment we are not leading. While this may be true, this perspective conceptualizes followership as a unitary concept, ignoring that there is good and bad followership, just as much as there is good and bad leadership (Kellerman, 2013). Moreover, researchers have claimed that followership is foundational to leadership (Agho, 2009). The statement, 'he who must be a leader must first be a follower,' has become a catchphrase among leadership scholars, which suggests that the possession of good followership behaviors is a prerequisite to good leadership (Agho, 2009). In fact, to test these assumption, Baker and colleagues (2011) explored the relationship between middle-managers' exemplary leadership behaviors and effective followership behaviors in organizations across the United States, and found that middle-managers' exemplary leadership behaviors predicted their effective followership behaviors. It then follows that effective followership is important to exemplary leadership, and should be developed together with leadership behaviors. However, leadership development intervention programs are still predominantly focused on developing leadership behaviors while little to no attention devoted to developing followership behaviors. This might explain why we have many mediocre leaders and few exceptional ones, and why many believe we have a leadership crisis in the United States (Rosenthal, 2012).

Followership is also important for working effectively in teams. According to the Job outlook 2018 survey of the National Association of Colleges and Employers (NACE), the percentage of employers that indicated 'ability to work in a team' as their most desired attribute in college graduates increased from 78.9% in 2016 to 82.9% in 2018 (moving from second place to first place), while the percentage of employers that indicated 'leadership skills' as their most desired attribute reduced from 80.1% to 72.6% in the same time period (moving from first place to fourth place) (NACE, 2018). This changing trend de-emphasizes the significance of the individual leader while highlighting the importance of working effectively as a team. Moreover, the fact that preference for 'leadership skills' decreased while the 'ability to work in a team' increased suggests that employers perceive the 'ability to work in a team' requires more than just the possession of 'leadership skills.' Team work requires team members to switch between both leadership and followership roles – that is, knowing when to lead and when to take a step back and follow.

Identifying Important Followership Behaviors

Many leader-centric scholars have argued that followership and leadership seem almost indistinguishable, as many followership variables now look like leadership variables (Crossman & Crossman, 2011). For example, in some followership theories, you would see variables such as communication, building trust, working with others, embracing change, among others (Rosenbach, Pittman, & Potter III, 1996) – these variables are also common in leadership theories. Then one begins to wonder if followership research is not a replication of effort – are we not, in essence, studying leadership while we claim to study followership? For example, Agho (2009) identified honesty/integrity as common to both leaders and followers. Moreover, Chaleff (2015) identified intelligence disobedience as a follower behavior, while McGannon (2011) contends it is a leader behavior.

However, while leaders and followers share many behaviors in common, there is a difference in the saliency of those behaviors in each role (follower or leader role). Agho's (2009) study of the differences in the leader and follower behaviors explain this phenomenon. Agho (2009) collected rankings of 20 behaviors from leaders and followers, to examine if there was a similarity in leader and follower rankings. According to Agho (2009), only five behaviors (i.e., honesty, broadminded, straightforward, determined, and independent) were similar in ranking, while the rest of the behaviors differed in rankings. It then follows that leader-follower behaviors, while similar in content, are different in their importance to either leaders or followers. The onus then lies on leadership educators and those involved in leadership development interventions to find and teach those behaviors that are most important to followership.

The challenge, however, is that some of these important follower characteristics would be perceived as elitist in modern discourses. For example, the follower behavior of 'identifying with the leader's vision' would likely be frowned upon by many follower-centric scholars (Rosenbach, & Potter, 1998). However, this is the reality that comes with the role of followership. Followers do not primarily pursue their own vision; they pursue their leader's vision, and it is in achieving their leader's vision that they achieve their own vision. Moreover, the follower behaviors of supportiveness, dependability, cooperativeness, and loyalty occupy the top seven rank in Agho's (2009) study. While these behaviors are important to follower/ship, follower-centric scholars would argue these bahaviors make the followers subservient to the leader. However, the issue of power and hegemony, while vehemently refuted in modern discourses, cannot be completely eradicated, as this is the reality of leadership and followership. We should, therefore, shun this elitist rhetoric (at least in this case) and instead focus on identifying important follower behaviors that are capable of informing reality, and not one that is devoid of reality.

New Measurement Strategies for Followership

There is a need to change the way we approach measurement and theory in followership and leadership. Almost every construct in followership/leadership is a latent construct. While this

latent model is prevalent in social science research, some scales may be better conceptualized as formative (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Lee, 2003). According to the latent model, followership is a function of a followership construct that is within an individual, which is then reflected by indicators. These indicators are the behaviors we measure with questionnaires. This latent construct seeks to measure an individual's 'real self' by measuring their response to items on an instrument, and their 'real self' is believed to have caused those responses (Schedlitzki et al., 2018). However, with measuring the real-self comes the issue of identity construction, as followers do not even identify as followers except when they have to describe their leaders (Ford and Harding, 2018; Schedlitzki et al., 2018). However, what if we replace this latent model with a formative model? Unlike the latent construct model, where followership is causing behaviors, under the formative construct model, followership behaviors would be causing followership (Podsakoff et al., 2003). It then follows that followership theories do not need to explain or measure the stable identity of followers (that is, followership that resides in individuals); but rather prescribe followership behaviors that reflect and inform reality. Moreover, this formative model would better account for the dynamic nature of leader-follower identities and would be better suited for the role perspective of followership/leadership, such that individuals can switch between leader and follower roles (and behaviors) without being cocooned into one identity (Baker et al., 2011).

Looking at many followership (and even leadership) instruments, many of these constructs, although posited as latent, are formative in nature. For example, Kelley's (1988) model of followership classified followership behaviors along two dimensions – critical thinking and level of involvement. Just visually analyzing these two scales suggests there is going to be a low intercorrelation between how one critically thinks and their level of involvement; and as a result such scales would likely yield low fit statistics, making it difficult to validate. However, if we approach these scales as formative indicators that are causing effective followership, then we would not need to satisfy fit indices criteria, in which case, face and content validity would be sufficient (Podsakoff et al., 2003).

Developing a Followership Curriculum

Throughout this paper, we have seen how important the roles of the followers are in the leadership process. There is no gainsaying that followership is a natural phenomenon; it is one we cannot continue to deny. Despite its importance, followership has not been given the attention it deserves by leadership scholars. However, many follower-centric scholars have now proposed that leadership development programs develop a curriculum that is particularly designed for followership development (Dixon & Westbrook, 2003; Johnson, 2009; Kellerman, 2013). While there are clear justifications for this recommendation, it is, nonetheless, aspirational. Moreover, since followership derives its essence from leadership as much as leadership derives its essence from followership, it makes little sense to have a stand-alone followership program, at least for now. In addition, as Ford and Harding (2018), as well as Schedlitzki and colleagues (2018), have noted, there are few people who identify as followers. Therefore, starting a stand-alone program/certificate for a field that is relatively unpopular might be taking on too much too soon. Perhaps a good starting point would be a followership curriculum infused into the leadership curriculum. For example, a leadership educator might teach some topics on followership using followership models (e.g., Chaleff, 2008; Kelley, 1988), in addition to the standard leadership

topics being taught. In this way, we would start teaching aspiring leaders how to be effective followers. In the modern discourses of leadership, there is a general sense that leaders need to learn to step back and follow sometimes, because they do not always have the answer. However, what better way to teach leaders how to follow than to teach them followership alongside leadership? These programs may then offer an 'effective leader-follower' certificate instead of a stand-alone followership or leadership certificate.

Conclusions and Recommendations

In this paper, we have argued for the legitimacy of followership as a field of study and rebuffed the sentiment that followership should be left unexplored (Ford & Harding, 2018). Since followership occurs in the same space with leadership, an attempt to explore followership is, in essence, an attempt to explore leadership (Crossman & Crossman, 2011; Hurwitz and Hurwitz, 2009). The extant knowledge on leadership could be more profound if we commit to studying followership and the context in which leadership and followership take place (Kellerman, 2013).

We have recommended we study followership as roles – this perspective would allow us to switch between leader-follower roles, knowing when to lead and when to take a step back and follow (Baker et al., 2011). While roles sometimes come with position, seeing leadership as a role should not be confused with seeing leadership as a position. Leadership as a position suggests you cannot exercise leadership until you have a formal authority (Grint, 2000). On the other hand, seeing leadership as a role is not exclusive to those having formal authority and can include anyone who steps up to function in a leadership capacity, which makes leader emergence and leader identity so dynamic – one minute you are a leader, and the next minute you could be a follower. This, we believe, is in consonance with many modern discourses on leadership and followership (Agho, 2009; Crossman & Crossman, 2011; Hurwitz and Hurwitz, 2009; Nielsen & Cleal, 2011).

Lastly, we recommend leadership educators incorporate followership into leadership by having a followership curriculum infused into the leadership curriculum (Johnson, 2009). Rather than a stand-alone certificate of its own (Chaleff, 2008), we suggest having a joint 'effective leader-follower' certificate. This would expose aspiring leaders to followership while teaching them to see leadership and followership as roles, rather than a position they hold – they should then be taught the behaviors important for functioning in each role and how to switch between those behaviors. This, we believe, would begin to change the narrative around followership, foster appreciation of followership, and encourage the willingness to identify and function as effective followers.

References

Agho, A. O. (2009). Perspectives of senior-level executives on effective followership and leadership. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, 16(2), 159-166. http://doi.org/10.1177/1548051809335360

Baker, S. D. (2007). Followership: The theoretical foundation of a contemporary construct. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, *14*(1), 50-60. http://doi.org/10.1177/0002831207304343

Baker, S. D., Mathis, C. J., & Stites-Doe, S. (2011). An exploratory study investigating leader and follower characteristics at U.S. healthcare Organizations. *Journal of Managerial Issues*, 23(3), 341-363. Retrieved from http://www.jstor.org/stable/23209120

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

Burke, P. J. (2003). Relationships among multiple identities. In P. J. Burke (Ed.), Advances in identity theory and research (pp. 195-214). New York, NY: Kluwer Academic/Plenum.

Chaleff, I. (2008) *Creating new ways of following. the art of followership: how great followers create great leaders and organizations*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Chaleff, I. (2015). *Intelligent disobedience: Doing right when what you're told to do is wrong*. Oakland, C: Berrett-Koehler Publishers.

Crossman, B., & Crossman, J. (2011). Conceptualising followership: A review of the literature. *Leadership*, 7(4), 481-497. http://doi.org/10.1177/1742715011416891

Dixon, G., & Westbrook, J. (2003) Followers revealed. *Engineering Management Journal*, *15*(1), 19-26. http://doi.org/10.1080/10429247.2003.11415192

Ford, J., & Harding, N. (2018). Followers in leadership theory: Fiction, fantasy and illusion. Leadership, 14(1), 3–24. https://doi.org/10.1177/1742715015621372

Grint, K. (2000). *The Art of leadership.* United Kingdom: Oxford University Press.

Johnson, C. E. (2009). Introducing followership into the leadership classroom: An integrative approach. *Journal of Leadership Education*, *8*(2), 20-31.

Kellerman, B. (2013). Leading questions: The end of leadership–redux. *Leadership*, *9*(1), 135-139. http://doi.org/10.1177/1742715012455132

Kelley, R. E. (1988). In Praise of followers. *Harvard Business Review*, 66(6), 142-148.

Kelley, R. (1992). *The Power of followership*. New York, NY: Doubleday.

Lord, R. G., Brown, D. J., & Freiberg, S. J. (1999). Understanding the dynamics of leadership: The role of follower self-concepts in the leader/follower relationship. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 78(3), 167–203. https://doi.org/10.1006/obhd.1999.2832

McGannon, B. (2011). Intelligent disobedience: The art of saying 'no'to senior managers. *Advising Upwards: A Framework for Understanding and Engaging Senior Management Stakeholders*, 297-316.

NACE (2018). Job outlook 2016: the attributes employers want to see on new college graduates' resumes. Retrieved from: http://www.naceweb.org/career-development/trends-and-predictions/job-outlook-2016-attributes-employers-want-to-see-on-new-college-graduates-resumes/

Nielsen, K., & Cleal, B. (2011). Under which conditions do middle managers exhibit transformational leadership behaviors?—An experience sampling method study on the predictors of transformational leadership behaviors. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *22*(2), 344-352. http://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2011.02.009

Pittman, T. S., Rosenbach, W. E., & Potter III, E. H. (1998). Followers as partners: Taking the initiative for action. *Contemporary issues in leadership*, 107-120.

Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Podsakoff, N. P., & Lee, J. Y. (2003). The mismeasure of man (agement) and its implications for leadership research. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *14*(6), 615-656. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2003.08.002

Rosenbach, W. E., Pittman, T. S., & Potter III, E. H. (1996). Performance and relationship questionnaire [Questionnaire]. Unpublished instrument. Retrieved from: http://www.leadingandfollowing.com/documents /PRQSample.pdf

Rosenthal, S.A. (2012). National leadership index 2012: A national study of confidence in leadership. Center for Public Leadership, Harvard Kennedy School, Harvard University, Cambridge, MA.

Schedlitzki, D., Edwards, G., & Kempster, S. (2018). The absent follower: Identity construction within organisationally assigned leader–follower relations. *Leadership*, *14*(4), 483–503. https://doi.org/10.1177/1742715017693544

Waterman, A. S. (1982). Identity development from adolescence to adulthood: An extension of theory and a review of research. *Developmental Psychology*, *18*(3), 341-358.

http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0012-1649.18.3.341

Yukl, G.A. (1999). An evaluation of conceptual weaknesses in transformational and charismatic leadership theories. *Leadership Quarterly*, 4(3), 379-388. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S1048-9843(99)00013-2

A Culture of Leadership Identity Development: Big Problems, Big Possibilities

Jarred A. Shellhouse, Cameron J. Outlaw, Valerie Sledd & Hannah S. Carter
University of Florida

Abstract

Global complex problems compromise the future of the world. Leadership education needs to create a culture of innovation, collaboration and leadership to make the space for learners to find solutions to these problems. Using leadership identity development (LID) as a guide, this study offers insight for educators to better understand learner's needs and create intentional meaning in the learner's leadership experiences. This study used systems thinking and wicked problems as the focus, but observed leadership as the byproduct. Learning designers must renovate leadership curriculum to help students develop unique solutions using their own experiences, perspective sharing, collaboration, and leadership in order to address the problems facing the world today.

Introduction

College is a time when individuals may develop their identity, whether it is a digital identity (Brown, 2016), through trusting in oneself (Baxter Magolda, 1998), developing autonomy and emotional intelligence (Chickering & Reisser, 1993; Goleman, 1998), or in a leadership capacity (Komives, Owen, Longerbeam, Mainella & Osteen, 2005). To take advantage of this time of growth, collegiate leadership programs often seek a more developmental and individualized approach for their college student participants, which can be more effective than one-size-fits-all programs (Johnson & Mincer, 2017). Campbell, Syed and Morris (2010) discussed the need for leadership curriculum which helps students develop their own ideas and perceptions about leadership and explained that faculty should better understand the needs of developing leaders in order to create meaning in their own experiences, leading to growth.

In order for collegiate leadership programs to assist with student leadership identity development (LID), it is imperative that programs be able to recognize the growth needs of students based on their initial development as they come into the programs. Furthermore, programs must be able to assist with student LID, knowing that each student participant has a different path for identity development and growth. The purpose of this study was to use a LID model to describe the paths of student development in a collegiate interdisciplinary leadership development course. This interdisciplinary course utilized global complex adaptive problems like climate change and population growth as the context in which to understand a student's LID process. The context of these "big problems" gave students a lens to analyze the world around them and discover how they can be future solution-creators. By better understanding how a leadership course can influence students' LID, collegiate leadership programs can become more intentional in assisting LID in their participants.

The study of interdisciplinary undergraduate students' LID benefits collegiate leadership educators who seek to build leadership culture through their courses. Just as building a leadership culture is a complex and dynamic process, undergraduate students' LID can be complex and vary from student to student. Understanding how students representing various education paths develop their leadership identities in an interdisciplinary leadership course may

provide clues to how collegiate leadership educators can foster a nurturing leadership culture in their learning environments; such a culture could be purposefully beneficial to students in their identity development. Creating more awareness of and enabling students to explore their leadership identity in an interdisciplinary undergraduate leadership course affords the next generation of leaders big opportunities to address big problems.

This research, which was conducted in 2018, contributes to the National Leadership Education Research Agenda (Andenoro, Allen, Haber-Curran, Jenkins, Sowcik, Dugan, & Osteen, 2013). NLERA was designed to guide research priorities for leadership scholars between the years of 2013 and 2018. Priority III of NLERA articulates the need to study the Psychological Development of the leader, Learner & Follower (Andenoro et al., 2013). This research study contributes to Priority III because the researchers used complex adaptive problems as a medium to foster learning and growth in students. Students were not placed into formal leader or follower roles. Instead leadership grew organically in student groups. They were challenged to look at issues the world was facing on a global or local scale and collaborate in order to create solutions to those issues. In this process, leadership development was not the focus, but rather the byproduct. In consistent reflection, discussion and perspective-sharing, the research illustrated that leadership identity development can shift among students on different spectrums, using the complex problems as the focus for growth.

Literature Review

Leadership Identity

The identity of a leader is often ambiguous (DeRue & Wellman, 2009). Over time, leaders have been identified by having innate characteristics (Stodgill, 1948), enhanced skills (Katz, 1955), or acting specific ways in different situations (Blake & Mouton, 1966). However, how a person identifies as a leader and develops that identity as a leader is also important (Clapp-Smith, Hammond, Lester & Palanski, 2019). Hammond, Clapp-Smith and Palanski (2017) acknowledged the idea that leader identity develops in four different areas: strength and salience of identity, integration within the self-concept, the identity level ranging from individual to collective, and the meaning of the identity itself. Komives et al. (2005) categorized leader identity development into six stages that allow easier understanding for the development of a leader's identity.

Miscenko, Geunter and Day (2017) argued that leadership needed not only transformation in leadership skills, but in leader identity. In other words, leaders need to grow and enhance some skills within themselves, but they also need to grow in their identity as a leader. This identity can be developed over time through education, acquired through various experiences, or even lost (Brown, 2015; Kreiner & Sheep, 2009). The changes in leader identity come through the use of various tactics in response to a trigger event or experience (Hammond et al., 2017).

Sometimes, leader identity reaches a point in a person where they believe to have a disproportionate amount of influence on their organization, so a paradoxical identity forms where they believe they have a heroic quality and want to transform their team members, but also have a post-heroic approach with an emphasis on recognition and participation (Nyberg & Sveningsson, 2014). This level is often met in individuals that are leading large groups or

organizations. For students that may just be beginning their journey within leadership identity development, a leader identity approach in leadership education is needed that allows space for continuous reflecting and improving their sense of self as a leader (Clapp-Smith et al., 2019). Developing one's leader identity motivates individuals and gives them better tools to help guide them to understanding their developmental experiences (Miscenko et al., 2017).

Interdisciplinary Leadership Education

Burns (1978) was one of the first to pioneer understanding leadership as an interdisciplinary and educational study. His foundational work paved the way for other schools of thought to emerge in conceptualizing leadership from an academic approach. Today, leadership education continues to evolve as leadership scholars seek to expand the understanding of leadership in light of interdisciplinary contexts and considerations. Murphy and Riggio (2003) noted the vast array of disciplines that teach leadership, but voice a complaint that the actual education is fragmented. They supported the idea of interdisciplinary learning in leadership education by stating, "studying leadership form political, psychological, and historical perspectives should enhance students' more general understanding of the leadership construct" (p. 228). Perruci and Hall (2018) also wrote about the interdisciplinary connections that have spurred the development of leadership studies. They called attention to the diversity of academic departments in which leadership is housed in academia and discuss the implications of this fact on the teaching of leadership.

Raymer, Dobbs, Kelley, and Lindsay (2018) discussed the formation of an interdisciplinary leadership course at the United States Air Force Academy. The core academic leader development course had undergone a series of evolutions over time, and the transformations were documented. By integrating all four years of students' education and roles within the academy, the course curriculum sought to expand students' understanding of leadership beyond theoretical concepts. This integration of students' outer-classroom experiences and goals benefits the interdisciplinary nature of the course; the course was designed to engage students at their personal stage of leadership development and train them with contextual considerations. As it stands now, the course utilizes an interdisciplinary curriculum to "prepare students to practice leadership at all levels at and beyond" the institution (p. 141).

Andenoro, Dulikarvich, McBride, Stedman, and Childers (2019) published findings related to interdisciplinary leadership education for undergraduate students at the University of Florida to this study. They discussed the application of learning methods, specifically the F.A.C.E. method (Stedman & Andenoro, 2015), decision-framing (Kahneman & Tversky, 1984), the psychology of prediction (Kahneman & Tversky, 1973), and incisive questioning (Kline, 1999), to interdisciplinary college students' ability to address complex adaptive problems. Andenoro et al. (2019) concluded that "when adaptive leadership capacity, systems thinking, and socially responsible agency are joined with innovative experiential leadership education aimed at instilling process-based confidence and expertise in interdisciplinary students, a tremendous educational environment with significant implications for addressing complex problems emerges" (p. 168). Ultimately, leveraging the interdisciplinary nature of students and curricula enhances the context of leadership education.

Leadership Development based on the LID Model

Just as education is described as a process, the development of leadership is described as empowering, ethical, and a process (Komives, Lucas, & McMahon, 2013). Komives, Longerbeam, Mainella, Osteen, Owen, and Wagner (2005) created the LID model as a template for understanding and even measuring the growth of individuals in their journey towards a more holistic embodiment of leadership.

Odom, Boyd, and Williams (2012) analyzed undergraduate students' assignments in a personal leadership collegiate course at Texas A&M University using the LID model created by Komives et al. (2005). Students were given the assignment to create a personal growth plan (PGP) by first participating in an experience that was outside their personal comfort zone, then reflecting on their experience to develop themselves. A total of 90 students' PGP reflection assignments were analyzed and understood using the LID model by Komives et al. (2005) as a lens. The researchers specifically examined the assignments for students' development as it relates to the Developing Self stage of the LID model (Komives et al., 2005). The findings showed evidence of each component of the Developing Self stage of the model, including deepening self-awareness, building self-confidence, establishing interpersonal efficacy, applying new skills, and expanding motivations, in students' reflection assignments. Students appeared to grow most in the area of developing self-awareness.

Odom et al. (2012)'s methods and findings were used to inform this study which sought to use the LID model to study undergraduate students' leadership development in an interdisciplinary course.

Theoretical Framework

The LID model illustrates the process in which students perceive leadership capacity in their selves and others by taking five distinct categories that influence leadership development and breaking them into six measurable stages (Komives et al., 2009; Komives, Longerbeam, Owen, Mainella, & Osteen, 2006; Komives et al., 2005).

There are six identified stages are as follows:

- Awareness (Stage One): becoming aware that there are leaders "out there" who are external to self like the President of the United States, one's mother, or a teacher;

- Exploration/Engagement (Stage Two): a period of immersion in group experiences usually to make friends; a time of learning to engage with others (e.g., swim team, boy scouts, church choir);

- Leader Identified (Stage Three): viewing leadership as the actions of the positional leader of a group; an awareness of the hierarchical nature of relationships in groups;

- Leadership Differentiated (Stage Four): viewing leadership also as non-positional and as a shared group process;

- Generativity (Stage Five): a commitment to developing leadership in others and having a passion for issues or group objectives that the person wants to influence; and,

- Integration/Synthesis (Stage Six): acknowledging the personal capacity for leadership in diverse contexts and claiming the identity as a leader without having to hold a positional role (Komives et al., 2009, p. 14).

According to the LID model, the five categories that influence LID can influence an individual's progression of stage development. For example, for an individual to move from stage one (Awareness) to stage two (Exploration/Engagement), the individual can be impacted by the *development of self* (which can be initiated by *group influences*), which leads to the *changing view of self with others*, which may result in the *broadening view of leadership*. Other *developmental influences*, such as adult or peer influences, meaningful involvement, and reflective learning, can also affect the progression of stages (Komives et al., 2009).

The LID model has served as the framework for various studies in leadership education. Derr (2018) utilized the LID model to understand the progression of undergraduate students' leadership identity at elite institutions. She found that the social identities and social location of undergraduate learners matter in their development as well as the LID model being a helpful framework for her specific population.

Methods

Population and Context

Bryman, Stephens, and a Campo (1996) stated that various contextual factors influence the findings and their transferability in qualitative studies. Thus, it is important to understand the context in which this research was conducted. This study took place at the University of Florida. The course was an interdisciplinary leadership course focused on the development of transdisciplinary undergraduate learners' capacity for solving complex problems.

The thirty-nine undergraduate students in this interdisciplinary leadership development course were studied using the lens of the LID model in order to watch their growth in understanding of leadership throughout a semester. Students represented a variety of majors and colleges from the University of Florida as well as the four undergraduate levels of freshman, sophomore. Densten and Gray (2001) note that the use of reflection is crucial to leadership development, and so the students were asked to submit a weekly reflection, applying one of their course concepts from the week to their own experiences in leadership and problem-solving.

Throughout the course, students heard about the research and projects conducted by local community and state members, participated in site visits, and worked through interdisciplinary curriculum. Through the lens of five global systems (food, economic, environmental, social, and health), students were asked to create innovative ideas for the addressing complex adaptive problems. Each week, students read about global issues and studied academic articles, listened to a guest lecturer that was an expert in the subject matter, and took part in class and small group discussion about the implications and potential solutions to problems presented.

The students in the class developed relationships partly due to the intentional efforts of the instructors to bring psychological safety and camaraderie into the culture of the class. The zeitgeist of the course was energetic, inquisitive, and connected. Though the students came from 24 different disciplines, they were dedicated and interested in the course.

Data Collection

This phenomenological study recognizes that student reflections may yield rich, retrospective data (Van Manen, 1990) that can be used to identify stages of development. For the purposes of this study, the researchers analyzed the first and last reflection responses to the following questions:

> *Week 1:* Tell your story of leadership -- your understanding of it, your experiences with it. In this reflection, (1) share your personal definition of leadership, (2) identify how your conception of leadership has changed since being in college aka what it was before college and where it is now [if this is your first semester in college, use the knowledge you have from high school], and (3) attach a picture that you believe embodies leadership. Upload your one-page, single-spaced Word Doc to Canvas. Dig deep!
>
> *Final week:* Answer the following questions about leadership: how do you define leadership? Has it changed since the beginning of the course? If so, how and why?

Data Analysis

A priori codes (Harding, 2013) developed from each stage of the LID model were used to categorize students' reflection responses to the first and final week's reflection prompts in one of the six stages. A team of three researchers, who also serve as the authors of this submission, was employed to review the codes together and ensure validity in the findings as comparisons of reflections and codes were made for triangulation (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011; Patton, 2002). Of the three researchers, one was an instructor for the course, one appeared as a guest lecture to the students twice, and the third had no contact or connection to the course at all. The researchers discussed the stages of LID and a priori codes prior to coding the reflections individually. The researchers received both reflections for all students at one time, in a random order to reduce order effects.

The a priori codes for each stage of the LID model were used to identify stage development for the first reflection, and then separately used again to examine stage development for the final reflection. Then, the researchers charted the growth (or lack thereof) of each student's LID from the first reflection to the final based on the codes identified in students' reflections.

There is a limitation in this study because the only data available for analysis were from the students' first and last reflections. The students may have other opinions or life experiences with leadership that could classify them in a different LID stage, but the researchers could only code what was explicitly stated in the reflections in their first and last reflection assignments.

Results

Week 1 Reflection

The 39 students' reflections were analyzed using the a priori codes (Harding, 2013) and classified into the six stages from the LID model. Due to some of the reflections having more than one central idea, some responses were classified under more than one stage. Pseudonyms were used to protect the identity of the students.

The number of responses coded into each category is identified in Table 1. The percentage reflects the total number of themes identified, rather than the number of students, to accurately illustrate all student reflections, even those that had more than one central leadership theme.

Table 1
Number and percentage of responses from student reflections in week 1 per each LID stage. N=88

LID Category	**n***	**Percentage**
Awareness	14	15.9
Exploration/Engagement	20	22.7
Leader Identified	34	38.6
Leader Differentiated	8	9.1
Generativity	10	11.4
Integration/Synthesis	2	2.3

*Note: n=number of responses from all 39 students that included a specific theme. Total number of themes was greater than total number of students because some students included more than one theme.

In the first reflection, 14 students' responses exhibited evidence of LID in Stage One (Awareness). Jenna said "I realized there were many different types of leaders, but to me, they all had titles. I knew the president led the country, the governors ran their respective states, and Daniel, the coolest boy in school, ran [school name] High School." In this stage, students' reflections discussed the ideas of leaders having titles, or looking up to leaders like their parents, who have embodied leadership characteristics as long as they could remember.

Twenty students shared evidence of Stage Two (Exploration/Engagement) LID in their first reflection by discussing times in which they saw leadership developing in different groups they

were part of, such as mission trips or sports teams in which different teammates naturally rose to leadership or assumed a positional leadership title. Leah mentioned her experiences on the cheerleading squad at school: “Although there were not any appointed captains, some people were able to take on leadership easily. I believe… their extrovert personality mixed with their seniority allowed them to be listened to.”

Thirty-four out of the 39 students described experiences that were interpreted as evidence of Stage Three (Leader Identified) LID. Caitlyn even used a superhero analogy to describe how she interpreted leadership: “Being a leader can be looked upon as being Superman: he fights crime, saves the city, and keeps everyone safe.” She, and many other students, interpreted leadership as the action taken by someone in a leadership position that reflected how the rest of the team could or should act.

Eight student responses provided evidence of Stage Four (Leadership Differentiated). Ten student responses were coded with Stage Five (Generativity) codes, and two students touched on experiences that fit into Stage Six (Integration/Synthesis) in their Week 1 reflections.

Final Reflection

In the final reflection for the course, only one response provided evidence that was coded to fit into Stage One (Awareness). Daniel came from a military background, so a lot of hisperceptions of leadership and leadership identity were tied to ideas of military leaders and following orders in accordance to rank, which coincided with the thought that leaders were external to self and existed in the world.

Six students used their final reflection to talk about an aspect of learning about leadership through the immersion of group experiences, and thus these reflections were coded in Stage Two (Exploration/Engagement).

Eighteen students discussed experiences related to Stage Three (Leadership Identified), where they developed ideas of leadership through the actions of a positional leader. The researchers recognized codes from Stage Four (Leadership Differentiated) in 13 student responses. Valerie mentioned that “leadership is a lot more than just being at the top. It's about helping others get there too.”

There were many students, 24 in total, that discussed ideas and experiences that were coded into Stage Five (Generativity). Gab noted that “leadership is recognizing the gaps in a team and identifying how everyone can work together to bridge those gaps,” demonstrating insight into developing others. In a similar sense, Regan said, “This class has taught me that you don’t have to be the loudest or the most aggressive person in the room to be a leader, but you do have to have ideas and a passion that draws people to your cause,” demonstrating insight into leadership involving a particular issue or idea to guide the group.

There were nine responses that were classified in Stage Six (Integration/Synthesis). Alexander stated, “every one of us, because of our unique perspective, has the ability to be a leader,” and

Jenna (who originally associated leadership with titles) wrote, “I now fully understand that anyone, and I mean anyone, can be a leader.”

The actual number of responses per each category in the final reflections is noted in Table 2.

Table 2
Number and percentage of responses from student reflections in the final reflection per each LID stage.
N=71

LID Category	**n***	**Percentage**
Awareness	1	1.4
Exploration/Engagement	6	8.5
Leader Identified	18	25.4
Leader Differentiated	13	18.3
Generativity	24	33.8
Integration/Synthesis	9	12.7

*Note: n=number of responses from all 39 students that included a specific theme. Total number of themes was greater than total number of students because some students included more than one theme.

Development Between Reflections

Each individual was then examined to determine if there was evidence of growth between the two reflections. There was evidence of positive LID in 21 of the 39 students, with six demonstrating growth of one stage (e.g. Stage Three to Stage Four), while 15 demonstrated growth of two or more stages (e.g. Stage Two to Stage Four). Three students showed evidence of regression through LID (e.g. Stage Four to Stage Three), eleven students stayed within the same stage(s) (e.g. Stage Four to Stage Four), and one student did not discuss his leadership experiences in the final reflection, so his final stages were unable to determine. However, three students showed both growth and regression in LID (e.g. Stage Four to Stage Three, and Stage Four to Stage Five).

Discussion & Conclusions

Komives et al. (2006) notes that each stage in the process ends with a transition that signaled a new stage’s beginning and that this transition was often more reflective than active and involved

students letting go of some of their previously held beliefs to make room for new ones. For this study, the transitions between stages could have occurred in many capacities: discussion or curriculum facilitation in weekly class sessions, extra-curricular involvement in collegiate organizations, job experiences, or another facet of the college students' lives.

The results indicate growth (positive stage development) in over half the students' perceptions of leadership throughout the LID model. It is important to remember that the researchers classified some essays into multiple stages if the essay presented multiple central ideas.

While Komives et al. (2013) discuss the growth of LID in a sequential order throughout the stages from Awareness to Integration, this study showed that, within the context of the reflections, the students' perceptions of leadership could change due to group influences, changing of the self or other developmental influences (Komives et al., 2009) but not always in sequential order. This could be due to students seeing their leadership role as non-positional in nature (Stage Four, Leader Differentiated) in the beginning of the class, but choosing to use the final reflection to only discuss times that they were in an authoritative position or had a title and felt the influence of their leadership (Stage Three, Leader Identified).

Many of the students (24 in total) noted experiences in Stage Five (Generativity) in their final reflection. In this stage, individuals demonstrate "a commitment to developing leadership in others and having a passion for issues or group objectives that the person wants to influence" (Komives et al. 2009, p. 14). Due to the nature of this class introducing systems thinking and complex global problems, the students were given a substantial amount of curriculum to teach problem-solving within a group. This may be one reason that so many students used their final reflection to talk about leaders needing to be able to have a vision, and being committed to working with and developing other group members to achieve shared goals.

There was also growth in the number of students with evidence in Stage Six (Integration/Synthesis) from the first reflection to the final week's. In Week 1, only two reflections noted something about the student identifying their personal capacity of leadership without being tied to a position, but in the final reflection, the number of responses grew to nine. Students noted things like "I realized we are all leaders in our own way," or "what has changed is that I now believe that I can be a leader."

It is important to note that out of all of the themes collected in each of the reflections, 38.6 percent of the themes fell into Stage Three (Leader Identified) in the first week. However, in the final week, the highest number of themes identified were in Stage Five (Generativity) with 33.8 percent of the themes falling into that category. This shows that students' foci of what leadership is has in fact shifted throughout the LID model in a positive way. The thought process that leadership was positional began to shift toward an idea that leadership revolves around a vision and inspiring others to act. This was a byproduct from the systems thinking and solution creation with which the students were tasked.

Throughout the course, students were put into groups and asked to solve complex issues together. There was no specified leader, but each group had to work together to identify a problem and solutions to their selected problem. Students were encouraged to listen to the

perspectives of others, talk about the issues that were important to them, and collaborate in selecting an issue and developing solutions. This process could be contributing to the mentality that students see that leaders do not have to be in a position of authority and they could envision themselves as leaders in every step of that process. Many students used their reflections to note that their "introversion" or shyness prohibited them from seeking out formal leadership positions in previous organizations to which they belonged, but their class allowed them to "be a leader without having the title."

Eleven students remained in the same Stage(s) from the first week to the final reflection. Many of them noted that they studied leadership in some capacity before this class so their "definition of leadership did not change," it just "was refined" or "evolved" throughout the class.

These results help illustrate the effectiveness of a set curriculum focused specifically on problem-solving and complex systems thinking on the growth of undergraduate learners' leadership identities. The course utilized reflection, collaboration and systems thinking to facilitate an environment of growth, innovation, and leadership development.

Students self-identified with certain leadership characteristics in which they understood how leadership can develop outside of formalized positions, and how leaders should develop others and motivate them to work toward a shared vision. These results help current leadership development practitioners and faculty understand the leadership identities of college students and understand how a course intermixed with global issues and systems thinking can help guide students through the LID process. The value of the interdisciplinary nature of the course and the relationships formed with the instructors and peers was crucial to the success of the course. Leadership education when housed in significant pursuits, like saving the planet, greatly assists learners' advancement through the stage of the LID model. With this information, leadership educators can leverage interdisciplinary curriculum to create meaningful learning moments for students to progress in their understanding of leadership and their association with a leadership identity.

As a result of conducting this study in an interdisciplinary leadership course that operationalized global problems, learners were exposed to a variety of opportunities for their leadership identity to develop. Context is everything. Programs should push learners, and this course allowed students to brainstorm complex solutions to help solve the "big problems" of the world. Because of the focus of the course, LID was analyzed as a byproduct of the course. In the future, reflections could be refocused to discuss understanding of leader identity to analyze both understanding and growth, rather than perceived growth based on reflection experiences.

Future research should be conducted to determine the longitudinal identities for the students' leadership capacities and to understand if there was a "trigger" for the transition from one stage into the next throughout their weekly reflections. Future research should also be conducted to further explore why students did not follow a linear progression through the LID stages. Such research may provide new insight for leadership educators attempting to use the LID model to track student identity growth.

Appendix A

Leadership Identity Development Coding Sheet

Stage	Context	Hallmarks
Stage 1 Awareness	Becoming aware that there are leaders "out there" who are external to self like the President of the United States, one's mother, or a teacher	Defining/acknowledging that leaders exist externally to the self and within positions of authority
Stage 2 Exploration/Engagement	A period of immersion in group experiences usually to make friends; a time of learning to engage with others (e.g., swim team, boy scouts, church choir)	Observing leadership within groups or social circles; Acknowledging that groups have a hierarchal structure; Demonstrated learning social interactions within the context of leadership
Stage 3 Leader Identified	Viewing leadership as the actions of the positional leader of a group; an awareness of the hierarchical nature of relationships in groups	Attributing leadership to the formal, positional leader in a social group; Acknowledging characteristics "of leadership" from a groups formal leader
Stage 4 Leadership Differentiated	Viewing leadership also as non-positional and as a shared group process	Acknowledging leadership characteristics that came from a non-positional leader
Stage 5 Generativity	A commitment to developing leadership in others and having a passion for issues or group objectives that the person wants to influence	Discussing leadership in the capacity of influence and vision for the group; Acknowledging leadership as building/growing others and moving toward a common goal
Stage 6 Integration/Synthesis	Acknowledging the personal capacity for leadership in diverse contexts and claiming the identity as a leader without having to hold a positional role	Sees themselves as a leader in non-positional contexts; Explains own attributes that demonstrate leadership even when not in a formalized leadership role

Stages and context from Komives et al. (2009).

References

Andenoro, A. C., Allen, S. J., Haber-Curran, P., Jenkins, D. M., Sowcik, M., Dugan, J. P., & Osteen, L. (2013). *National Leadership Education research agenda 2013-2018: Providing strategic direction for the field of leadership education.* Retrieved from http://leadershipeducators.org/ResearchAgenda.

Andenoro, A. C., Dulikarvich, L. M., McBride, C. H., Stedman, N. L., & Childers, J. (2019). A new lens for leadership education: Developing agency and effective decision-making in the face of counter-reality. *Journal of Leadership Education, 18*(1), 161-173.

Blake, R.R. and Mouton, J.S. (1966). Some effects of managerial grid seminar training on union and management attitudes toward supervision. *The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science 2*(4), 387-400

Baxter Magolda, M. B. (1998). Developing self-authorship in young adult life. *Journal of College Student Development, 39*(2), 143-156.

Brown, A. D. (2015). Identities and identity work in organizations. *International Journal of Management Reviews, 17*(1), 20-40.

Brown, P. G. (2016). College student development in digital spaces. *New Directions for Student Services, 2016*(155), 59-73.

Bryman, A., Stephens, M., & a Campo, C. (1996). The importance of context: Qualitative research and the study of leadership. *The Leadership Quarterly, 7*(3), 353-370.

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

Campbell, D. F., Syed, S., & Morris, P. A. (2010). Minding the gap: Filling a void in community college leadership development. *New Directions for Community Colleges, 2010*(149), 33-39.

Chickering, A. W., & Reisser, L. (1993). Education and identity (2nd ed.). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Clapp-Smith, R., Hammond, M. H., Lester, G. V., & Palanski, M. (2019). Promoting identity development in leadership education: A multidomain approach to developing the whole leader. *Journal of Management Education, 43*(1), 10-34.

Creswell, J. W., & Plano Clark, V. L. (2011). Designing and conducting mixed methods research. *2 ed.*

Densten, I. L., & Gray, J. H. (2001) Leadership development and reflection: what is the connection? *International Journal of Educational Management, 15*(3), 119-124.

Derr, E. L. (2018). *Beyond Dependent and Independent: Student Leadership Identity Development in an Achievement-Oriented Context* (Doctoral dissertation, Georgetown University).

DeRue, D. S., & Wellman, N. (2009). Developing leaders via experience: The role of developmental challenge, learning orientation, and feedback availability. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 94*(4), 859-875.

Goleman, D. Working with Emotional Intelligence. New York: Bantam, 1998.

Hammond, M., Clapp-Smith, R., & Palanski, M. (2017). Beyond (just) the workplace: A theory of leader development across multiple domains. *Academy of Management Review, 42*(3), 481-498.

Harding, J. (2013). *Qualitative data analysis from start to finish*. Sage.

Johnson, M. R., & Mincer, G. (2017) Fostering socially responsible leadership in college students: Insights from the multi-institutional study of leadership. *New Directions for Student Services, 2017*(159), 47-59.

Kahneman, D., & Tversky, A. (1973). On the psychology of prediction. *Psychological Review, 80*(4), 237.

Kahneman, D., & Tversky, A. (1984). Choices, values, and frames. *American Psychologist, 39*(4), 341.

Katz, R.L. (1955). Skills of an effective administrator. *Harvard Business Review, 33*(1), 33-42.

Kline, N. (1999). Time to think: Listening to ignite the human mind. London, UK: Ward Lock, Cassell Illustrated.

Komives, S. R., Owen, J. E., Longerbeam, S. D., Mainella, F. C., & Osteen, L. (2005). Developing a leadership identity: A grounded theory. *Journal of College Student Development, 46*(6), 593-611.

Komives, S. R., Longerbeam, S. D., Mainella, F., Osteen, L., Owen, J. E., & Wagner, W. (2009). Leadership identity development: Challenges in applying a developmental model. *Journal of Leadership Education, 8*(1), 11-47.

Komives, S. R., Longerbeam, S. D., Owen, J. E., Mainella, F. C., & Osteen, L. (2006). A leadership identity development model: Applications from a grounded theory. *Journal of College Student Development, 47*(4), 401-418.

Komives, S., Lucas, R., & McMahon, T. R. (2013). Revisiting the relational leadership model: Perspectives from the third edition of exploring leadership. Eugene, Oregon: The University of Oregon.

Komives, S. R., Owen, J. E., Longerbeam, S. D., Mainella, F. C., Osteen, L. (2005). Developing a leadership identity: A grounded theory. *Journal of College Student Development, 46*(6), 593-611.

Kreiner, G. E., & Sheep, M. (2009). Growing pains and gains: Framing identity dynamics as opportunities for identity growth. *Exploring positive identities and organizations: Building a theoretical and research foundation*, 23-46.

Mezirow, J. (1997). Transformative learning: Theory to practice. *New directions for adult and continuing education, 1997*(74), 5-12.

Miscenko, D., Guenter, H., & Day, D. V. (2017). Am I a leader? Examining leader identity development over time. *The Leadership Quarterly, 28*(5), 605-620.

Murphy, S. E., & Riggio, R. E. (Eds.). (2003). *The future of leadership development*. Psychology Press.

Odom, S. F., Boyd, B. L., & Williams, J. (2012). Impact of Personal Growth Projects on Leadership Identity Development. *Journal of Leadership Education, 11*(1), p. 49-63.

Patton, M. Q. (2002). Two decades of developments in qualitative inquiry: A personal, experiential perspective. *Qualitative social work, 1*(3), 261-283.

Perruci, G., & Hall, S. W. (2018). *Teaching Leadership: Bridging Theory and Practice*. Edward Elgar Publishing.

Raymer, S. D., Dobbs, J., Kelley, C. P., & Lindsay, D. R. (2018). Leadership education and development: Theory driven evolutions. *Journal of Leadership Education, 17*(2), 138-148.

Rowland, D. (2016). Why leadership development isn't developing leaders. *Harvard Business Review*. Retrieved from: https://hbr.org/2016/10/why-leadership-development-isnt-developing-leaders.

Stedman, N. L. P. & Andenoro, A. C. (2015). Emotionally engaged leadership: Shifting paradigms and creating adaptive solutions for 2050. In M. J. Sowcik, A. C. Andenoro, M. Mcnutt, & S. Murphy (Eds.), Leadership 2050: Contextualizing Global Leadership Processes for the Future (p. 147-159). Bingley, West Yorkshire, UK: Emerald Group Publishing.

Stodgill, R. M. (1948). Personal factors associated with leadership: A survey of the literature. *Journal of psychology, 25*(1), 35-71.

Van Manen, M. (1990). Researching lived experience: Human science for an action sensitive pedagogy. New York: State University of New York.

A Two-Method Approach to Exploring Affective Responses to Peer Evaluations in a Leadership Classroom

Jason Headrick, University of Nebraska-Lincoln

L.J. McElravy, University of Nebraska-Lincoln

Megan Ringo, University of Nebraska- Lincoln

Abstract

The process of using peer evaluation in the classroom can be an effective teaching tool with practical application, but also presents challenge in developing emotional reactions to feedback and implications on team dynamics. This research study focuses on affective responses to receiving peer feedback based on performance and contribution on the readiness assurance tests (RAT), a cooperative exam. Students reported responses to peer feedback using the Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS) and a qualitative content analysis of student reflections coding for positive and negative expressions based on peer feedback. Results indicate that both positive and negative affective responses were present after peer feedback was distributed to the students. The content analysis revealed slightly more positive affective statements in the peer feedback plans.

Introduction

The use of peer feedback in education can be a challenging lesson in classroom instruction in leadership and other disciplines. Research suggests that peer feedback can develop confidence, trust, and empowerment of group members in the peer feedback and evaluation process (Hanrahan & Isaacs, 2001; Putzel, 2007). Assessment and evaluation are notable important processes for the instructional design and delivery of leadership courses (Owen, 2011). We also know that the process of leadership is relational (Komives, Lucas, McMahan, 2013). It is paramount for leadership educators to develop and deliver courses that impact a student's ability to see and experience aspects of leadership (Buschlen, 2009). The use of peer evaluation in classroom methodology allows students to experience leadership and understand firsthand the relational aspects that accompany the concept.

This research centered on the peer feedback received in a Dynamics of Groups and Teams course, which utilizes a team-based approach to learning. The peer feedback was given in regards to initial performance on a practice cooperative exam and a graded cooperative exam. Zipp (2007) defines a cooperative exam as an exam that a student first takes individually and then takes with a group. Findings from Zipp (2007) show that cooperative exams enhance learning in the classroom and allow for testing to reflect the instructors' intentions of teaching and learning. Previous studies in leadership education have identified advantages of cooperative exams, including increased understanding through discussion, increased grades on exams, collaboration and teamwork, and an increase in personal accountability (Moore, 2010). Cooperative exams provide a good vantage point for students to experience peer feedback early in the semester and to have an opportunity to make corrections through their peer feedback plans if they desired to do so.

The purpose of this study is to explore students' affective responses to receiving peer feedback based on group member performance and contribution on the readiness assurance tests (RATs), a

cooperative exam taken in a team-based learning course. Two types of data collections methods were used: a quantitative approach that required students to report their affective response to receiving peer feedback, and a qualitative content analysis of student submitted peer feedback plans of actions coding their open-ended reflections for positive and negative expressions.

Research Question

1. w does peer feedback impact affective responses in leadership courses?

Literature Review

Defining Peer Evaluation

Effective team-based learning in leadership occurs when all groups have had the opportunity to develop into learning teams (Michaelson & Sweet, 2008). Utilizing peer feedback is one strategy to develop teams. Peer feedback is defined as a way in which individuals consider their peers' contributions (Topping, 1998) to better convey messages of praise or suggestions of improvements based on one's performance (Mouratidis, Lens, & Vansteenkiste, 2010). However, peer feedback is not constructed in a universal manner, and seems to be more reliable than self-evaluation in constructing a plan for future self-development (Topping, 1998; Mouratidis, Lens, & Vansteenkiste, 2010). The most effective process involves using corrective feedback to create change in one's performance and the team's dynamic. Peer feedback is a social practice that assists in managing relationships, emotions, and responses to a social role (Yang & Carless, 2012), which can then result in peer mentoring and learning groups to better improve peer relations. Feedback is both social and relational (Yang & Carless, 2012) in nature; individuals receive feedback from group members in a critical manner, and can respond by seeking more feedback to better develop relationships and skills in those teams.

The practice of peer assessment and evaluation varies in leadership education (Bright, et al., 2016, Allen, Jenkins, & Krizanovic, 2018), yet remains a crucial leadership skill (Cameron & Caza, 2005). Students may experience a wide range of emotions and reactions when providing feedback to their peers (Bright, et al., 2016, Goertzen & Squire, 2019). Students may also be hesitant to share feedback to their peers that is corrective in nature, particularly early in the class (Guthrie & Jenkins, 2018, p. 259). Buschlen (2009) makes the claim that measure of peer accountability enhanced students' leadership and interpersonal skills and developed students' ability to delegate, handle conflict negotiation, and accept accountability.

Emotional Reaction

The individual level of emotional intelligence allows them to express their emotions and approach relationships with group members in a more judicious manner with higher leadership effectiveness (Rosete & Ciarrochi, 2005). In one leadership classroom study, individual performance success was linked to emotional intelligence and the emotional expression (Ashkansay & Dasborough, 2003).

Another study found that the expression of a negative emotional response was a sign of distress and an individual's method of coping with that feeling was to express negative emotion as a means of affecting interpersonal relationships in a desired way (Kennedy-Moore & Watson, 2001).

When it comes to peer feedback, an individual's self-control filters how reactions are expressed in response to peer feedback that then affect proceeding action (Mendonca and Johnson, 1994). While peer feedback allows for a flexible decision-making process to occur (Chin Lin & Cheih Chien, 2009), comments can be accepted, ignored, or partially incorporated to eventual decision making in regards to responsive behavior (Rollinson, 1998). Peer feedback interacts with behavior derived from the observations of others that affects an individual's response, and allows for the opportunity for an individual to interact with others when creating solutions in response to the feedback (Barns, 1976).

Positive and Negative Reactions to Peer Feedback

While peer feedback is an opportunity to provide corrective feedback to group members and peers, there is a difference in how individuals are motivated to process that change (Rudolph, 2011). The self-regulation theory allows individuals to process behavior and cognition in response to feedback (Bandura, 1991; Yeow & Martin, 2013). When incorporating feedback into behavior and thoughts, there may be anxiety produced in the process. However, peer assessment provides the opportunity for learning to occur in a way that creates a sense of ownership, responsibility, and motivation (Topping, 1998; Iiles, de Pater, & Judge, 2007). This affective process allows individuals to comprehend their response to feedback, which in turn can shape their performance and behavioral regulations (Iiles, de Pater, & Judge, 2007). Emotions play a role in explaining how behavior is consequently expressed. Positive affect tends to be expressed in a more self-focused response and is related to goal attainment, while the lack of an effective process is typically associated with a negative affective response (Alliger & Williams, 1993). There is not a large body of research focused on the negative responses of peer evaluation. One notable study found that medical students cited an aversion to peer feedback because it challenged their relationships with one another and increased competition (Rosendaal & Jennett, 1992). In this same study, an overwhelming number of respondents (89%) cited that the process of evaluating others was seen as threatening to their education.

Goertzen and Squire (2019) reported on the application of peer feedback with graduate leadership students. Although the feedback was focused on a tangible project, specifically a paper, the students still expressed a tension between wanting to receive feedback while at the same time experiencing an emotional response to the feedback.

As a cyclical process, emotions and moods are interrelated: strong emotions can impact mood and mood can result in strong emotional responses. Affect is typically measured as a result of an individual's momentary mood that results in the expression explicit emotion (Iiles, de Pater, & Judge, 2007). Affect then influences how individuals process information to become useful to them (Schwarz & Clore, 1996), allow for creative problem solving (Gasper, 2003), and recall important events (Bower & Forgas, 2001). Positive feedback primes an individual to accept proceeding negative feedback as a process of balancing the type of information received (Topper, 1998). The differing affective response forces an individual to make decisions based on the underlying suggestions from the feedback (Chin Lin & Cheih Chien, 2009). Those decisions then reflect how an individual processed the feedback given that allows them to successfully create appropriate reactions to that feedback (Iiles, de Pater, & Judge, 2007). Positive feedback is supportive and is perceived as more honest, with self-referenced improvement, and can explain how individuals who effectively process information view the peer feedback with a positive lens (Bandura, 1977). Negative feedback reports tend to result in negative affect and hostility toward

those who have given the negative peer feedback, regardless of truth of the feedback (Mouratidis, Lens, & Vansteenkiste, 2010).

Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS) Assessment

Peer feedback allows for a dialogic feedback system to occur in teams (Yang & Carless, 2013). Successful processing of effective feedback allows a space for affective acceptance to occur. Affect is measured on the Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS) (Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988). The PANAS has been used in educational settings (Thompson, 2007; Crawford & Henry, 2004) to assess how individuals responded affectively to critical performance feedback. The 10-item (brief version) self-report measure of positive and negative affect reflects one's emotional response to feedback (Crawford & Henry, 2004). The scale evaluated the affective responses of *upset, hostile, alert, ashamed, inspired, nervous, determined, attentive, afraid,* and *active*.

It claims to provide independent identifications and measures of both positive and negative affect (Crawford & Henry, 2004; Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988). While positive and negative affect can be viewed as polarizing ends of a response process, it is useful in identifying dimensions of trait response and affect (Thompson, 2007). Peer feedback can result in both negative and positive affective responses from an individual.

Theoretical Framework

The general theoretical framework for this research is the broaden-and-build theory of positive emotions (Fredrickson, 1998). This theory states:

> "The broaden-and-build theory posits that experiences of positive emotions broaden people's momentary thought-action repertoires, which in turn serves to build their enduring personal resources, ranging from physical and intellectual resources to social and psychological resources" (p. 218).

When applying this theory to the context of student feedback, if students experience positive affect when receiving peer evaluations, this may provide the ideal mental state for learning. However, if students experience negative affect when receiving their evaluations, this mental state could serve as an obstacle to learning. Thus, the purpose of this study is to explore students' affective responses to receiving peer feedback in a team-based learning course. Two types of data are collected in this study. First, quantitative data in response to student's receipt of peer-feedback is collected using the Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS) (Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988). Second, student reflections on peer-feedback are content analyzed for positive and negative affective expressions. The combinations of data using two different methods and sources from two varying points in time provide a more holistic picture about how the students affectively respond to receiving peer feedback.

Methods

Sample

The data for this paper was conducted at a large Midwestern public university in an upper-level undergraduate leadership course focused on the dynamics of groups and teams. 60% of the class members were at junior-level in credit hours and 40% were at senior-level. 80% of the class identified as female and 20% identify as male. 10% of participants were leadership majors, and

72% of the students had declared the leadership minor offered from the department. A convenience sample consisted of the students registered in the course. While bias may be present in convenience samples (Fricker, 2008), this sample was the best manner to get a comprehensive response for the intent of the research.

Procedure

The Dynamics of Groups and Teams course provides a foundational knowledge of team and group dynamics theories in relation to the practice of leadership in organizations and communities. Course objectives focus on group decision-making, problem solving, creativity, peer assessment, and evaluation using real-world situations and contexts. The final project in the course allows students to work with a community organization and to apply leadership theory and research in a community context while problem solving for the organization.

At the beginning of the semester, students entered into a class wide activity that sought to better understand their experiences with groups and teams. Students created positive characteristics of groups and teams and voted as a class to determine which qualities were revered the most by students. Once the list was finalized, students were asked to do a personal assessment using the top seven characteristics. After students had the opportunity to assess these characteristics in relation to their own capability, these assessments were used to separate the students into groups that allowed them to work together throughout the semester. These teams were charged with working on the final project together, but most notably in this course, were tested over course material using a format called a Readiness Assurance Test (RAT).

In leadership courses, the use of testing or quizzes is not often utilized (Jenkins, 2012). Michaelson, Knight, and Fink (2002) consider the RAT to be a multipurpose learning device to assess student understanding of material. Under this model of assessment, students completedthe content test two times: once as an individual and a second time as a group. Feedback has been shown to be beneficial in testing and can improve long-term retention of information (Roediger & Butler, 2011). Retrieval practices, such as testing, allows for the transference of information and can increase the likelihood that students can use the information for problem solving in later practice (Roediger & Butler, 2011).

Description of the peer feedback process

All students completed a survey in regards to group members' contributions during the RATs. Students were sent the survey [Appendix A] via Google Forms. Students assessed and rated the contributions of fellow students in their team on a 0 to 4 scale (0- not at all, 1-once in a while, 2-sometimes, 3-fairly often and 4-frequently). The scale was used to reflect uses in previous courses for peer feedback. In addition to rating the capabilities of their peers, students were also able to provide comments for their group members in a constructive manner. The responses were recorded anonymously.

Reflection Measure process description

Upon receiving the anonymous peer feedback, students completed the brief 10-item PANAS in response to their peer feedback (Thompson, 2007). Students were prompted to respond to the following statement:

> "After reading the comments from your group's feedback on the RAT evaluation, use the scale below to let us know how you feel regarding the feedback you were given. Use your definitions of the words to reply."

The PANAS measures an individual's present state by asking respondents to rate the degree to which they are feeling upset, hostile, alert, ashamed, inspired, nervous, determined, attentive, afraid, and active. The responses were measured on a scale ranging from 1 (not present) to 5 (very). The PANAS was presented to students 24 hours after receiving their peer feedback.

For class, students were asked to submit a reflection that addressed the following question:

> "What was your reaction to this feedback? For example, how did it make you feel? What was your first reaction?". The student responses to this question were then utilized in the content analysis.

This reflection was then evaluated by the researchers to assess emotional response to the peer feedback. This reflection was submitted after submitting the PANAS.

Coding of Reflections

The coding process followed a similar procedure as completed by Danner, Snowdon, and Friesen (2001) in their investigation of positive and negative emotions in Catholic nun autobiographies. Coding was conducted using definitions of positive and negative affect consists with the PANAS scale. Specifically,

> Positive Affect (PA) reflects the extent to which a person feels enthusiastic, active, and alert. High PA is a state of high energy, full concentration, and pleasurable engagement, whereas low PA is characterized by sadness and lethargy. In contrast, Negative Affect (NA) is a general dimension of subjective distress and unpleasurable engagement that subsumes a variety of aversive mood states, including anger, contempt, disgust, guilt, fear, and nervousness, with low NA being a state of calmness and serenity" (Watson, Clark, & Tellgen, 1988, p. 1063).

Coders reviewed a journal entry submitted by students after reading the feedback provided by their group members.

Coders were instructed to read each sentence and code the sentence as demonstrating an emotional reaction displaying Positive Affect, Negative Affect, both, or neither. Additionally, coders were instructed to record the specific word, phrase, segment, or sentence justifying the specific code. The coders were asked to focus on overt expression of emotion or a student's attempt to control an emotional expression. The coders were provided the definitions of PA and NA as a reference, and were instructed to limit coding to displays of high levels of affect and not low levels of affect (e.g. code for high energy and not lethargy in PA). The coders were additionally instructed to avoid coding positive and negative words that were not displaying an emotional reaction (e.g. good or bad), and to avoid coding descriptions of positive or negative events that could elicit explicit emotion.

Three reviewers coded each sentence, and then each student was provided an overall PA and NA score. A student PA score was calculated by counting the number of sentences with a PA or "both" codes, and each student earned a total NA score by counting the number of sentences with an NA or both code. Sentences coded as not having a PA, NA, or "both" scores were not counted. When coder disagreement occurred, the final code for a sentence was determined by a two-step protocol based on Lacy, Watson, Riffe, and Lovejoy's (2015) best practices. First, if two coders agreed on a code for a sentence, their code served as the final code for that sentence. Second, if the reviewers provided three different codes, the final code was randomly chosen among the three options.

Based on recommendations from Lacy, et al. (2015), three different people coded the entire set of reflections, two of the coders were not part of creating the coding protocol, and each coder was provided the coding instructions and set of sample reflections to code. The reflections were not from the sample used in the study, nor from the class included in the study, but addressed similar reflection questions. Additionally, to determine rater agreement, simple percentage agreement among raters and Fleiss' kappa was calculated to determine the level of agreement above chance agreement alone for each sentence.

Results

Student PANAS Responses to Peer Feedback

Two scores are calculated using the 10-item PANAS, a positive affect (PA) score and a negative affect (NA) score. Cronbach alpha was calculated for both the PA score (Cronbach alpha = .74) and NA score (Cronbach alpha = .71). These results are similar to those reported by Thompson (2007) in a cross-cultural validation study, where the PA Cronbach alpha range was .73 to .78, and the NA Cronbach alpha range was .72 to .76. This suggests that the PA and NA items can be summed to create the two scores.

The PA student scores ranged from five to 19, with a mean of 12.57 (*SD* = 4.34). The NA student scores ranged from five to 13, with a mean of 7.43 (*SD* = 2.50). The data does suggest that there was more positive emotion associated with peer feedback in this sampled classroom. These results suggest that students experienced both positive and negative emotions after receiving their peer feedback.

Content Analysis

The average number of sentences in a student response to the reflection question was 8.19 sentences, ranging from two to 18 sentences. A total of 219 sentences were coded from 27 students.

Simple agreement (percentage of matching codes for each sentence) between reviewer one and two was 65.3%, between reviewer one and three was 75.8%, and between reviewer two and three was 74.0%. Overall simple agreement, where all three reviewers agreed on a single code for a sentence, was 59.8%. Based on the protocol for determining final codes when reviewers disagreed on how to categorize a sentence, 78 sentences (35.6%) had two coders agreeing, thus that code served as the final code for that sentence, and 10 sentences (4.6%) were provided random codes from among the three codes provided by the reviewers.

Fleiss' kappa (1971) was also calculated. The three coders rated each of the 219 sentences for emotional expression (PA, NA, both, or neither), and there was moderate agreement (Landis & Koch, 1977) between the coders, $\kappa = .555$, 95% CI [.503, .607], $p < .001$. Individual kappa for the PA, NA, both, and neither categories was .606, .629, .278, and .519, respectively. This suggests that a level of "good" agreement existed for the PA and NA categories, a level of "moderate" agreement existed for the neither category, and "poor" agreement existed for the both category (Landis & Koch, 1977). The reviewers chose the "both" category four (1.8%), six (2.7%), and 19 (8.7%) times. Although there was less agreement for this category, the "both" code represented a small portion of the data in the sample. Based on the level of simple agreement and the coder agreement calculated with Fleiss' kappa, the observer ratings were determined to be reliable, and allowed for further investigation.

Table 1 provides the overall affective responses for each student. Every student had some expression of emotion in their reflection, as rated by the reviewers. Twelve of the 27 students expressed both positive and negative affect in their reflections. Of the 27 students, 23 expressed some positive affect, 16 expressed some negative affect, and 12 expressed both positive and negative affect in their responses. In total, 69 sentences (31.5%) expressed positive emotion, and 48 sentences (21.9%) expressed negative emotion (these totals include the eight sentences that expressed both positive and negative affect).

Table 1

Student Affective Responses from Reflections by Sentence

Student	PA	NA
Student 1	2	2
Student 2	1	3
Student 3	0	6
Student 4	0	6
Student 5	7	1
Student 6	2	0
Student 7	4	2
Student 8	5	0
Student 9	1	0
Student 10	3	0
Student 11	3	0
Student 12	4	0
Student 13	6	1
Student 14	0	1
Student 15	4	1
Student 16	1	5
Student 17	2	0
Student 18	1	0
Student 19	4	3

Student 20	5	1
Student 21	1	0
Student 22	4	0
Student 23	2	4
Student 24	4	0
Student 25	1	5
Student 26	0	2
Student 27	2	5

Note. PA = positive affect; NA = negative affect.

Discussion/Limitations

Two different types of data were collected at two points in time to explore students' affective responses to receiving peer feedback. The feedback included a focus on team-member performance and contribution on the readiness assurance tests (RAT). Student emotional responses to feedback were measured using the PANAS, which provides a PA and NA score. After receiving the feedback, a majority of the students experienced both positive and negative affect. Based on the average scores, the students appear to have experienced more overall PA than NA.

The second source of data, collected from students' reflections after reviewing peer feedback, and was content analyzed for affective responses, also suggests that students experienced positive and negative affect. Although all the students expressed some emotion in their reflections, several students only expressed either positive or negative emotions, which conflicts with the PA and NA scores from the initial PANAS, where students expressed feelings of the positive and negative.

The findings from both sets of data build upon previously reported use of peer feedback within leadership education. Allen, Jenkins and Krizanovic (2018) and Shah, Ladhani, Morahan, and Wells (2019) articulate that peer feedback within leadership education is valuable to student development. Furthermore, Goertzen and Squire (2019) provided some evidence that students express both positive and negative emotion in response to feedback within leadership coursework. The current study builds form these works by providing a quantitative assessment of the affective responses students express at two different points in time after receiving peer feedback. Using-broaden-and-build (Fredrickson, 2001) as a framework, students experiencing NA may not be in the best affective state to use peer feedback to develop and learn from critical feedback from their peers. In contrast, students who respond to peer feedback with PA, may more effectively learn from the information provided by peers. Given that the results of the PANAS scores suggest students experience both positive and negative emotions after receiving peer feedback, not all students may be motivated to use the feedback effectively for growth (Rudolph, 2011). Although educators may hope that allowing time to reflect and critically think about the information shared during peer feedback may reduce negative emotions, four students expressed no positive affect in their reflections. This suggests that some students may not be in the best affective state to learn from peer feedback, and they may need additional interventions, beyond reflections, to help them process the information effectively. This also aligns with the findings of Frederickson (2011).

One limitation of this study was the inability to link student PANAS scores to reflections scores. A conscious choice was made to prioritize student anonymity over the ability to conduct comparative analyzes given that this data was collected and analyzed during the same semester as the class was in session. Two of the researchers were also instructors of the class, and did not want to introduce bias in their evaluations. As an initial investigation, this seems like a logical choice, however, in future studies, it would be encouraged that data be collected in order to conduct comparative analysis between the PANAS scores and reflection responses.

Additionally, although the PANAS scores were collected soon after the peer feedback was received, the responses were collected over a period of several days, and the reflections were due a week later; the timing of participants responses were likely not consistent. To control for the influence of time on emotional responses, it is suggested that the PANAS data be collected immediately following student review of peer feedback during class.

Recommendations

As referenced prior, the process of leadership is relational (Komives, Lucas, McMahan, 2013). Leadership educators should assume that the process of leadership education and its instructional strategies and methods are relational as well. Leadership educators develop and instruct courses with the goal of helping students better understand the process of leadership, leadership theories, and practical application. The use of peer evaluation in classroom pedagogy provides students a firsthand look at the consequences of their decisions and words, work ethic, and social interactions, thus leading to their relational understanding of leadership. These aligns with prior work that calls for assessment and evaluation being an integral part in the delivery of leadership courses (Owen, 2011).

Learning how to process peer feedback can assist in student development in leadership education. When working in teams, student may have emotional reactions to peer feedback, and they must be able to process feedback in leadership contexts. To more effectively enhance leadership and interpersonal skills, Buschlen (2009) suggests that peer accountability is crucial to developing more effective leadership skills.

In order to allow for student growth opportunities, leadership educators can shift their focus to more effectively providing ways for students to develop through peer feedback processes. Leadership educators should focus work on providing opportunities for students to grow and develop through the feedback process. Our study noted the existence of both positive and negative affective responses among the students and this provides evidence that leadership students may show a range of emotion in their reactions and processing of course material. This does open the door to future research into mental health and strategies for leadership education to better respond to the needs of today's college student. In addition, future research might examine the role of peer evaluation in the classroom and examine a deeper understanding of the affective responses through additional measures.

References

Allen, S. J., Jenkins, D. M., & Krizanovic, B. (2018). Exploring deliberate practice & the use of skill sheets in the collegiate leadership competition. *Journal of Leadership Education, 17*(1). doi: 10.12806/V17/I1/C3

Alliger, G.M. and Williams, K.J. (1993). "Using signal-contingent experience sampling methodology to study work in the field: a discussion and illustration examining task perceptions and mood". *Personnel Psychology, 46,* 525-49.

Bandura, A. (1991). Social cognitive theory of self-regulation. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 50*(2), 248–287.

Bandura, A. (1977). Self-efficacy: Toward a unifying theory of behavioral change. *Psychological Review, 84*, 191–215.

Barns, D. (1976). From communication to curriculum. London: Penguin Books.

Bower, G. H., & Forgas, J. P. (2001). Mood and social memory. In J. P. Forgas (Ed.), Handbook of affect and social cognition. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum, 95–120.

Bright, D. S., Caza, A., Turesky, E. F., Putzel, R., Nelson, E., & Luechtefeld, R. (2016). Constructivist meta-practices: When students design activities, lead others, and Assess Peers. *Journal of Leadership Education*, *15*(4), 75-99.

Buschlen, E. (2009). *Can college students learn to lead? An examination of a collegiate leadership course using the social change model of leadership*. ProQuest.

Cameron, K., & Caza, A. (2005). Developing strategies and skills for responsible leadership. *Handbook on responsible leadership and governance in global business*, 87-111.

Chin Lin, G. H. & Chieh Chien, P. S. (2009). An investigation into effectiveness of peer feedback. *Journal of Applied Foreign Langauges Fortune Institute of Technology, 3*, 79-84.

Crawford, J. R. & Henry, J. D. (2004). The positive and negative affect schedule (PANAS): Construct validity, measurement properties, and normative data in a non-clinical sample. *British Journal of Clinical Psychology, 43*, 245-265.

Danner, D. D., Snowdon, D. A., & Friesen, W. V. (2001). Positive emotions in early life and longevity: Findings from the nun study. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *80*(5), 804.

Fleiss, J. L. (1971). Measuring nominal scale agreement among many raters. *Psychological Bulletin*, *76*, 378-382.

Gasper, K. (2003). When necessity is the mother of invention: Mood and problem solving. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 39*, 248–262.

Goertzen, B. J., & Squire, B. (2019). Action learning in a graduate online course. *Journal of Leadership Education, 18*(2). doi: 10.12806/V18/I2/A1

Guthrie, K. L., & Jenkins, D. M. (2018). *The role of leadership educators: Transforming learning*. IAP, 259.

Hanrahan, S. J., & Isaacs, G. (2001). Assessing self-and peer-assessment: The students' views. *Higher Education Research & Development*, *20*(1), 53-70.

Iiles, R., De Pater, I. E., & Judge, T. (2007). Differential affective reactions to negative and positive feedback, and the role of self-esteem. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 22*(6), 590-609.

Jenkins, D. M. (2012). Exploring Signature Pedagogies in Undergraduate Leadership Education. *Journal of Leadership Education, 11*(1).

Kennedy-Moore, E., & Watson, J. C. (2001). How and when does emotional expression help?. *Review of General Psychology, 5*(3), 187-212.

Komives, S. R., Lucas, N., & McMahon, T. R. (2013). *Exploring leadership: For college students who want to make a difference*. (3rd ed.). San Fransisco, CA: Jossey- Bass.

Landis, J. R., & Koch, G. G. (1977). The measurement of observer agreement for categorical data. *Biometrics, 33*, 159-174.

Lyubovnikova, J, Legood, A., Turner, N., & Mamakouka, A. (2017). How authentic leadership influences team performance: The mediating role of team reflexivity. *Journal of Business Ethics, 141*, 59-70. doi: 10.1007/s10551-015-2692-3

McConnell, A. R., Rydell. R. J., & Brown, C. M. (2009). On the experience of self-relevant feedback: How self-concept organization influences affective responses and self-evaluation. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 45*, 695-707.

Mendonça C. O., & K. E. Johnson (1994). Peer review negotiations: Revision activities in ESL writing instruction. *TESOL Quarterly*, Vol. 28, 4,745-769.

Michaelsen, L. K., & Sweet, M. (2008). The essential elements of team-based learning. *New directions for teaching and learning, no. 116: Team-based learning: Small group learning's next big step (pp.7-27). San Fransisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.*

Moore, L. L. (2010). Students' attitudes and perceptions about the use of cooperative exams in an introductory leadership class. *Journal of Leadership Education, 9*(2), 72-85.

Mouratidis, A., Lens, W., & Vansteenkiste, M. (2010). How you provide corrective feedback makes a difference: The motivating role of communicating in an autonomy-supporting way. *Journal of Sport & Exercise Psychology, 32*, 619-637.

Owen, J. E. (2011). Assessment and evaluation. *The Handbook for Student Leadership Development*, p. 177-202.

Putzel, R. (2007). XB: New-paradigm management of the classroom as a complex organization. *Journal of Business & Leadership: Research, Practice, and Teaching (2005-2012), 3*(1), 136-143.

Roediger III, H. L., & Butler, A. C. (2011). The critical role of retrieval practice in long-term retention. *Trends in Cognitive Sciences*, *15*(1), 20-27.

Rollinson P. (2005). Using peer feedback in the ESL writing class. *ELT Journal, 59*(1), 23-30.

Rudolph, K. D. (2010). Implicit theories of peer relationships. *Social Development, 19*(1): 113–129. doi:10.1111/j.1467-9507.2008.00534.

Schwarz, N., & Clore, G. L. (1996). Feelings and phenomenal experiences. In E. T. Higgins & A. Kruglanski (Eds.), Social psychology: Handbook of basic principles. New York: Guilford.

Shah, H., Ladhani, Z., Morahan, P. S., & Wells, R. (2019). Global leadership model for health professions education part 2: Teaching/learning methods. *Journal of Leadership Education, 18*(2). doi: 10.12806/V18/I2/A2

Thompson, E. R. (2007). Development and validation of an internationally reliable short-form of the positive and negative affect schedule (PANAS). *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology, 38*(2), 227-242.

Topping, K. (1998). Peer assessment between students in colleges and universities. *Review of Educational Research, 68*(3), 249-276.

Van Rosendaal, G. M., & Jennett, P. A. (1992). Resistance to peer evaluation in an internal medicine residency. *Academic Medicine, 67*(1), 63.

Watson, D., Clark, L. A., & Tellegen, A. (1988). Development and validation of brief measures of positive and negative affect: the PANAS scales. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 54*(6), 1063.

Yang, M. & Carless, D. (2013). The feedback triangle and the enhancement of dialogic feedback processes. *Teaching in Higher Education, 18(*3), 285-297, doi:10.1080/13562517.2012. 719154

Yeow, J., & Martin, R. (2013). The role of self-regulation in developing leaders: A longitudinal field experiment. *The Leadership Quarterly, 24*(5), 625–637.

Appendix A

Peer Evaluations-Readiness Assurance Test

Please complete each section of this survey, one for each of your teammates and the final one for yourself.

Use the following scale to evaluate your team members' (and your own) behavior on the RATs

so far: 0- Not at all; 1-once in a while; 2-sometimes; 3-fairly often; 4-frequently.

- Went beyond self-interest for the good of the group
- Considered the moral and ethical consequences of decisions
- Talked optimistically about the future
- Reexamined critical assumptions to question and whether they are appropriate
- Helped others to develop their strengths
- Made clear what one can expect to receive when performance goals are achieved
- Kept track of all mistakes
- Waiting for things to go wrong before taking action
- Avoided making decisions

The Art of Leadership: Exploring the Use of Photography and Narratives in Understanding Adaptive Leadership Concepts

Jason Headrick, University of Nebraska- Lincoln
Kate McCain, University of Nebraska- Lincoln

Abstract

Concepts delivered through photography and narrative allows students to embody concepts, theories, and models in a different light than through normal mental processing (Kolb, 2014). Using a phenomenological explanatory method, participants focused on adaptive leadership concepts through the use of imagery and personal narratives in leadership courses. Participants in the study were undergraduate students at a Midwestern public university. Results illustrate student's ability to make meaning of abstract adaptive leadership concepts through narrative inquiry and visual approaches of photo elicitation. Implications for this research provide leadership educators with creative ways for teaching leadership concepts and understanding how students apply those concepts in day-to-day life situations.

Introduction

Leadership scholars and educators aim to understand how students retain course content and apply leadership concepts into their everyday life. This understanding can help inform leadership education and add to the literature in terms of cognition and the exploration of real-world application. The National Leadership Education Research Agenda (2013-2018) suggests an importance for pedagogical priorities and the applied "how" of leadership education. Specifically, research priority one is on teaching, learning and curriculum development. The NLERA argues, "The priorities included within this area are inclusive of the essential consideration that inform the learning and transfer of learning through innovative Leadership Education." (p. 4). Thus, this study explores the capacity and competency of the leadership education learner through an innovative practice using photography and narrative inquiry. The goal of this research is to contribute to the call of priority one on teaching and learning, by exploring how students make sense of and apply leadership theories (i.e. adaptive leadership constructs) in their everyday lives.

This phenomenological study will allow leadership educators to make meaning of the instruction of adaptive leadership and understand how students connect with the adaptive leadership theory. Using the interpretive lens, the focus is to better understand how students identify and apply the adaptive leadership process. This perspective will facilitate an understanding of theory cognition and adaptability for a student's real-time processing of leadership content. Methods of inquiry include the use of the photo elicitation phenomena related to adaptive leadership, and an investigation of the student's ability to make meaning of adaptive leadership through the narrative and visual approach.

Leadership is a complex phenomenon that operates across multiple levels of analysis (Cho & Dansereau, 2010) and involves multiple behavior mediating factors (Derue, Nahrgang, Wellman, & Humphrey, 2011). Helping students better understand leadership content and

application for future use can be a challenge of classroom instruction (Santangelo & Tomlinson, 2009).

By using these basic principles, teaching strategies that lead to effective delivery, application, and cognition can be utilized to meet the demands of both instructor and learner, while simultaneously exerting leadership education into instruction. It is important to understand the challenges of instruction, and the process in choosing the best methods to communicate information in the classroom setting. Educating others in regard to leadership presents many challenges including appropriate teaching methods (Allio, 2005; DeRue, Sitkiin, & Podolny, 2001; Bordone, 2000). Active learning processes can help students gain a better understanding of leadership and aid in critical thinking and application (Burbach, Matkin, & Fritz, 2004). Concepts delivered through photography and visuals allow the learner to embody concepts, theories, and models in a different light than through normal mental processing (Kolb, 2014). Photo elicitation will allow the learner to make meaning of events that occur in their life in relation to the adaptive leadership theory.

Literature Review

Adaptive Leadership Theoretical Framework

The influence of followers and intrapersonal dynamics are key to understanding how leaders influence organizations and how leadership outcomes are best achieved (Dinh & Lord, 2012; Marion & Uhl-Bien, 2002). Heifetz (1994) introduced adaptive leadership and it has been used to better understand a range of phenomena, including how leaders encourage change across several levels: self, organizational, community, and societal. As the name suggests, adaptive leadership centers on how leaders encourage people to change, or adapt, as they deal with challenge, problems, and the process of change (Northouse, 2016, p. 257). Adaptive leadership focuses on the activities of the leader in relation to the work that is being done by the followers in various contexts. Instead of focusing on the leader as the solution, adaptive leadership provides a concept for the practice of mobilization of followers and self to tackle difficult problems or issues and thrives in the context of the environment (Heifetz, et al., 2009). Those who identify as adaptive leaders engage in activities that mobilize, motivate, organize, orient, and focus the attention of others, and have the ability to help others explore their own values toward the common good of the individual and the organization.

Situational challenges lead to the behaviors and processes that influence how leaders and followers react to the context. Technical challenges (can be fixed with leader's expertise and authority), technical and adaptive (challenges are defined, but do not have a straightforward solution, causing both leader and follower to address), and adaptive (problems are not clear-cut or easy to identify, centers around values, and stirs emotion) are types of situational challenges that allow the leader to begin work on identifying who can best address the situation (Northouse, 2016). One of the unique characteristics of this style of leadership is that once the type of issue has been identified, the behavioral approach signals the type of adaptive work that takes place, namely in the dynamics of how people are mobilized to meet the demands of change.

The behaviors chosen by the leader can empower growth and change in an organization among the followers and the leader alike. These behaviors are general prescriptions for leaders to best address the challenges and inevitable changes that accompany them (Heifetz, 1994). While there may be a general order as to how leader behaviors are prescribed, the approaches may overlap and be used in any order to address the challenges or change at hand. *Get on the balcony* allows the leader find perspective in the middle of a challenging situation, while still being connected to the challenge as both a participant and an observer. *Identify adaptive challenges* allows leaders to diagnose the problem and distinguish between technical or adaptive. Leaders can also *regulate distress*, meaning leaders help others recognize the need for change while monitoring stress and maintaining a productive range. They can do this by creating an atmosphere that people can feel safe in addressing problems. Leaders also *maintain disciplined action* by encouraging people to focus on the tough work, while helping address the change and not avoiding it. By *giving the work back to the people*, leaders can empower their followers to do the work they need to do, and know when to drop back and let the followers take the lead. Lastly, leaders can *protect leadership voices from below*, meaning they should be open to the ideas of people who might be at the fringe, marginalized, or deviant in a group or organization.

Adaptive leadership is a process that allows followers the freedom to take control of their work, while leaders are able to step back to gain a new perspective. Leaders must also decide whether challenges are technical or adaptive before engaging in the leader behaviors. This form of leadership looks at the process of leading and becomes a complex transaction between leaders and followers. Adaptive leadership is follower-centered and is specifically designed to help followers confront conflicts that emerge from a changing environment/ workplace.

The claims of adaptive leadership have only been tested on a limited basis. The moral dimension of the adaptive leadership theory has not been fully explained. As Heifetz and colleagues imply, adaptive leadership can aid in the evolution of an individual's values, thus leading to the common good. This is not explained in research that has followed the theory, and there seems to be holes in the research that link adaptive leadership and how followers might form social values (e.g., equality, justice, and community) from the leader behaviors. A meta-analysis has shown that research done on adaptive leadership has only been theoretical with research conducted on the individual, dyadic, and organizational levels (Dinh, et al, 2014). Further study into adaptive leadership might show instructors how to best approach the theory and how students make meaning of its intricacies.

Teaching Methodology & Photo Elicitation

While it has been stated that a best model of teaching does not exist (Prahbu,1990), this decision comes from the instructor and their general ideas of class content and delivery methodology. Through linkage to earlier concepts discussed in class, an instructor can connect new learning to past knowledge and experiences, and encourage educational motivation to learning new concepts (Pintrich,1994). In terms of curriculum development and selecting the most appropriate methodologies, an instructor can reflect on the idea that opportunities and experiences shape cognition, development, and leadership motivation (Allen & Wergin, 2008). The more perspectives students are exposed to, the more likely it will be for them to have a greater

accuracy in, and complexity of, their conceptual understanding of content (Boyd & Ikpeze, 2007).

Photographs offer rich descriptive images that can help make sense of subjective experience (Bogdan & Biklen, 1998; Ziller, 1990). Photography has been applied as a research tool in other disciplines such as sociology and anthropology; however, it has been used only minimally in the field of adult education (Harper, 2002; Taylor, 2002). Using this method, photographs are taken by and then discussed with the participants in order to explore the subjective meanings that are given to them (Prosser & Schwartz, 1998). Exploring students' perceptions through images has tremendous potential for understanding how students apply leadership concepts. Images are mental representations that have visual and/or physical meaning and offer a way to understand how students make meaning of leadership concepts.

Photo-elicitation is a technique that involves using photographs to simulate the interview process (Harper, 1994; Tucker & Dempsey, 1991). Prosser (1998) describes visual methods as a way of gathering data and supports this process operates with "the express aim of exploring participants'' values, beliefs, attitudes, and meanings and in order to trigger memories, or to explore group dynamics or systems" (p. 124). Having participants take their own photographs ensure that each point of view is reflects in the images and further centers the research process with the participant. More recently, Jenkins (2012) provided a list of teaching methodologies used in leadership classrooms, and the use of photography or photo elicitation was not included in this list. Therefore, we propose to use this method to better understand students' perceptions and understanding of adaptive leadership concepts.

Purpose Statement and Research Questions

The purpose of this phenomenological study is to explore how students make meaning of adaptive leadership behaviors and real-time processing of leadership content. Methods of inquiry include the use of the photo elicitation phenomena related to adaptive leadership and narratives associated with the images. In order to explore this phenomenon the central research guided this study: *How do students make meaning of adaptive leadership concepts?* The follow sub-questions were posited:

RQ1: How do students identify with general adaptive leadership behaviors?
RQ2. How do students represent overall adaptive leadership behaviors through photographs?
RQ3: How do students represent the adaptive leader behaviors of "*Get on the Balcony"* through photographs?
RQ4: How do students represent the adaptive leadership behavior of "*Protect Voices from Below"* through photographs?

Methods

Due to the nature of the research questions a phenomenological qualitative analysis was directed. Qualitative research is conducted in order to better understand the meaning that people have placed in their own lives, through their own experiences, and how they make sense of the world around them (Merriam, 2009). A qualitative approach was selected for this study because it allows a more open approach to how students perceive adaptive leadership

concepts through visual imagery and the open-ended narrative questions into the adaptive leadership phenomenon. Through an interpretive lens, central ideas on adaptive leadership behaviors are seen from the student's views. Thus, facilitating theory cognition and adaptability for a student's real-time processing of leadership content.

Sampling Selection Procedures

Twenty-five students from a Midwest, land-grant university taking courses through the leadership department participated in the study. This sample aligns with Polkinghorne's (1989) recommendations of using approximately twenty-five individuals who have experienced the phenomenon. A limitation of the study was lost data, 19 participants fully completed the online survey. Through criterion sampling, all participants were former or current students in two upper-level leadership courses offered through the leadership department. Course were 202: Foundations of Leadership Theory and Practice and 302: Dynamics of Effective Leadership in Organizations. Students were recruited during the spring and Fall 2018 semesters. Out the twenty-five participants, twenty-one were undergraduate students and four were graduate students.

Data Collection

Data for this study consisted of two phases, photos of adaptive leadership behaviors in action, and narratives explaining the photos with application to adaptive leadership concepts. Specifically, participants were asked to take a photo and illustrate adaptive leadership behaviors of: (a) general representations of adaptive leadership, (b) getting on the balcony, and (c) protecting leadership voices from below. In addition to uploading images, participants were asked to respond to semi-structured interview questions. The interview questions allowed for open-ended responses that reflected the participant's understanding of adaptive leadership. All data was collected using Qualtrics, an online data software. Students were provided the survey link through their course dashboard system.

Data Analysis

Data for this study was collected into two phases. First all uploaded images of were collected. Personal identifying artifacts in the images were blurred or concealed to protect anonymity. Images were sorted based on the three adaptive leadership behaviors, general representations of adaptive leadership, getting on the balcony, and protecting leadership voices from below. Images were categorized for similarities or metaphorical representation of the adaptive leadership concepts. Bal (1997) suggests it is possible to consider the content and composition of visual images in a similar way to analyzing written text. Visual signifiers for a photograph may include the framing, movement captured, organization of image, and viewpoint taken by the photographer/participant. Analyses of the images are also supported by the second phase of data analysis through the narrative responses.

Second, narrative responses were collected. The following data analysis steps were taken supporting Moustakas' (1994) recommendations. First, epoche or bracketing, is established in order to set aside researcher experiences about adaptive leadership and take a fresh perspective toward the topic under examination. Next, responses to the open-ended interview questions and

image narratives were collected and highlighted for significant statements, sentences, quotes, or words that help provide a deeper understanding of how participants experienced and made sense of the phenomenon. Third, textural description of the experiences of the participants (what they experienced), and structural descriptions of experiences (how they experienced it in terms of context) are presented. Combinations of the textural and structural descriptions convey the overall essence and themes of the participant's experiences and understandings of the phenomenon (Creswell & Poth, 2017).

Results

Responses to research question one were coded for main themes. Preliminary results of the open-ended interview questions found a dichotomous between leader and followership relationships. For example, students saw adaptive challenges through the role of the leader or the actions of the follower. Other students saw adaptive challenges as a shared or collaborative process. One participant commented, "I have found that it has not always been the leader that is being adaptive, it has been the follower." This shows a follower-based perspective. Whereas, another participant had more of a leader-based perspective stating, "I would describe adaptive leadership as an optimistic and curious state-of-mind that drives leaders to find the benefit and lessons in every difficult moment."

Additional analysis centers on the personal development of the leader. Through the adaptive leadership process, many participants identified with the ability of the leader to not only respond to change, but to also develop individual skills and grow through the experience. Participants noted, "use of challenges to learn and grow" and the "development of abilities to think critically and solve problems." The participants saw the potential for leader self-development through the process as they encountered situation and enacted adaptive behaviors prescribed by the model

Other key themes emerged in answering research question one. Overall, students referenced a number of different aspects of adaptive leadership they identified with the most. In an initial analysis, some themes began to emerge that better defined adaptive leadership through the lens of the participants, including:

- Thriving in difficult situations
- Adapting to changing situations
- Getting to know followers
- Being able to focus on the goals
- Taking different perspectives
- Having a strong influence and impact on those around you

Further supporting significant statements will be presented in the conference presentation.

In order to answer research questions two, three, and four images and narratives were collected. Table 1 provides preliminary results of the photo-elicitation questions. Further data analysis and overall themes of the findings will be presented during the conference presentation.

Table 1

Preliminary results of photo-elicitation research questions

Adaptive Leadership Concept	Narrative	Images
RQ2: general adaptive leadership behaviors	"I view adaptive leadership as a tool box. You don't always need every single tool for one specific job, but if you want to be the most successful and prepared then it is good to have tools at your disposal as well as know how to use them." "I took a picture of a worker using the broom and dust pan and related that to adaptive leadership… workers can use the broom as a guide when cleaning up just as leaders use the model to follow. The dustpan represents the change that the leader might have to make…. Meaning that leaders may have to change how they go about cleaning up the conflict." "I provided a picture of a labyrinth because I think adaptive leadership is all about helping followers learn to adapt to new or unexpected directions."	  
RQ3: getting on the balcony	The picture I included was my hockey team watching film of a previous game…as the team captain which required me to take a step back and view the team's goals, mission, and values while still being a player and teammate…learned a lot about adapting my work and how to encourage my team to be problem solvers." "This photo shows two fifth grade students reading to a class of kindergarteners. I view this photo in terms of "getting on the balcony" because when the students were reading, I got the opportunity to take a step back and gain perspective on how this activity helped the students to learn. Instead of being an active in the students' learning at that time, I was being an observer. By having the fifth grade students read the book, I was able to take a step back and gain perspective on a classroom situation." "For me, I've always visualized getting on the balcony as a process where you rise above the situation and look at it from above. These birds on the wire symbolize being above the situation to gain a broader view and a clearer mind about the situation happening down below."	  

RQ4: protecting leadership voices from below	"This is a photo from…Savannah that depicts the garden of the Owens-Thomas House…the tour guide, as well as the exhibit, did an excellent job of discussing slavery. They…highlighted the difficult lives of people who were enslaved and how this horrid system made possible the beautiful home, gardens, and economic prosperity of the South. This example demonstrates how marginalized stories, voices, and perspectives can be elevated and protected, although it often requires extra effort and potential discomfort to acknowledge others' realities." "The picture is of our ASUN Student Government mailbox. I used this photo to represent the numerous voices (in Senate) because Senate is a body in which we nurture dissent and conflict. When we recruited senators to run with our ASUN slate, we purposely targeted a pocket of folks we knew would challenge us. Senate meetings are more contentious, but the ideas we land on are more thought-out and formulated." "I provided a picture of some sandhill cranes which were migrating…I think it's a good visual representation of how each voice or each member plays a valuable as part of the team, meaning their ideas and perspectives need to be protected."	  

Discussion

Results of this study have implications for the field of leadership and leadership education. The results from this study may inform leadership educators on innovative practices for teaching complex leadership theories, such as the use photography and narrative inquiry. This study also aims to fill a gap in the adaptive leadership literature centered on cognition and application, and aid in a better understanding of the role of values passed from leader to follower during the adaptive leadership process.

There are currently no known studies that examine instruction and cognition of adaptive leadership in leadership education, nor centered on photo elicitation to demonstrate the adaptive leadership process. The use of phenomenology will allow instructors to see the student perspective on adaptive leadership, and allow for deeper understanding of the key concepts that resonate with students and their ability to apply the concepts into their everyday lives. The photo elicitation research methodology will also allow participants to share their view of the world, which helps this phenomenological approach come full circle. By increasing the knowledge centered on student cognition of adaptive leadership, this research study can help leadership instructors with curriculum development and assessment of teaching methodologies. The linkages between critical thinking and personal application of the adaptive leadership theory are also better understood.

As leadership instructors, we want to better understand how students learn material and which points of theories resonate with them the most. Also, the innovate practices of using technology and imagery for teaching leadership is a needed area of research. This research is key to demonstrating how students learn leadership content and apply it into their everyday lives.

References

Allen, S. J., & Wergin, J. F. (2008). Leadership and adult development theories: Overviews and overlaps. *Liberal Education*.

Allio, R. J. (2005). Leadership development: teaching versus learning. *Management Decision*, *43*(7/8), 1071-1077.

Astin, A. W., & Astin, H. S. (2000). Leadership Reconsidered: Engaging Higher Education in Social Change.

Bogdan, R. C. & Biklen, S. K. (1998). *Qualitative Research in Education*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Bordone, R. C. (2000). Teaching interpersonal skills for negotiation and for life. *Negotiation Journal*, *16*(4), 377-385.

Burbach, M. E., Matkin, G. S., & Fritz, S. M. (2004). Teaching critical thinking in an introductory leadership course utilizing active learning strategies: A confirmatory study. *College Student Journal*, *38*(3), 482.

Cho, J., & Dansereau, F. (2010). Are transformational leaders fair? A multi-level study of transformational leadership, justice perceptions, and organizational citizenship behaviors. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *21*(3), 409-421.

Clark-Ibáñez, M. (2004). Framing the social world with photo-elicitation interviews. *American behavioral scientist*, *47*(12), 1507-1527.

Creswell, J. W., & Poth, C. N. (2017). *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five approaches*. Sage publications.

Cretin, E., Pazart, L., Rousseau, M. C., Noé, A., Decavel, P., Chassagne, A., ... & Gabriel, D. (2017). Exploring the perceptions of physicians, caregivers and families towards artificial nutrition and hydration for people in permanent vegetative state: How can a

photo-elicitation method help?. *PloS one*, *12*(10), e0186776.

Collier, J., & Collier, M. (1986). *Visual anthropology: Photography as a research method*. UNM Press.

Croghan, R., Griffin, C., Hunter, J., & Phoenix, A. (2008). Young people's constructions of self: Notes on the use and analysis of the photo−elicitation methods. *International journal of social research methodology*, *11*(4), 345-356.

Derue, D. S., Nahrgang, J. D., Wellman, N. E. D., & Humphrey, S. E. (2011). Trait and behavioral theories of leadership: An integration and meta−analytic test of their relative validity. *Personnel psychology*, *64*(1), 7-52.

DeRue, D. S., Sitkin, S. B., & Podolny, J. M. (2011). From the guest editors: Teaching leadership—Issues and insights. *Academy of Management Learning & Education*, *10*(3), 369-372.

Dinh, J. E., & Lord, R. G. (2012). Implications of dispositional and process views of traits for individual difference research in leadership. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *23*(4), 651-669.

Dinh, J. E., Lord, R. G., Gardner, W. L., Meuser, J. D., Liden, R. C., & Hu, J. (2014). Leadership theory and research in the new millennium: Current theoretical trends and changing perspectives. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *25*(1), 36-62.

Epstein, I., Stevens, B., McKeever, P., & Baruchel, S. (2006). Photo elicitation interview (PEI): Using photos to elicit children's perspectives. *International journal of qualitative methods*, *5*(3), 1-1

Guba, E. G., & Lincoln, Y. S. (1994). Competing paradigms in qualitative research. *Handbook of qualitative research*, *2*(163-194), 105.

Harper, D. (1994). On the authority of image. In Denzin, N. K., and Lincoln, Y. S. (eds)., *Handbook of Qualitative Research*, Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage (pp. 403-412).

Harper, D. (2002). Talking about pictures: A case for photo elicitation. *Visual studies*, *17*(1), 13-26.

Hatch, J. A. (2002). *Doing qualitative research in education settings*. Suny Press.

Heifetz, R. A. (1994). *Leadership without easy answers* (Vol. 465). Harvard University Press.

Heifetz, R. A., Grashow, A., & Linsky, M. (2009). *The practice of adaptive leadership: Tools and tactics for changing your organization and the world*. Harvard Business Press.

Heifetz, R. A., & Laurie, D. L. (1997). The work of leadership. *Harvard business review*, *75*, 124-134.

Heifetz, R. A., & Linsky, M. (2002). *Leadership on the line: Staying alive through the dangers of leading*. Harvard Business Press.

Heifetz, R. A., & Sinder, R. M. (1988). Political leadership: Managing the public's problem solving. *The power of public ideas*, 179-204.

Hutchinson, L. (2003). Educational environment. *BMJ: British Medical Journal*, *326*(7393), 810.

Jenkins, D. (2012). Exploring signature pedagogies in undergraduate leadership education. *Journal of Leadership Education*, *11*(1).

Johnson, M. A. (2010). Teaching macro practice through service learning using participatory photography. *Journal of Community Practice*, *18*(2-3), 297-314.

Kolb, D. A. (2014). *Experiential learning: Experience as the source of learning and development*. FT press.

Manen, M. V. (1990). Researching lived experience. *State University of New York Press*,

New York.

Marion, R., & Uhl-Bien, M. (2002). Leadership in complex organizations. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *12*(4), 389-418.

Merriam, S.B. (2009). Qualitative research: A Guide to design and implementation. San Fransisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Moustakas, C. (1994). *Phenomenological research methods*. Sage.

Northouse, P. G. (2015). *Leadership: Theory and practice*. Sage publications.

Pintrich, P. R. (1994). Student motivation in the college classroom. *Handbook of college teaching: Theory and applications*, 23-43.

Polkinghorne, D. E. (1989). Phenomenological research methods. *Existential-phenomenological perspectives in psychology: Exploring the breadth of human experience*, 41-60.

Prabhu, N. S. (1990). There is no best method-why?. *Tesol quarterly*, 161-176.

Prosser, J. (1998). *Image-based research*. London: Falmer Press.

Prosser, J., & Schwartz, D. (1998). Photographs within the sociological research process. *Image-based research: A sourcebook for qualitative researchers*, 115-130.

Santangelo, T., & Tomlinson, C. A. (2009). The application of differentiated instruction in postsecondary environments: Benefits, challenges, and future directions. *International Journal of Teaching and Learning in Higher Education*, *20*(3), 307-323.

Taylor, W. T. (2002). Using still photography in making meaning of adult educators' teaching beliefs. *Studies in the Education of Adults*, *34*(2), 123-139.

Tucker, S. A., & Dempsey, J. V. (1991). Photo-interviewing. *Evaluation Review*, *15*(5), 630-653.

Walker, C. (2014). *Photo elicitation as part of a multi-method research design: Family lives*

and the environment in Andhra Pradesh, India. SAGE.

Zenkov, K., Ewaida, M., Bell, A., & Lynch, M. (2012). Seeing how to ask first: Photo elicitation motivates English language learners to write: Photos prompt middle grades English language learners to reflect upon and write about their lives. *Middle School Journal*, *44*(2), 6-13.

Ziller, R. C. (1990). *Photographing the self*. London: Sage.

EDUCATOR WORKSHOPS

1. **Educator Workshop: Game On: The Use of Gamification in Leadership Curriculum**

   Susan Burton Ph.D., Assistant Professor of Practice in Leadership Education, University of Nebraska- Lincoln, Department of Agriculture Leadership, Education and Communication
   Ashlee Young, M. Ed., Assistant Director, William H. Thompson Learning Community, University of Nebraska-Lincoln
   Kara Brant, Associate Director for Support and Advocacy, University of Nebraska-Lincoln

2. **Educator Workshop: When Technical Skills Aren't Enough: Training for the Softer Side of Community Action Leadership**

   Laura Greenhaw, Assistant Professor, Mississippi State University
   Marina Denny, Assistant Professor, Mississippi State University

3. **Educator Workshop: Facilitating Systems Thinking, Personal Values Identification, and Complex Problem Solving through Project-Based Learning**

   Valerie McKee Sledd, Graduate Student, University of Florida
   Cameron Outlaw, Graduate Student, University of Florida
   Kevin Kent, Graduate Student, University of Florida

Game On:
The Use of Gamification in Leadership Curriculum

Susan Burton, Ph.D
Assistant Professor of Practice
Agricultural Leadership, Education, and Communication
University of Nebraska-Lincoln

Kara Brant, MS
Associate Director, Student Advocacy and Support, Office of Student Affairs
Doctoral Student, Agricultural Leadership, Education, and Communication
University of Nebraska-Lincoln

Ashlee Young, M.Ed
Assistant Director, William H. Thompson Scholars Learning Community
Doctoral Student, Agricultural Leadership, Education, and Communication
University of Nebraska-Lincoln

Abstract

Game on, learners! Using game elements, mechanics and game-based thinking can illuminate subject-specific knowledge while facilitating student drive to accomplish learning goals. This session demonstrates core experiential practices that leadership educators can adopt and adapt to structure online and classroom work, as well as two specific "games" of content instruction.

Introduction

Leadership educators work to engage students in applied practice of Leadership theory. While class discussions and case examples may demonstrate situations for the application of leadership theories, effective learning requires students to be active and engaged in the opportunities and challenges of instruction (Kolb,1984). Gamified content can affect student experiential behavior and learning outcomes when context specific (Buckley & Doyle, 2014). Therefore, as leadership educators are increasingly tasked to link pedagogical strategies to personal application of course concepts, the gamification of coursework and design of content specific games can effectively enhance instruction and improve learning. This session provides leadership educators with guidance for incorporating game elements into the instructional frameworks of their courses and provides examples of gamifying content. We seek to showcase the possibilities of including game play, leadership simulations and motivational "nudges" into instructional pedagogy in order to engage students in active participation and learning behaviors.

Including game elements into instructional pedagogy connects learning outcomes of both proximal and distal learning goals through both intrinsic and extrinsic mechanics (Buckley & Doyle, 2014). The gamified content provides a framework in which the process of the game or simulation mirrors the process of experiential learning through Kolb's stages (Saenz & Cano, 2009). In this way, simulations and gamified learning drives student experiential behavior and

learning outcomes that are context and content specific (Deterding, Dixon, Khaled, & Nacke, 2011). Engaging learners in subject-specific content, real life processes and timely feedback relevant for leader task challenge and skill acquisition, provides a pathway to develop and practice. Gamification can enhance instruction by engaging learners in content-specific experiential applications.

Workshop Learning Objectives:

1. Participants will understand the potential benefits of gamification and gamified learning with respect to course designed around leadership applications in online and face to face university level courses.
2. Participants will engage in two gamified activities to experience the importance of matching content to game mechanics, and will work together to create a "game" that contextualizes subject-specific content for leadership learning.
3. Participants will discuss appropriate interventions and applications of gamification as it relates to student motivation and leadership education learning goals.

Participants in this session will gain practice with incorporating gamification and gaming concepts in student learning and leadership behaviors, while learning research-based strategies and techniques for enriching their own practice through this type of experiential learning.

Review of Related Scholarship

The learning goals of traditionally designed courses are often tied to the extrinsic motivation (or social exchange) of achieving a good grade or accomplishing outputs designed by the instructor. To facilitate exploring leadership content, the instructor attempts to design an environment that effectively uses a balance of extrinsic and intrinsic stimulus that reinforces leadership ideas. In reality, a classroom and a game are similar. For example, the extrinsic rewards within a game and a classroom are essentially interchangeable; behavioral rewards of badges, levels and ranks are similar to participation points, scores and grades. Similarly, this example extend to leadership as the social exchanges between leaders and followers can be described through considerations of power and influence; a game of progressive social exchanges (Barbuto & Warneke, 2014). It is our position that best practices in leadership education utilize a variety of learning interventions that engage a diverse group of learners, reinforces specific relationships and behaviors and ignite and internal drive of learning goals. Consequently, research on intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, situational relevance and user centered design support the idea that gamified learning interventions and gamification of coursework have positive impact on student learning outcomes.

While using "games" for teaching has been explored in research since the 1980s (Wolfe & Box,1985), more recent research indicates that gamified learning activities (interventions) and gamification of classroom structures may increase student engagement and drive learning goal achievement (Deterding et al. 2011). Additionally, games as "learning tools" have effectively been used in work place training and as tools to accomplish learning outcomes within classrooms (Van Eck & Dempsey, 2002). Practitioners and researchers are recognizing that game technology used for work place training can be effective tools to accomplish learning outcomes within classrooms (Banfield & Wilkerson, 2014; Lee & Hammer, 2011; Engler, 2012).

Gamification in education essentially uses game design elements or complex scenarios (Deterding et al. 2011; Kasurinen & Knutas, 2018) along with the mechanics and processes of game thinking to motivate or engage users to address challenges (Zichermann & Cunningham 2011). Effective game mechanics and for driving student learning, often utilize principles of Self-Determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 2001; Ryan & Deci, 2010) and recognize the importance intrinsic and extrinsic factors within the design of the course and within a supporting game activity (Banfield & Wilkerson, 2014; Budkley & Doyle, 2014).

While reasons for using gamification and gamified learning in both work training and education is essentially to "motivate" users/learners through purposeful and playful design, we posit that the structure of the game can reinforce both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation by scaffolding learning with leadership content. A course syllabus that embeds game thinking and mechanisms based on elements of self-determination theory provides a working template for instructors to know how and when to intervene in student learning (Deci, Koestener, Ryan, 2001). These course "nudges" provide extrinsic motivation tied to proximal goals of earning a reward, but they also can link to intrinsic motivators connected to identity, curiosity, becoming a leader, and meaningful achievement. While distal goals may have limited impact on intrinsic motivation, the act of gamifying intriguing challenges, role play, and competition can lead to practice of leadership behaviors and gaining mastery in a social practice.

Essentially, the intent of gamified learning intervention is to elevate the student's desire to participate, while providing experiential and relevant feedback tied to learner's behavior. Driving learner behavior through both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation within the gamified environment is intended to increase effort and participation in learning course content. An individual's self-directed behavior may be stimulated by external processes (Deci & Ryan 2000). These activations, learning interventions or game challenges can be considered gamifiedlearning experiences.

Experiential learning theory, or ELT, elevates the importance of student-centered activities in the pedagogical process to provide individual practice and to drive exploration towards learning objectives and goals (Chapman, McPhee, and Proudman, 1995; Kolb, 1984). The "fun" of experiential activities is translated to learning outcomes when designed to align with the interest of the participant to the learning outcomes of objectives of the play (Zichermann & Cunningham, 2011). Consequently, one of the ways to provide an engaging classroom while providing subject relevant content is to gamify course structures and/or the activities of learning. By integrating game design elements and intrinsically motivating activity patterns with content-specific tasks into the educational contexts, the pedagogical concept of gamification replicates the benefits of experiential learning.

A leadership based instructional game design trades the earning of extrinsic rewards of badges, levels, and ranks for grades and scores tied to the practice or exploration of leader behaviors (Richter, Raban, Rafaeli, 2015; Rigby, 2014). Within the classroom, the motivational "nudges" of these grades and scores act as extrinsic rewards unless they are tied to the learner's identity or represent a personal goal. Gaming processes provide opportunity for students to engage in

leadership behaviors for intrinsic reasons that may be tied to "mastery" or other concepts of self-worth and personal achievement (Richter et al., 2015; Rigby, 2014).

What these games or gamified elements have in common within the learning classroom is that the learner is impacted by social exchange within the leader and follower dynamic. This provides unique opportunities to match leadership "content", or subject-specific knowledge to game applications for the purposes of expanding learning (O'Donovan, Gain & Marais, 2013. A participant has the opportunity to develop leader identity and perhaps develop ideas of "status" and role (Sheldon, 2012). Significantly, games designed as learning tools can enhance understanding of known elements through the experiential opportunity of the context-specific lesson it explores.

Gamification within the leadership classroom may take the role of a course long simulation, structured interventions throughout the semester, or as games used to teach key concepts or ideas best illustrated through game mechanics and gaming behaviors. For example, a course designed as a simulation places the content within the lengthy case-scenario, and provides gamified "nudges" or challenges for the student that connecting with intrinsic and extrinsic factors driving student learning (Buckley & Doyle, 2016). Similarly, a course syllabus that includes embedded game thinking and mechanisms based on elements of self-determination theory provides a working template for instructors to know how and when to intervene in student learning. By tying "narrative elements" to the game, an exploration of subject-specific knowledge reinforces the experiential play (Sheldon, 2012; Nicholson, 2012).

While education linked to "play" is becoming a better understood phenomenon (Vesterbacka, 2013), using gamified elements within the course can stimulate subject-specific behavior within a low risk environment. In a similar way, structuring a semester syllabus to include "nudging" activities, motivational theories and game logic, helps students progress through a "story" that allows for skill development and task achievement. These gamification practices provide student engagement through direct experience which is a grounding idea in experiential learning models (Engler, 2012; Kolb, 1984), and a key element of this pedagogical strategy. Essentially, by including best practices of experiential learning as gamified elements in a university course (Chapman, McPhee, and Proudman, 1995), the student is centered in the learning context while finding stimulation and reason to progress in content exploration. Within this in mind, is it really a game if everyone wins?

Lesson Plan Description

Part 1: Introduction to Gamification of a Course Structure and Gamifying Activities
Time: *10 minutes* (See Appendix A: *Gamification elements, mechanics and practices enhancing a learner-centered class*)

Workshop participants will be introduced to the concepts of gamification and gamifying lessons, as related to educational pedagogy and motivation theories within leadership courses. Participants will have the opportunity to consider the experiential teaching structures as it informs course design and experiential learning activity development.

In this first section, participants will have a brief overview of gamification as a pedagogy andsee its application as a simulation of a Supervisory Leadership course taught online, and the inclusion of game logic and gamified elements in the creation of a course syllabus. In these examples, elements of self-determination theory and other motivation considerations are incorporated in the gamification of course structure.

Part 2: Gamifying Leadership Education Through the Adaptation of Classic Games
Time: 40 minutes (See Appendix B: *Activity Worksheet)*

Small groups work together to gamify introductory leadership education by pairing a leadership issue or theory with a creative adaptation of a classic game. Our goal is to walk participants through the steps to consider when modifying a classic board game for pedagogical instruction.

Two samples will be provided to jumpstart the activity.

- **Sample 1: The Game of Strife –** Combining the issue of gender equity in the workplace and the classic Game of Life.
- **Sample 2: Power on the Oregon Trail –** Exploring emotions, intentions, andchoices regarding the Power Process Model through the Oregon Trail game.

After reviewing the samples, Activity Worksheet will be provided to help guide participants through the experience of gamifying a leadership issue and/or theory.

The following steps will be addressed:

Step 1: Focus on a leadership issue and/or theory and Choose a classic game
Leadership issue and/or theory

- Trust
- Motivation
- Power
- Groups or Teams
- Diversity or Inclusion
- Fairness or Justice
- Ethical Climate
- Ethical Leadership
- Influence Tactics
- Organizational Citizenship Behaviors
- Leader-Member Exchange

Classic game options

- **Monopoly**: Based on the economic concept of monopoly—the domination of a market by a single entity.
- **Candy Land:** This is a game that needs no strategy: players are never required tomake choices. They simply follow directions to complete the game.
- **Chutes and Ladders:** Players climb up, or slide down in a game of constant ups and downs.

- **Risk:** This is a strategy board game of diplomacy, conflict, conflict resolution, and conquest.
- **The Game of Life:** The game simulates a person's travels through their life – college, retirement, jobs, children, marriage, etc.
- **Oregon Trail:** This game simulates the realities of 19th-century pioneer life. Players negotiate the sharing of resources and negotiating various calamities along the way.
- **Sorry:** The objective is to be the first player to move all of their pawns around the board. If you land on an opponent, their pawn goes back to the start.

Step 2: Consider
How could you modify the description of the game or the rules of the game, to successfully simulate and apply your chosen theory and/or model?

Participants are given a space to brainstorm, create their game, and share their ideas. Through small group discussions, participants will address the Step 3 Questions and the process experienced in the creation of their game.

Activity objectives:

1. Stimulate creativity and innovation of pedagogy in leadership education.
2. Learn examples of successful practice of gamification into classroom and online education.
3. Build practical skills through incorporation of gamification into leadership education.

Discussion of Outcomes/Results

There are many transferable concepts within the idea of gamification as a pedagogy and other learning theory applications. References to student written, and oral reflections at the completion of three different courses that have implemented some of these recommended practices will expand upon the ways in which the gamified structures have enhanced the subject specific content or provided distraction or busy work when unnecessary.

In addition to discussing our own methods and results of using gamification, participants will have an opportunity discuss their experience within the workshop.

Step 3: Discuss
Participants will be asked to reflect upon:

- Their ability to utilize their game idea within their personal classroom practice
- A specific idea of the outcome and goals for post-game discussion.
- How they can address "reasons" for game progression that include intrinsic and extrinsic rewards. Does their reimagining of the game add to the depth of class knowledge?
- Does their game allow for a greater simulation of the concept?
- Are course concepts clearly applicable as players navigate the game?
- What are your limitations with your game?

Workshop Implications

As a result of participating in this session, we anticipate that participants will understand the potential benefits of gamification and gamified learning with respect to course design in online and face to face classes while considering the potential positive impacts on student learning and leadership development.

By experiencing the redesigned game play with specific learning outcomes, we believe participants will understand the importance of matching content to game mechanics. This opportunity gives participants the perspective of a "player" as well as a designer of educational play.

As workshop participants have the opportunity to identify, design, and discuss practical uses for contextualizing gamification within a leadership course while working together to create their own "game" in a guided environment. As a result, this session challenges participants to stretch their pedagogical considerations and take a chance to explore creative methodologies. By the end of this session, we believe participants will understand key teaching objectives for gamified courses as well as understand the use of cases and narratives in design educational game play and gamified processes which can be applied immediately to leadership course instruction.

References

Banfield & Wilkerson, (2014) Increasing Student Intrinsic Motivation and Self-Efficacy Through Gamification Pedagogy. *Contemporary Issues In Education Research 7*(4).

Barbuto, J., Warneke, (2014). If at first you don't succeed: A Framework for Understanding Follower Compliance in Multiple Influence attempts. *International Journal of Leadership Studies, 8*(2).

Bedwell, W. L., Pavlas, D., Heyne, K., Lazzara, E. H., & Salas, E. (2012). Toward a Taxonomy Linking Game Attributes to Learning: An Empirical Study. *Simulation & Gaming*, *43*(6), 729–760. https://doi.org/10.1177/1046878112439444

Buckley, P., & Doyle, E. (2014). Gamification and student motivation. Interactive Learning Environments, 0(0), 1e14. https://doi.org/10.1080/10494820.2014.

Chapman, S., McPhee, P., & Proudman, B. (1995). What is Experiential Education? In Warren, K. (Ed.), *The Theory of Experiential Education* (pp. 235-248). Dubuque: Kendall/Hunt Publishing Company.

Deci, E.L., Koestener, R., & Ryan, R.M. (2001). Extrinsic rewards and intrinsic motivation in education: Reconsidered once again. *Review of Educational Research, 71*(1), 1-27. Doi: 10.3102/0034654071001001

Deterding, S., Dixon, D., Khaled, R., & Nacke, L. (2011). *From Game Design Elements to Gamefulness: Defining Gamification*. MindTrek, Sept 28-30, 8.

Engler, R. (2012). Serious Games–Gamification of Education.

Kasurinen & Knutas, (2018). Publication trends in gamification. A Systematic mapping Study. *Computer Science Review 27*, 33-44

Kolb, D.A. (1984). *Experiential Learning*, Prentice Hall, England.

Landers, R. N. (2014). Developing a theory of gamified learning: Linking serious games and gamification of learning. *Simulation & Gaming, 45*, 752-768.

Lee, J., & Hammer, J. (2011). Gamification in Education: What, How, Why Bother? *Academic Exchange Quarterly, 12*(2), 1-5.

Nicholson, S. (2012). A User-Centered Theoretical Framework for Meaningful Gamification. Paper Presented at Games+Learning+Society 8.0, Madison, WI.

O'Donovan, S., Gain, J., & Marais, P. (2013). A Case Study in the Gamification of a University-level Games Development Course. *South African Institute for Computer Scientists and Information Technologists Conference*, (pp. 245–251). East London, South Africa. doi:10.1145/2513456.2513469

Richter G., Raban, D.R., Rafaeli. S. (2015). Gamification in Education and Business, The Center for Internet Research and LINKS I- 2015 DOI10.1007/978-3-319-10208-5_2

Rigby, C. S. (2015). Gamification and motivation 4. In S. P. Walz & S. Deterding (Eds.), Gameful world: Approaches, issues, applications (pp. 113-138). London, UK: The MIT Press.

Ryan, R. M., Deci, E. L. (2000). Self-Determination Theory and the Facilitation of Intrinsic Motivation, Social Development, and Well-Being. *American Psychologist*, 68-78.

Ryan, R.M., Rigby, C.S., and Przybylski, A. (2006). The Motivational Pull of Video Games: A Self-Determination Theory Approach. *Motivation and Emotion 30*, 4 , 344-360.

Saenz, M.J., Cano, J.L. (2009). Experiential learning through simulation games: An empirical study, *International Journal of Engineering 25*(2), 296 – 307.

Sailer, M., Ulrich Hense, J. Mayr, S.K., Mandl, H. (2017) How gamification motivates: An experimental study of the effects of specific game design elements on psychological need satisfaction. *Computers in Human Behavior 69*, 371-380.

Sheldon, L. (2012). The Multiplayer Classroom: Designing Coursework as a Game. Boston, MA: Cengage Learning.

Van Eck, R., & Dempsey, J. (2002). The effect of competition and contextualized advisement on the transfer of mathematics skills in a computer-based instructional simulation game. *Educational Technology Research and Development, 50*(3), 23-41.

Vesterbacka, P. (2013). Education Is for the (Angry) Birds. *Scientific American, 309*(2), 68-68.

Wolfe, J., Box, T.M. (1985). The teaching effectiveness of games in collegiate business courses: A 1973-1983 update, *Simulation & Gaming, 16*(3), 251-288.

Zichermann, G., & Cunningham, C. (2011). *Gamification by design: Implementing game mechanics in web and mobile apps*. Sebastopol, Canada: O'Reilly Media.

Appendix A: *Gamification elements, mechanics and practices -a learner- centered class*

Generalized examples from simulation of a Corporation of Consulting companies in an online course of Supervisory Leadership.

Student role- ***Learning target domain*- Training Outcome**	**Teacher role- Instructional practice-** **Learning Mechanics (abstract and concrete)**	**Activity to targeted levels of self-determined motivation level** Definition from (Ryan & Deci, 2000, p. 72)	**Gamification elements- Gaming attributes and Feedback mechanism**	**Activity- Course work- Progression guided by instructor**
Participant- Declarative Knowledge Remembering and Understanding content	**Guide/Assessor -** Design for rapid feedback- Instructional guidance Repetition Question and answer	Low Affective filter *Externally Regulated-* "such behaviors are performed to satisfy an external demand or reward contingency"	**Scores-** directive comments Personalization Goals/ challenges	Quiz based "work" with error correction Proximal goals and weekly scores
Performer *Applying content knowledge* Application- Compilation Declarative knowledge	**Coach-** Modeling- Demonstration Imitation Simulation	Negotiate meaning- *Externally Regulated-* "such behaviors are performed to satisfy an external demand or reward contingency"	**Progressive Badges and rewards** - Leader assessments - Control, Rules/Goals, Immersion	Leader role "title" and Progression- skill development support Storyline/New identities Onboarding
Constructor of knowledge- *Understanding & applying content individually* **Builder/Doer** in cooperative learning Understanding, *Analyzing, Applying, content, corporately-*	**Facilitator** weekly content And **Architect-** progressive task-based scaffolding- Action/Task Experimentation	Cooperative learning by doing *Introjected Regulation* "introjection involves taking in a regulation but not fully accepting it as one's own. It is a relatively controlled form of regulation in which behaviors are performed to avoid guilt or anxiety or to attain ego enhancements such	**Scores, Leaderboards and ranking-** Comparative feedback in contrasting website - Challenge, Environment, Game Fantasy, Human interaction, Assessment and Adaptation	Individually construct meaning to contribute to Team/Group weekly assigned goals subject-embedded Weekly develop team designed website - *Organizational network competition* Social engagement

Cognitive strategies, Knowledge organization,		as pride.”		
Active Learners- *Understanding, Applying, Analyzing* Knowledge organization, Receiving and responding Cognitive strategies	**Motivator-** Provision of context Simulation Modeling Demonstration	Intrinsic-Instrumental *Identified Regulation* “reflects a conscious valuing of a behavioral goal or regulation, such that the action is accepted or owned as personally important”	**Score and progression track** Time restriction Challenge, Environment, Game Fantasy, Human interaction, Assessment and Adaptation	Online posts of Personal application - *Distal goals connections to mastery and future use*
Leader- Designer Guide Cognitive strategy Knowledge organization Application Compilation Motivation	**Advisor-** Stay out of the way! Promote discovery Identity and role Ownership	*Integrated Regulation*- “occurs when identified regulations are fully assimilated to the self, which means they have been evaluated and brought into congruence with one’s other values and needs.”	**Ownership** “Master builder”-	Student takes ownership of the simulation and realizes the ability to design the outcomes of the structure

Classrooms incorporating the gamification of learning objectives can facilitate growth in self-efficacy and subject-specific learning. Gamification and game playing is Experiential Learning Theory pedagogy and the components of rewards, scores, progressions, competitions taps intrinsic motivators in achievement of learning objectives. Game mechanics help students “stay in the game” and understand the progression of the story as well as achievement of content specific tasks and practices.

Appendix B: *Activity Worksheet*

JULY 2019

ASSOCIATION OF LEADERSHIP EDUCATORS
ANNUAL CONFERENCE

EDUCATOR WORKSHOP

A GAME WITHIN A WORKSHOP...

Activity: Gamifying Leadership Education through the Adaptation of Classic Games

Susan Burton, Ph.D
Kara Brant, MS
Ashlee Young, M.Ed
University of Nebraska-Lincoln

WHY CHOOSE CLASSIC GAMES?

By modifying a game that has a nostalgic link or by choosing a game that is familiar to your students – you are able to simultaneously draw upon their positive association with the game, while creating a heightened atmosphere by providing a unique twist that is connected to your course lesson. This allows you to create a situation where students likely understand the rules of the game, but can easily adapt to your "new rules."

SAMPLE 1: THE GAME OF STRIFE

Combining the issue of power, influence, and gender equity in the workplace and the classic Game of Life.
Modified by Kara Brant

SAMPLE 2: POWER ON THE OREGON TRAIL

Exploring emotions, intentions, and choices regarding the Power Process Model through the Oregon Trail game.
Modified by Ashlee Young

FOCUS ON A LEADERSHIP ISSUE AND/OR THEORY & CHOOSE A GAME

- Trust
- Motivation
- Power
- Groups or Teams
- Diversity or Inclusion
- Fairness or Justice
- Ethical Climate
- Ethical Leadership
- Influence Tactics
- Organizational Citizenship Behaviors
- Leader-Member Exchange

CONSIDER

- How could you modify the description of the game, or the rules of the game, to successfully simulate and apply your chosen theory and/or model?

DISCUSS

How would you utilize your game in classroom practice? For this method to work, as the creator of the game, you need to have an idea of the outcome and goals for discussion.

- Does your reimagining of the game add to the depth of class knowledge?
- Does your game allow for a greater simulation of the concept?
- Are course concepts clearly applicable as players navigate the game?
- What are your limitations with your game?

USE THIS SPACE TO CREATE YOUR GAME. CREATE YOUR RULES. PLAY ON!

When Technical Skills Aren't Enough: Training for the Softer Side of Community Action Leadership

Dr. Laura L. Greenhaw, University of Florida
Dr. Marina D'Abreau Denny, Mississippi State University

Abstract

It is not uncommon for professionals in technical and science-related careers to interact with others frequently in their daily work. However, most do not receive any education or practice on what are broadly referred to as "soft skills". Thus, these professionals may struggle to create positive interactions, especially while in leadership roles or interacting with stakeholders or clientele. We worked with Wildlife Services to develop and deliver a half-day training on leadership competencies including emotional intelligence, power and influence, and conflict management. This educator workshop describes the training, demonstrates the learning activities implemented, and reports evaluative feedback from training participants and the workshop facilitator. Attendees will brainstorm potential partners and other leadership competencies they can provide as outreach education opportunities.

Introduction

Many professionals in wildlife and natural resources careers likely do not enter their vocation with the expectation of interacting with people regularly. Yet more often than not, these individuals are the sought-after experts in local communities, "advocating stakeholders' positions on local natural resource issues and promoting responsible resource management among the general public" (Gordon, Carter, & Bland, 2013, para. 1). Human-wildlife conflicts cause an estimated $22 billion dollars in damage annually (Beeson, 2016) and present a unique challenge to wildlife and natural resource professionals attempting to balance their responsibility to the conservation of wildlife resources and the environment (Krausman, 2016) and to their stakeholders (i.e., anyone affected by or affecting wildlife or its management) (Decker et al., 2019). In responding to conflict, these professionals must provide a workable solution quickly while faced with several confounding variables that could pose safety risks. Effectively navigating these situations requires not only technical expertise but also an array of skills typically considered *soft*.

In 2016, Mississippi State University and the U.S. Department of Agriculture's Animal and Plant Health Inspection Service (APHIS) Wildlife Services program partnered to create the Wildlife Services National Training Academy (NTA), with a mission to train participants to effectively resolve human-wildlife conflicts and safety-related risks by integrating and enhancing safety, communications, and administrative and technical skills (Beeson, 2016). In 2018, the NTA hosted their inaugural Leadership Development Training. The goal of the training was to help participants learn how to communicate effectively with stakeholders, including the public and the media, on highly technical, controversial, regulatory or high-risk topics.

The two-day training included an overview of risk communication theory, message mapping, on-camera interviews, and team exercises to address realistic APHIS communication scenarios. The NTA coordinators contacted Extension leadership specialists in the School of Human Sciences to

request an additional half-day session to complement this risk communications leadership training. The topics agreed upon by both parties included emotional intelligence, communication through power and influence, and conflict management.

The purpose of this workshop is to share the structure and content of the half-day leadership training conducted for the Wildlife Services National Training Academy to introduce the concepts of emotional intelligence, communication through power and influence, and conflict management. We will provide the framework for training and outreach on these topics for different audiences in a leadership context.

Learning objectives for the workshop include:

1. Describe the importance of emotional intelligence (EI), power and influence (P&I), and conflict management as leadership competencies.
2. Practice learning activities to incorporate in leadership education workshops.
3. Analyze the applicability of EI, P&I, and conflict management in a variety of leadership contexts.
4. Apply the community action leadership development framework to identify opportunities for leadership education outreach.

Literature Review

It is projected that more than half of the leaders in the wildlife profession in North America will retire by 2029 (TWS Leadership Institute, 2019). Current leaders acknowledge that "critical character attributes such as responsibility and dependability, punctuality, time management, and good judgment" (Henke & Krausman, 2015, p. 16) along with communication and conflict management are no longer skills desired by employers; they are required. Given the evolution of the wildlife management profession, specifically regarding good governance and citizen engagement, from a client orientation to a stakeholder orientation (Stafford, Welden, & Bruyere, 2018), leadership training and development in soft skills for early and mid-career professionals is essential.

At the end of the twentieth century, there was a philosophical shift in community-based leadership development that emphasized bottom-up transformation, shared power, and community building (Huey, 1994), from the traditional "heroic" view of leadership and a deficit view of followers (Senge, 1990). This new philosophy emphasized the concepts of shared leadership, leadership as relationship, and leadership in community, promoting a model based on values such as trust, commitment, sharing, and ownership (Sandmann & Vandenberg, 1995).

In response to this shift, a conceptual framework for community action leadership development in the twenty-first century was developed specifically for Cooperative Extension (Sandmann & Vandenberg, 1995). At its core, four methodological and two content principles guide its application (Figure 1).

> From this point of view, leadership development shifts from individual-centered to collective-centered; from a packaged curriculum to an evolving, customized educational process focused on building relationships; and from discrete leadership development

programs to leadership development embedded in concrete issues identified by the participants in the process. (Sandmann & Vandenberg, 1995, para. 10)

Figure 1. Six principles of community action leadership development

Methodological	Facilitation - Learning takes place through informal or non-formal teaching whereby group diversity is valued and conflict is constructive. Based on respect, encouragement, and community building.
	Learner Focus - Learning is tailor-made to the participants by engaging them in visioning, planning, deciding, and reflecting about their learning experiences.
	Leadership Focus - Learning is based on a group-centered approach to leadership development, centered on organizational development and capacity building.
	Issue/Action Focus - Learning is centered on real-life issues relevant to the target audience, learning in action, and on-going reflection or collective self-examination.
Content	Non-prescriptive - Content must be determined by and with the participants.
	Process as Content - Participants learn facilitation, community building, teamwork, group planning and decision making, organizational development, conflict management, and group reflection through having and taking ownership of their learning and development.

Despite its development for Cooperative Extension, this conceptual framework is relevant to most public sector organizations. Research suggests that in public sector organizations, employees may have reduced frustration, increased motivation, and strengthened commitment if they feel they are personally and meaningfully contributing to an organization that performs a valuable service (Moynihan & Pandey, 2007; Romzek & Hendricks, 1982). There is empirical support for community-based action leadership development efforts that highlight to those public employees the significance of their role in the organization and gives them the opportunity to enhance their learning (Moynihan & Landuyt, 2009).

In our case, Wildlife Services National Training Academy administrators approached us with a request for leadership development for their organization. Those administrators provided examples of the varying roles and responsibilities of their employees along with a description of deficits they had identified including illustrative examples. We responded with suggestions of potential leadership competencies that might help their employees improve their interactions with stakeholders and clientele, targeting the identified needs. Due to time limitations, we chose three competencies: emotional intelligence, power and influence, and conflict management. Once we agreed on the competencies, we developed the content and structure of the training adhering to the logistic specifications. A facilitator familiar with Wildlife Services delivered the

training in a group setting, using real-life examples to explain and illustrate the application of the competencies. At the conclusion of the two-day training, NTA administrators asked participants to complete an evaluation, providing feedback on each component of the training, including the half-day leadership development we delivered.

Competencies selected for the training included emotional intelligence, power and influence, and conflict management. Emotional intelligence has to do with the interactions of our affective and cognitive domains (Northouse, 2013). Broadly defined, emotional intelligence is the ability to manage one's emotions and the emotions of others. Some of the work performed by Wildlife Services may be sensitive, confusing, or unappealing to the public. Their ability to perceive and respond to others' emotions while also identifying and managing their own emotions was identified as a critical need. Power and influence refers to French and Raven's (as cited in Levi, 2014) power bases including expert, referent, information, legitimate, reward, and coercive, which describe sources of a person's power. Additionally, Yulk's influence tactics (as cited in Levi, 2014) can be applied in attempt to change a target's beliefs or behaviors. An understanding of appropriate application of influence tactic can be useful for Wildlife Services employees in communicating with stakeholders and clientele, particularly regarding selection and application of human-wildlife interaction management strategies. Finally, conflict management approaches were identified as useful and practical techniques Wildlife Services employees could implement in combination with emotional intelligence and power and influence. Avoidance, accommodation, confrontation, compromise, and collaboration as outlined by Thomas (as cited in Levi, 2014).

Lesson Plan Description

Lesson title: What your technical degree never taught you about leadership.

Time: 90 minutes

Purpose: Describe a half-day leadership workshop developed for Wildlife Services National Training Academy Employees. Apply learning activities to demonstrate application of emotional intelligence, power and influence, and conflict management. Participants who complete the workshop will be able to apply the framework to develop their own leadership education outreach in a variety of contexts.

Learning Objectives:

1. Describe the importance of emotional intelligence (EI), power and influence (P&I), and conflict management as leadership competencies.
2. Practice learning activities to incorporate in leadership education workshops.
3. Analyze the applicability of EI, P&I, and conflict management in a variety of leadership contexts.
4. Identify potential partners who might benefit from leadership education outreach.

Teaching methods:

I. Introduction- 5 minutes

A. Introduce ourselves, Mississippi State University, and Wildlife Services National Training Academy (NTA).
B. State objectives of the educator workshop.

II. Obj 1: Describe the importance of EI, P&I, and conflict management as leadership competencies. - 10 minutes
   A. Provide definitions and descriptions of:
      1. Emotional intelligence
      2. Power and influence
      3. Conflict management
   B. Solicit examples from participants that illustrate each concept in a leadership context.

III. Obj 2: Practice learning activities to incorporate leadership education workshops. - 45 minutes
   A. Describe the NTA leadership development workshop context and content.
      1. Overall two-day training format.
      2. Specifics of our half-day session.
      3. Explanation of choices for content and process.
   B. Lead participants in workshop activities incorporated in NTA training.
      1. Emotional intelligence activity
         a) Ask participants to jot down the attitudes, values, skills, and knowledge of someone they consider successful at developing and maintaining effective relationships with their employees, colleagues, clients, or peers.
         b) Review the Emotional Intelligence model, its core competencies, and what they look like in action.
         c) Discuss how those traits participants identified align with the personal and social competencies associated with emotional intelligence. Which, if any, are tied to IQ, rather than EQ? Which of them have an effect on an individual's ability to do what he/she needs or wants?
      2. Power and influence activity
         a) Show short video clip. Facilitate discussion about why people in the scene acted the way they did. Define and review power bases, influence tactics, and the conditions/environment under which each is best applied for optimal results.
         b) Ask one or two participants to select an influence tactic. Have them share an example of how they have or might use that particular influence tactic in their professional life to influence someone's behavior, attitude, or belief for an intended outcome. Ask the group to identify and discuss the appropriate power base(s) to complement that influence tactic in order for it to work.
   C. Debrief about participant and facilitator evaluations.
      1. Present and discuss participant evaluations.
      2. Provide and discuss workshop facilitator reflective evaluation.

IV. Obj 3: Analyze the applicability of EI, P&I, and conflict management in a variety of leadership contexts. -15 minutes
   A. Using participant evaluations and facilitator reflection, engage small group discussion analyzing these concepts as leadership competencies and other potential concepts.
   B. Share out from small groups thoughts on leadership competencies that could/should be taught for various contexts.

V. Obj 4: Identify potential partners who might benefit from leadership education outreach.- 5 minutes
   A. Individual brainstorm, then share out

VI. Questions and Wrap-up - 10 minutes

Discussion of Outcomes/Results

Seventeen participants, including wildlife technicians, biologists, specialists, program leaders, and supervisors, engaged in lecture, discussion, and hands-on activities on the topics of emotional intelligence, communication through power and influence, and conflict management. On a scale of 1 to 5 (Poor to Excellent), the overall assessment of the session was rated 3.85 (n = 13). Respondents were asked reflective pre- post knowledge gain on a 5 point scale (0 = no knowledge, 5 = knowledgeable). Participants' mean prior knowledge of "the importance of understanding Emotional Quotient (EQ) and how it relates to better leadership and resolving conflict" was 2.85, with the majority of respondents indicating "some knowledge". After the session, participants reported mean knowledge of 4.31, a 51 percent increase. Written comments revealed an appreciation for learning new approaches and perspectives for handling and resolving conflict. The inherent nature of many professionals in a range of wildlife, natural resources, and agricultural fields is to be introverts and work independently. As such, this type of leadership and communication training could be significant when these professionals encounter conflict or difficult situations with both the public and colleagues.

While in general, the workshop participants were engaged and cooperative, it is the authors' opinion that the training could have been more effective. Additional feedback indicated that participants were not notified about this addition to their two-day training; this lack of advance communication may have created a feeling of intrusion and unrelatability. Unfortunately, we did not have access to the APHIS crisis scenarios the participants used throughout the rest of the training. These scenarios could have served as a useful tool to not only establish instructor credibility and enhance relatability but also help the participants better make connections between the content and its applicability to their work environments. Finally, in order to optimize the effectiveness of this training with similar stakeholders in the future, at least a full day should be scheduled to allow for more hands-on activities and critical discussion. Participants indicated a desire for more time to practice the competencies taught.

Workshop Implications

This workshop will benefit participants who are seeking ideas to provide leadership development outreach through their current position. Open discussion about relevant leadership concepts that

can be taught in various contexts will allow participant to assess the value of potential workshop topics for their specific audiences or stakeholders. This may be particularly relevant for participants who work in Extension, government, or private industry and are considering how to address leadership development needs in various organizations.

Workshop attendees will participate in learning activities designed for professional adults to better understand the experience of the leadership learner. We will provide handouts describing the learning activities so they can be modified to fit diverse audiences. In addition, individual brainstorming and group sharing will develop a more robust compilation of learning activities and appropriate leadership competencies for various audiences and contexts. Finally, we will share a facilitator reflection alongside our NTA workshop participants' feedback to help attendees analyze the structure and delivery as well as the content of the original training. Ultimately, our goal is to provide a framework for a leadership development training that workshop participants can modify and apply for their own purpose.

References

Beeson, V. (2016). National training academy to be housed at Mississippi State University. *Mississippi State University*. Available at https://www.msstate.edu/newsroom/article/2016/08/national-training-academy-be-housed-msu/

Decker, D. J.; Forstchen, A. B.; Siemer, W. F.; Smith, C. A.; Smith, C. A.; Frohlich, R. K.; Schiavone, M. V.; Lederle, P. E.; & Pomeranz, E. F. (2019). Moving the paradigm from stakeholders to beneficiaries in wildlife management. *The Journal of Wildlife Management* [On-line]. Available at https://wildlife.onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1002/jwmg.21625

Gordon, J. S.; Carter, R.; & Bland, R. (2013). Leadership and Engagement for Natural Resource Organizations: A Case Study in Mississippi. *Journal of Extension* [On-line], *51*(3) Article 3FEA6. Available at https://joe.org/joe/2013june/pdf/JOE_v51_3a6.pdf

Henke, S. E. & Krausman, P. R. (2015). Paths to becoming a wildlifer. *The Wildlife Professional*. Available at http://wildlife.org/paths-to-becoming-a-wildlifer/

Huey, J. (1994, February 21). The new post-heroic leadership. *Fortune*, 42-50.

Krausman, P. R. (2016). Professionalism between the pages. *The Journal of Wildlife Management*, *80*(8), 1343-1344.

Levi, D. (2014). *Group dynamics for teams* (4th Ed). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications, Inc.

Moynihan, D. P. & Landyut, N. (2009). How do public organizations learn? Building cultural and structural perspectives. *Public Administration Review*, *69*(6), 1097-1105.

Moynihan, D. P. & Pandey, S. K. (2007). The role of organizations in fostering public service motivation. *Public Administration Review*, *67*(1), 40-53.

Northouse, P. G. (2013). *Leadership: Theory and practice* (6th Edition). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications, Inc.

Romzek, B. & Hendricks, J. S. (1982). Organizational commitment and representative bureaucracy: Can we have it both ways? *American Political Science Review*, *76*(1), 75-82.

Sandmann, L. R. & Vandenberg, L. (1995). A framework for 21st century leadership. *Journal of Extension* [On-line], *33*(6) Article 6FEA1. Available at https://www.joe.org/joe/1995december/a1.php

Senge, P. M. (1990). *The fifth discipline: The art and practice of the learning organization*. New York: Doubleday/Currency.

Stafford, N. T.; Welden, R. F.; & Bruyere, B. L. (2018). Media reporting of conflict between wildlife and people spending time in nature. *Wildlife Society Bulletin*, *42*(2), 246-253.

The Wildlife Society Leadership Institute. (2019). Available at http://wildlife.org/next-generation/leadership-institute/

Appendix

Power Bases – Guidelines

POSITION POWER	ACTIONS
LEGITIMATE	• Make polite, clear requests • Explain the reasons for a request. • Don't exceed your scope of authority; Verify authority if necessary. • Follow proper channels. • Insist on compliance if appropriate; Follow up to verify compliance.
REWARD	• Offer the type of rewards that people desire. • Offer rewards that are fair and ethical. • Don't promise more that you can deliver. • Explain criteria for giving rewards and keep it simple. • Provide rewards as promised if requirements are met. • Use rewards symbolically (not manipulatively).
COERCIVE	• Explain rules & consequences, ensuring people understand serious consequences of violations. • Respond to infractions promptly & consistently w/o favoritism. • Investigate facts before reprimand or punishment. • Provide sufficient warnings before punishment (except on most serious infractions). • Administer warnings & reprimands in private, avoid threats. • Stay calm, avoid appearance of hostility or personal rejection. • Express sincere desire to help person comply with expectations. • Invite person to suggest ways to correct the problem, seek agreement on a concrete plan. • Maintain credibility by administering punishment if noncompliance continues after warnings have been made. • Use punishments that are legitimate, fair, and commensurate with the seriousness of the infraction.

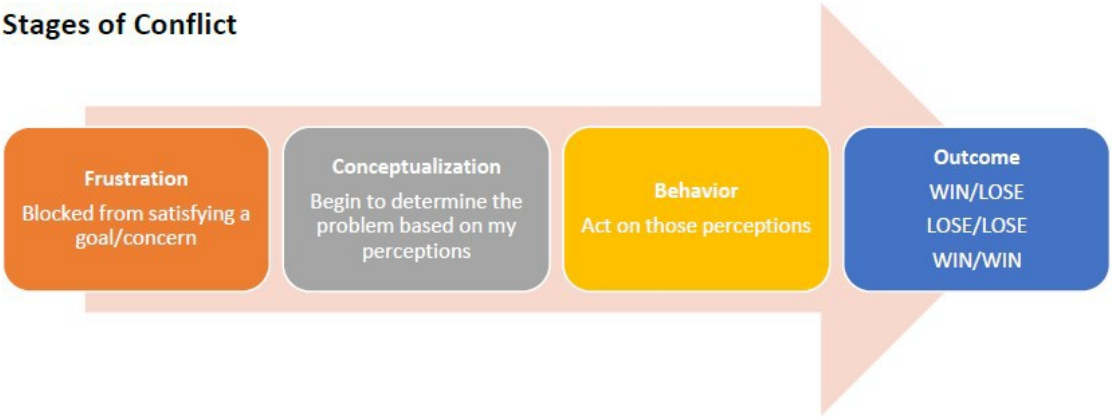
PERSONAL POWER	ACTIONS
EXPERT	• Explain reasons for a request or proposal and why it's important. • Provide evidence that a proposal will be successful. • Don't make rash, careless, or inconsistent statements. • Don't lie, exaggerate, or misrepresent the facts. • Listen seriously to the person's concerns & suggestions. • Act confident and decisive in a crisis.
REFERENT	• Show acceptance and positive regard; Use sincere forms of ingratiation. • Be supportive and helpful. • Keep promises and commitments. • Make self-sacrifices to benefit others. • Lead by example (use role modeling). • Explain the personal importance of a request.

Emotional Intelligence (EQ) requires awareness of one's own emotions and the emotions of others, and using such knowledge to guide thinking and action. This begins with understanding one's own emotional reactions to situations and people (**self-awareness**), then making better, more informed decisions about how to react (**self-management**). Without this foundational understanding, people are reactive and may respondineffectively to situations. Self-knowledge is what makes it possible to then become more attuned to the emotions of others (**social awareness**) and then be choose more effectively how to respond (**relationship management**). EQ helps people to interact with others so we demonstrate the:

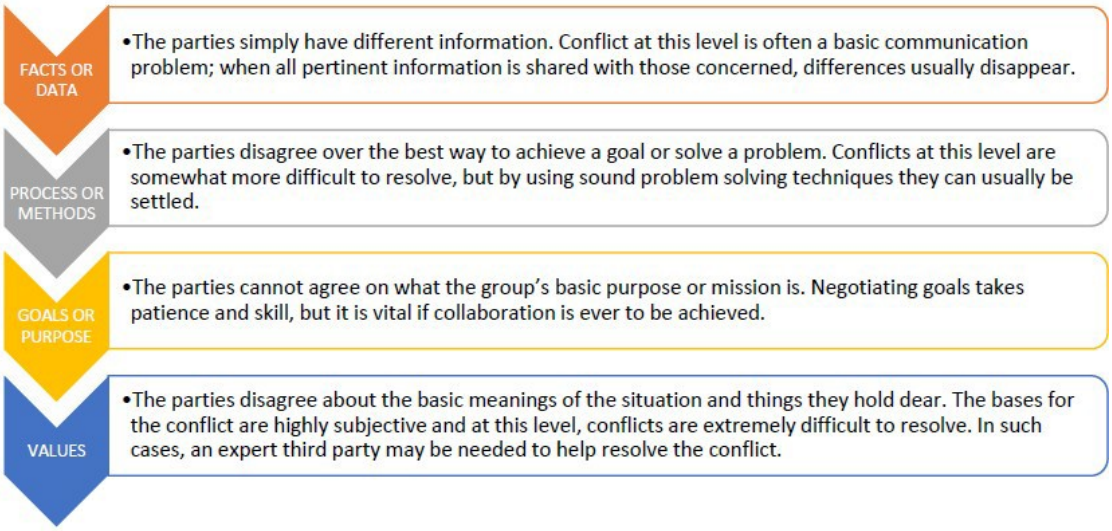
Right Response —> Right Time —> Right Person

EQ Construct	Competencies	Successful	Unsuccessful
Self-Awareness	• Emotional self-awareness • Accurate self-assessment • Self-confidence	• Aware of your own feelings • Know why feelings occur • Understand implications of emotions • Aware of strengths/limitations • Open to feedback	• Easily irritated with others • Can be abrasive without realizing impact • Feel imbalance (work life, health, family) • Rarely seek/accept feedback
Social Awareness	• Empathy • Organizational awareness • Service orientation	• Read others' moods/non-verbal cues accurately • Understand reasons for others' actions • Understand values & culture of group/organization • Read key power relationships • Understand political forces	• Believes everyone thinks like you do • More time planning response than listening • Frequently surprised by others' actions or words • Little knowledge of others' roles • Hard to identify or approach decision-makers
Self-Management	• Self-control • Transparency • Adaptability • Achievement orientation • Initiative	• Flexible and adaptable to changing situations/people • Keep impulses under control • See glass as "half-full"	• React impulsively to stress • Get involved in inappropriate situations • Become angry, depressed, agitated from conflict/stress • May regret behaviors after
Relationship Management	• Visionary leadership • Developing others • Influence • Change catalyst • Conflict management • Building bonds • Teamwork & collaboration	• De-escalate conflicts • Offer feedback to improve performance • Encourage others and care about their development • Build consensus/support for ideas suggestions • Bring out the best in others • Maintain cooperative working relationships	• Rely on your authority • Hard to communicate a common vision • Tell others what to do without the "how" or "why" • Care only that job gets done • Ignore team potential • Handle conflict poorly

Stages of Conflict



Levels of Conflict



Warning Signs

Ambiguous jurisdictions	Conflict of interest	Communication barriers
Over-dependency of one part	Differentiation in organizations	Association of the parties
Need for consensus	Behavior regulations	Unresolved prior conflicts

Conflict Resolution Approach	Explanation	When to Use
Avoidance	Occurs when an individual fails to address the conflict, but rather sidesteps, postpones, or simply withdraws	• Stakes aren't that high and you don't have anything to lose • You don't have time to deal with it • The context isn't suitable to address the conflict- it isn't the right time or place • More important issues are presenting • You see no chance of getting your concerns met • You would have to deal with an angry, hotheaded person • You are totally unprepared, taken by surprise, and you need time to think and collect information • You are too emotionally involved and the others around you can solve the conflict more successfully
Accommodation	Opposite of competition and contains an element of self-sacrifice. An accommodating person neglects his or her own concerns to satisfy the concerns of the other person.	• The issue is more important to the other person that it is to you • You discover that you are wrong • Continued competition would be detrimental and you know you can't win • Preserving harmony without disruption is the most important consideration
Confrontation/ Competition	Pursuing his/her concerns at the other person's expense. Power-oriented strategy -- *Someone wins and someone loses.* Before using competition you must decide whether or not winning this conflict is beneficial to individuals or the group	• You know you are right • You need a quick decision • You meet a steamroller type of person and you need to stand up for your own rights
Compromise	Objective is to find an expedient, mutually acceptable solution that partially satisfies both parties -- *appropriate when all parties are satisfied with getting part of what they want and are willing to be flexible* All parties should receive something, and all parties should give something up	• The goals are moderately important but not worth the use of more assertive strategies • People of equal status are equally committed • You want to reach temporary settlement on complex issues • You want to reach expedient solutions on important issues • You need a backup mode when competition or collaboration don't work.
Collaboration	An attempt to work with the other person to find some solution that fully satisfies the concerns of both -- *Requires you to identify the underlying concerns of the two individuals in conflict and find an alternative that meets both sets of concerns*	• Others' lives are involved • You don't want to have full responsibility • There is a high level of trust • You want to gain commitment from others • You need to work through hard feelings, animosity, etc.

Facilitating Systems Thinking, Personal Values Identification, and Complex Problem Solving through Project-Based Learning

Abstract

This educational workshop reviews the formation and summation of a final group project assigned in an interdisciplinary undergraduate leadership course focused on understanding leadership for solving global complex problems. The group project utilized a values clarification exercise that guided students to identify their personal values and preferred global systems (food, economic, environment, social, or health) to address complex adaptive issues. The instructors assigned students to initial groups according to their values, preferred systems, and similar problem-solving styles, then re-assigned students according to differences in their values, preferred systems, and problem-solving styles. The final project required students to work together to brainstorm solutions within a global system. Results and implications for replication of this model for a final group project are discussed.

Introduction

The context of leadership education continues to shift. The year 2050 looms in the future, threatening the world with complex adaptive problems (Emmott, 2013). The present-day wrestles with these precursor issues associated with food and water shortages, disease outbreaks, and political instability. The leading contributors to these issues are the growing global population and climate change (Andenoro, Sowcik, & Balser, 2017).

The complex adaptive challenges created by the interconnected systems and disciplines constantly remind leaders of the volatile, uncertain, complex, and ambiguous present (Carvan, 2014). As the domain of leadership looks to the future, the adaptive problems being faced will necessitate courageous individuals who know their values and how those values inform how they learn and lead.

With these complex problems in mind, leadership education courses need new ways to teach problem solving in order to equip courageous, young leaders with the skills necessary to address these problems (Andenoro, Allen, Haber-Curran, Jenkins, Sowcik, Dugan, & Osteen, 2013). However, a mismatch appears to exist between leadership education and what leaders actually need to succeed in the workplace (Rowland, 2016). If “the vast majority of leadership programs are set curricula through classroom-taught, rationally based, individual-focused method,” then it stands to reason that effective models to teach problem solving within leadership education would swing in the opposite direction (Rowland, 2016).

As global complex adaptive challenges looming in the near future, undergraduate leadership education needs to prepare leaders to courageously and skillfully use their values to inspire

others, address problems, and create positive change. Tomorrow's global uncertainty informs efforts to make today's leadership education collaborative, capacity increasing, empowering and innovative (Petrie, 2014; Rowland, 2016). Traditional teaching strategies are not able to equip learners with the necessary skills to understand and solve these issues (Clegorne & Mastrogiovanni, 2015). In order to begin to address the complex challenges and global issues, educators must develop the capacity for complex problem solving within learners, a capacity that the authors of this workshop believe to be born from personal values and problem-solving styles identification.

With waves of change rolling in every day, now is the time to implement renewed forms of leadership education. Teaching values in a leadership course via transformative learning styles of education provides a starting point for preparing undergraduate students to address the complex issues of the future. To teach problem solving for complex adaptive problems, this leadership course included components on personal values and KAI problem-solving styles. In addition to teaching students about themselves, these components intended to teach students how to better work with others who approach problems differently because of their values and problem-solving styles.

The context of this study was a semester-long, interdisciplinary undergraduate leadership course focused on understanding leadership for solving global complex problems. There were 39 students enrolled in the course, representing a variety of majors and freshman to senior levels. The course was designed to integrate elements of academic adversity, intersectionality, and the opportunity to create a transformative learning experience. This leadership course introducedand maintained the connection between personal values, problem-solving styles, and leadership in the context of solving global issues. In this course, a group project was assigned to challenge students to apply systems thinking and create agency with other problem solvers in a sprint-like solution proposal. The innovative final group project facilitated the discovery of essential components of complex problem solving, which includes a level of self-awareness and interpersonal awareness.

The authors of this educational workshop seek to share how we formed this innovative final group project assignment, which utilized the course's components on personal values identification and problem-solving styles to form and reform groups. We also provide our comments on the assignment results and recommendations for replication of a similar group assignment process.

Review of Related Literature

Four threads of literature helped guide the formation of this course's group project assignment. The interwoven nature of transformative learning, leadership education, values-based leadership, and problem-solving styles as described by Kirton (1976) created a balanced understanding of

how to create an innovative group project assignment for an interdisciplinary, global issues leadership course.

Transformative Learning Theory

Laying a foundation for this group project's goals is the transformative learning theory (Mezirow, 1991; Cranton, 1994, 1996). "Transformative learning is the process of effecting change in a frame of reference" (Mezirow, 1997). Frames of reference are idiosyncratic; they are the lenses through which a person sees and understands the world. In the domain of leadership education, positive transformation of individuals, ideas, capacities, and organizations is the goal. The components of transformative learning have been operationalized into three characteristics: adversity, intersectionality, and opportunity. Transformative learning, according to Mezirow, consists of the following 10 phases:

- A disorienting dilemma;
- A self-examination with feelings of guilt or shame;
- A critical assessment of epistemic, sociocultural, or psychic assumptions;
- Recognition that one's discontent and the process of transformation are shared and that others have negotiated a similar change;
- Exploration of options for new roles, relationships, and actions;
- Planning a course of action;
- Acquisition of knowledge and skills for implementing one's plan;
- Provision trying of new roles;
- Building of competence and self-confidence in new roles and relationships;
- A reintegration into one's life on the basis of conditions dictated by one's perspective.

Leadership Education

Andenoro, Sowcik, and Balser (2017) define leadership education as the "individual and collective expansion and deepening of knowledge, attitudes, behaviors, and competencies for effective leadership practice." Traditional leadership education and development initiatives have plateaued in their results. The qualities that leaders need are "intuitive, dynamic, collaborative, and grounded in the here-and-now emotional intelligence" and their development should be experiential and systemic (Rowland, 2016). Kellerman (2018) critiques the current perception of leadership as being casual and careless; if our society desires to see better leaders, then our society must create avenues for better leadership education.

Values-Based Leadership

Values-based leadership brings constructive change. Specifically, a values-based leader helps followers "realize the most important ends that they hold dear but cannot obtain themselves" (O'Toole, 2008). In a world bombarded with significant leadership failures, values-based

leadership calls leaders, follower, and cultures back to ethical standards, transparent operations, and trusting relationships (Copeland, 2014). However, “values-based leadership is ‘unnatural’” (O’Toole, 1996, p. 14) because it critiques the instinctive style of pushing and forcing others and, instead, it appeals to the deeper human need of trust. The need exists for leadership education to unite with values as a pedagogical practice for complex problem solving.

Problem-Solving Styles

All people solve problems and utilize creativity to do so (Kirton, 1976). However, people vary in how they approach problems according to their problem-solving style. According to Kirton’s (1976) Adaption-Innovation (KAI) theory, problem-solving styles exist on a spectrum, ranging from highly adaptive to highly innovative. An adaptive problem solving style indicates a preference for defined structure, clarified details, and agreed upon consensus to solve problems. In contrast, an innovative problem solving style indicates a preference for less defined structure, clarified details, or agreed upon consensus to solve problems. Problem-solving style is measured using the KAI inventory (1976), which includes 32 items that, when scored, provide a sum number on a numerical spectrum. The spectrum ranges from 45 (highly adaptive) to 145 (highly innovative). Scores between 45 and 95 indicate adaptive styles, and scores between 96 and 145 indicate innovative styles. The smaller the KAI score, the more the person prefers defined structure, clarified details, and agreed upon consensus to solve problems. The larger the KAI score, the more the person prefers less defined structure and does not require clarified details or agreed upon consensus to solve problems.

When a gap (more than 20 points) exists between the KAI scores of individuals working together to solve a problem, communication and collaboration problems may occur (Kirton, 2003). If someone who has a KAI score within the score gap joins their efforts, that person can serve as a “bridger” to assist with communication between the two gap scores. “Bridgers” are important to utilizing the full range of cognitive diversity that may exist in a team. This theoretical framework allowed the instructors to leverage cognitive diversity to help develop a culture of leadership.

Lesson Plan Description

In week two of this leadership course, students were led through a two-day (three hours total) values clarification workshop that incorporated a guided facilitation of what values are, their significance, and how to identify them. In this workshop, students were challenged their understanding of self and their values in individual and collaborative ways. In these activities, students identified the global system -- food, environmental, economic, social, health -- in which they would most prefer to solve or address associated problems. Their preferred system served as another way to assess their values and provided another point of comparison during the next phase of the course. Throughout the rest of the course, the values clarification experience was

referenced in lectures and reflection prompts. This provided a window into any changes over time in learners' perceptions of values in leadership or frames of reference.

Identifying Systems and Values

As the first step towards the final group project, students were tasked with choosing a particular global system (food, economic, environment, social, or health) to focus on addressing after a brief introduction to each system. The instructors facilitated discussion about systems thinking, helping students understand that each of the systems affect one another and all systems should be considered in the solution design in order to develop a comprehensive solution to a complex issue. Students ranked each system based on importance and their interests. Additionally, students listed their personal values in a reflection exercise designed to help them understand their connection or interest with each system. Independently of the groups, students participated in a values clarification activity to help them understand why others perceived some systems as more meaningful. Students participated in group discussions based on common values and system interest while brainstorming potential resolutions, and defending the importance of their system in solving complex problems.

Assignment to Groups Using Problem-Solving Styles, Systems, and Values

In week three of the leadership course, students completed the KAI inventory to determine their KAI scores and styles. Students completed the KAI inventory while working within their self-selected systems groups. In addition to receiving their KAI results, students learned about the differences between KAI problem-solving styles. The KAI inventory provides students with a score on an adaption-innovation spectrum. Students heard from a guest speaker to learn about the KAI theory and to understand the implications of different problem-solving styles. After this lecture, students wrote reflection posts that synthesized their thoughts on the KAI theory and its relevance to their course and personal lives.

Initial student groups were then formed based on their top-ranking system of interest and similarities in KAI style, as seen in KAI scores within a range of no more than 20 points. Reynolds and Lewis (2017) depicted cognitive diversity as the difference in perspective or information processing style, specifically in regards to how individuals understand and work with complexity. The instructors purposefully reduced cognitive diversity in the initial groups by putting individuals with proximal KAI scores and the same preference for systems together in order to create intellectual silos. Historically, such like-minded groups mesh, yet tend towards less innovative ideas. Creating groups like this allowed students to become comfortable and, at points, grow complacent in their problem-solving.

Group Reassignment: A.K.A. "WASABI"

After weeks of participating in self-selected groups based on systems interest, students were reassigned to new groups in week eight of the course; this reassignment was based on their individual results from Kirton's (1976) Adaption-Innovation Inventory (KAI). Teams were designed to ensure that at least 20 KAI points existed between two individuals on each team. Kirton (2003) said cognitive gaps exist where individuals are more than 20 points apart on the KAI spectrum; the cognitive diversity that cognitive gaps provide can be a team advantage. These new group assignments also ensured team representation of all of the system preferences as well as a 20 point range of KAI scores. The instructors jokingly called this part of the overall course "wasabi week", given that the reassignment to new groups may not be well received by some students. These new groups were intended to simulate a real-world scenario where individuals may represent various system preferences and diverse values. In this way, the instructors hoped to challenge students to develop solutions to complex issues by incorporating all five systems and others' values. Students were not told how the new groups were formed; however, some students figured out that their new groups included individuals from the other system preferences and a mix of KAI problem solving styles. After revealing the final groups, students learned their group's responsibilities and assignments regarding the final project of the course.

This set the students up to experience the role of cognitive diversity in their teams. The re-assignment of teams broke learners out of the silos. While uncomfortable, this disorienting dilemma drew students into deeper levels of critical thinking and emotional intelligence. Innovation tends to lie at intersections, and the cognitive diversity leveraged differences in KAI and preferences to create those nexus.

Group Project Design

The final assignment of the course was a group project with a variety of components created using the Buck Institute for Education's Gold Standard Project-Based Learning model (2015). The project aimed to facilitate the discovery of a complex problem or issue and sustain a constant level of inquiry as students worked together to learn more about the issue and develop a potential solution. At the core of the experience was exposure to a diverse range of topics and content, delivered through lectures and presentations from subject matter experts. This exposure throughout the semester allowed learners to explore and develop an interest in learning more about a system, issue or solution. In addition to developing their own perspective, students synthesized the group's perspective and integrated all five systems in their proposed solution. The project included twelve components that facilitated team development, issue understanding, solution design, reflection, and solution presentation. After the final groups were assigned based on problem solving styles, the final project was introduced, and students were given an outline of each of the assignment's components. Students were encouraged to put a member of the team in charge of each individual component. Components of the project, based on the Gold Standard

Project-Based Learning Model, included various research elements, design thinking components, and opportunities for personal endorsement.

Discussion of Outcomes

Values Identification Exercise

There were 22 students who completed both the first and second rounds of values and systems prioritization. To rank students' priorities, the instructors used constant-comparative analysis to understand the results of the two rounds, measuring changes in the number of values, types of values, and order of system preferences. Using the Leadership Identity Development model (Komives, Longerbeam, Owen, Mainella, & Osteen, 2006) as a framework for analysis, the values data suggest an increase in empathy and growth for the students due to their demonstrated progression along the stages of the model. The systems preference data suggested that the course helped clarify interests and passions.

Upon completion of the values and systems prioritization exercise, students were assigned into groups based on their self-selection of values and systems. This first round of grouping resulted in 16 teams, each consisting of two to four individuals with similar preferences and problem solving style. They were instructed to work together to brainstorm a solution for an issue in their preferred system. At week 8, students were re-assigned groups that were more cognitively diverse, that is, individuals did not share similarities in preferences or problem solving style. This resulted in the formation of nine teams with each group having a range of at least 20 points on the KAI spectrum.

KAI Results: Student Scores and Perceptions

There were 38 students who completed the KAI inventory. KAI scores ranged from 62 to 145 and had an average of 97.26. Of the 38 students, 19 students received adaptive KAI scores, and 19 students received innovative KAI scores. Using a constant-comparative analysis method and open coding (Merriam, 2009), the reflection posts were analyzed by the instructors. Six major themes were identified in the reflection posts:

"The KAI is relevant." Students echoed the relevance they saw with the KAI theory. Several students indicated that the KAI would be applicable in different contexts, including their future careers. Students also saw the relevance of the KAI to the course's objectives.

"The KAI offers an advantage." Students identified several different ways in which the KAI offers an advantage, including facilitating cohesiveness on teams, enhancing efficiency, and providing predictive power to identify potential team problems. Students went as far as saying they intend to use the KAI to give them an advantage in future teams.

"Students are now more self-aware." Students shared their new self-awareness by discussing their learned strengths and skills based on their KAI styles. Students reported that learning their KAI style was "freeing", "humbling", and "reaffirming."

"Students recognize other's strengths and weaknesses." In addition to learning about themselves, students also shared their new understanding of others. Students recognize that the KAI is more about the relativity and diversity of groups than it is about themselves. Students reported that they already recognized others' styles in their course groups and in their peers.

"Students have mixed perspectives on the KAI's validity." Students' reflections on the KAI varied in their view of the validity of the KAI. Some students reported being skeptical of personality tests in general, whereas other students were unsure if learning about the KAI will change their behavior. Still, some students shared their confidence in the reliability and validity of the KAI based on past studies and their own experiences.

"Students recognize misconceptions regarding adaptive styles." Students recognized that adaptive styles are just as creative and important to problem solving as innovative styles, even as their own prior thoughts on adaptive styles were that they are not as creative as innovative styles.

Final Project Results

With reassignment into new groups based on their KAI scores and styles, students reacted with mixed emotions. They were given a timeline of dates by when to finish the various parts of the project. However, these dates were only suggestions as a means to encourage learners to develop their personal time management and teamwork skills. Their final deliverable was in a symposium setting with faculty, staff, and students where the groups presented their solutions. The issues range from deforestation, clean water, carbon reduction, genetically modified foods, education, and policy. Each group presented a proposal and poster, highlighting the group's research and brainstorming efforts.

Course evaluations and activity reflections indicated that students were more challenged in KAI-based groups to reach consensus, but students valued the experience of working with other perspectives in a collaborative environment. Students noted that the adversity of this course contributed to their critical and creative thinking as well as their ability to communicate effectively.

Conclusions & Implications for Replication

Values Clarification Conclusions

At the base of courageous leadership are high capacities for emotional intelligence (EI) and critical thinking (CT) (Stedman & Andenoro, 2007, 2015; Goleman, 1995). Empathy and adaptability, as values and as tools, underpin the development of both EI and CT. The values clarification component of this course assignment indicated trends in learners' values as they evolved during the course. The values clarification component of this assignment also suggests a connection exists between a transformative learning environment and values. Through interdisciplinary, globally minded coursework, leadership education can increase learner's capacities for necessary competencies like critical thinking and emotional intelligence.

For practitioners seeking to implement a similar activity, challenging learners throughout the entirety of the course brought about greater self-awareness in the students. They were forced to always circle back to their values and how they informed their problem solving. Here are a few ideas/activities to help keep learners thinking about their values: incorporating reflection prompts on values at different points in the semester, a beginning-of-class question to ask a neighbor pertaining to one's values, and role-playing case studies that focus on their values as drivers for decision making. Also for practitioners, the environment of the classroom serves a vital role in the impact of this tool. Thus, a psychologically safe classroom culture should be collaboratively created by instructors and students. Values are deeply personal and in the correct space can be transformative to student learning.

Future studies should focus on fleshing out the extent to which values influence a learner's development of necessary leadership competencies along with how to further enhance the role of transformative learning in leadership education classrooms.

KAI Conclusions

The use of the KAI inventory in a leadership course provided evidence that students became more equipped to address complex adaptive problems. Students recognized the relevance of the KAI theory to the purposes of the course. Students also shared their new self- and other-awareness as benefits of taking the KAI inventory. Students testified to gaining a clearer understanding of how to courageously utilize cognitive diversity in their teams.

This assignment also revealed that college students today might not be susceptive to personality instruments without evidence of the validity and applicability of the instrument. Future replications using the KAI inventory and theory in a leadership course should consider how to emphasize the inventory's validity as well as the theory's relativity to teams, even if not all members have completed the inventory.

To replicate this aspect of the course, practitioners should be in contact with a certified KAI consultant who can provide access to KAI codes and materials. An author of this workshop is certified in the KAI and provided the KAI lecture to the students in this course in addition to assisting the main instructors with re-assigning students to new groups for the final project.

Final Project Conclusions

While learning about systems thinking, becoming more aware of personal problem-solving styles, and engaging with global issues, students experienced a challenging project and developed their capacity as a complex problem solver. Project-based learning can effectively facilitate this capacity building while also creating a sense of student agency. Reassigning teams based on different attributes proved to be effective in demonstrating the challenges of complex problem solving with others. To develop more accountability within groups, it is recommended that teams identify a team leader and formalize which members are in charge of various project components. It is also recommended that work on the final project begin early in the course to allow adequate time for reflection regarding the entire experience at the end of the course.

References

Andenoro, A. C., Allen, S. J., Haber-Curran, P., Jenkins, D. M., Sowcik, M., Dugan, J. P., & Osteen, L. (2013). National Leadership Education research agenda 2013-2018: Providing strategic direction for the field of leadership education. Retrieved from Association of Leadership Educators website: http://leadershipeducators.org/ Research Agenda

Andenoro, A. C., Baker, M., Stedman, N. L. P., & Weeks, P. P. (2016). Research priority 7: Addressing complex problems. American Association for Agricultural Education national research agenda, 2020, 57-68.

Andenoro, A. C., Sowcik, M. J., & Balser, T. C. (2017). Addressing Complex Problems: Using Authentic Audiences and Challenges to Develop Adaptive Leadership and Socially Responsible Agency in Leadership Learners. *Journal of Leadership Education*, *16*(4).

Carvan, M. T. (2015). Leadership Education for the Volatile, Uncertain, Complex, and Ambiguous Now: A Challenge to the Field. *Journal of Leadership Education*, *14*(4).

Clegorne, N. A., & Mastrogiovanni, J. M. M. (2015). Designing alternatives: Design thinking as a mediating learning strategy to bridge science and the humanities for leadership learning. *Journal of Leadership Education*, *14*(4), 46-54.

Copeland, M. K. (2014). The emerging significance of values based leadership: A literature review. *International journal of leadership studies*, *8*(2), 105.

Cranton, P. (1994). *Understanding and Promoting Transformative Learning: A Guide for Educators of Adults. Jossey-Bass Higher and Adult Education Series*. Jossey-Bass, 350 Sansome Street, San Francisco, CA 94104-1310.

Cranton, P. (1996). *Professional Development as Transformative Learning. New Perspectives for Teachers of Adults. The Jossey-Bass Higher and Adult Education Series*. Jossey-Bass Publishers, Inc., 350 Sansome Street, San Francisco, CA 94104.

Emmott, S. (2013). *Ten billion*. Vintage.

Goleman, D. (1995). Emotional Intelligence. *NY: Bantam Books*.

Kellerman, B. (2018). *Professionalizing Leadership*. Oxford University Press.

Kirton, M. (1976). Adaptors and innovators: A description and measure. Journal of applied psychology, 61(5), 622-629.

Kirton, M. J. (2003). Adaption and innovation in the context of diversity and change Routledge.
Larmer, J., Mergendoller, J. R., & Boss, S. (2015). Gold standard PBL: Essential project design elements. *Buck Institute for Education.*

Komives, S. R., Owen, J. E., Longerbeam, S. D., Mainella, F. C., & Osteen, L. (2005). Developing a leadership identity: A grounded theory. Journal of College Student Development, 46(6), 593-611.

Merriam, S. B. (2009). Qualitative research: A guide to design and implementation. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

Mezirow, J. (1991). *Transformative dimensions of adult learning*. Jossey-Bass, 350 Sansome Street, San Francisco, CA 94104-1310.

Mezirow, J. (1997). Transformative learning: Theory to practice. *New directions for adult and continuing education*, *1997*(74), 5-12.

O'Toole, J. (1996). *Leading change: The argument for values-based leadership*. Ballantine Books.

O'Toole, J. (2008). Notes toward a definition of values-based leadership. *The Journal of Values-based leadership*, *1*(1), p. 1-10.

Petrie, N. (2014). Vertical leadership development–part 1 developing leaders for a complex world. *Center for Creative Leadership*.

Reynolds, A., & Lewis, D. (2017). Teams solve problems faster when they’re more cognitively diverse. *Harvard Business Review*, *30*.

Rowland, D. (2016). Why leadership development isn’t developing leaders. *Harvard Business Review.* Retrieved from: https://hbr. org/2016/10/why-leadership-development-isnt-developing-leaders# comment-section

Stedman, N. L., & Andenoro, A. C. (2007). Identification of relationships between emotional intelligence skill and critical thinking disposition in undergraduate leadership students. *Journal of Leadership Education*, *6*(1), 190-208.

Stedman, N. L., & Andenoro, A. C. (2015). Emotionally engaged leadership: Shifting paradigms and creating adaptive solutions for 2050. *Leadership*, *2050*, 145-156.

ROUNDTABLE DISCUSSIONS

1. **Check Out My Podcast: The Application and Implementation of Podcasting as Pedagogy**
   Blaise Lanoha, Graduate Teaching Assistant, University of Nebraska-Lincoln Jason Headrick, Graduate Teaching Assistant, University of Nebraska-Lincoln
   L.J. McElravy, Assistant Professor, University of Nebraska-Lincoln

2. **Servant Leadership: Bridging Theory and Practice**
   Carol Z. Rownd, Ph.D., Assistant Professor of Leadership Studies, Our Lady of the Lake University
   Wenonah B. Ecung, Ph.D., Assistant Professor of Leadership Studies, Our Lady of the Lake Univeristy
   Esther S. Gergen, Ph.D., Associate Professor of Leadership Studies, Our Lady of the Lake University
   Mark T. Green, Ph.D., Professor of Leadership Studies, Our Lady of the Lake University

3. **Building a Culture of Leadership: Why Real Leadership is Inclusive, and How Educators and Executives Can Teach It**
   Yael Hellman, Educational Development Administrator, Los Angeles County Sheriff's Department

4. **Using Critical Reflection in the Classroom for Leadership Education and Development**
   Sequetta Sweet, Assistant Professor of Organizational Leadership, Stockton University

5. **Women Faculty in Leadership: Building a Culture of Support**
   Haley Rosson, Assistant Professor, Agriculture and Extension Education, West Virginia University
   Lauren Lewis Cline, Doctoral Student, Agricultural Education, Communications, & Leadership, Oklahoma State University
   Penny Pennington Weeks, Professor, Agricultural Education, Communications, & Leadership, Oklahoma State University

6. **Shifting the culture of the "F" Word: Followership in Leadership Education**
   Carolynn Komanski, Director of Youth Compliance Services, University of Florida
   Jack Causseaux, Associate Director of Student Activities & Involvement, University of Florida

7. **Grasping the Difference: How We Teach the 'Four I's' of Transformational Leadership**
   Ellie Anderson, GTA, University of Nebraska-Lincoln Agricultural, Leadership, Education and Communication Department
   L.J. McElravy, Assistant Professor, University of Nebraska-Lincoln Agricultural, Leadership, Education and Communication Department

Check Out My Podcast: The Application and Implementation of Podcasting as Pedagogy

Blaise Lanoha, Jason Headrick, & L.J. McElravy, *University of Nebraska-Lincoln*

Abstract

The evolution of technology in the classroom has never been more prevalent in leadership education as it is today. Technology-based pedagogy allows educators to interact with learners in relevant and memorable ways. Podcasting is an innovative approach to leadership education with a variety of educational applications. The use of podcasting as an instructional methodology provides opportunities for leadership educators to enhance learner engagement, foster classroom collaboration, supplement course content and facilitate the review of the pertinent subject matter. The creation of a podcast is economically feasible and can be completed with relative ease on any smartphone device (Android or iOS). This roundtable discussion seeks to address the application of podcasting for leadership educators interested in commissioning podcasts as a prospective pedagogy for leadership audiences.

Introduction

The purpose of this roundtable presentation is to explore podcasting as a teaching methodology through an interactive discussion focused on the application and its implementation in leadership education. A podcast is defined as any digital media file, or series of files, distributed over the Internet for playback on media players and personal computers (Lonn & Teasley, 2009). The term podcast is derived from combining the words personal on-demand audio broadcast (Gibbs, Bracey, & Gay, 2009). Podcasting is utilized as an emerging technology in higher education, as podcasting offers educators the ability to recreate multimedia-enhanced lessons and distribute them to a wide audience (Johnson, Smith, Willis, Levine, & Hayward, 2011).

The goal of this roundtable is to allow participants an avenue for exploring and informing their understanding of podcasting as a pedagogical practice. The dialogue will center on rigorous discussion focused on the best practices for podcast assignments, the practical implementation of creating podcasts for courses, and a clearer understanding of how podcast pedagogy can be used in leadership education will be provided through an example shared from a graduate level leadership course on Power & Influence where students created their own podcast.

Background

Students who are currently entering the world of higher education have a different set of expectations than did students in the past (Baird & Fisher, 2006). They thrive on multitasking and expect that the technology devices that they use in their everyday lives be a part of their educational process (Baird & Fisher, 2006; Dede, 2005). As a consequence of these expectations,

French (2006) stated that podcasts can assist in giving students wireless access to information where and when they desire to attain it.

Podcasts open new ways for global communication and development of intercultural awareness; findings showed that effective use of task-based instruction created a dynamic climate for interactive collaboration and afforded unique opportunities for both American and Spanish students to explore the target language and culture (Lee, 2009). Podcasting has significant potential as an innovative tool for learners in higher education (Evans, 2008). While podcasting is not a new technology, it is an innovative educational method of broadcasting digital audio content to mobile devices (Copley, 2007; Hargis, Schofield & Wilson, 2008; Walsh, 2015).

As leadership educators, our approaches and methods of teaching leadership should be multidisciplinary (Guthrie & Jenkins, 2018, p. 6). The application of new technologies into methodology can be liberating to instructors and students, and have a transformational effect on teaching approaches (Garrison, 2011). Hargis, Schofield, and Wilson (2008) discussed the promise that podcasting holds for educators as a tool for promoting conceptual learning; a podcast allows learners to listen to others share their ideas, which helps to capture their attention and sustain attention sufficiently to enable the transfer of concepts into their long-term memory. Podcasting popularity has risen in the areas of education and training as more educators accept, learn, and take advantage of the benefits of podcasting (Fietze, 2009; Betrus, 2012). Bryans-Bongey et. al. (2006), found that the large majority of students used podcasts to increase their understanding of the material covered in specific lectures (p. 362).

A consideration of storytelling is relevant with the notion of podcasting. Polkinghorne (1988) understood that a story is a narrative. Podcasts can be viewed as shared stories. A story is defined as an oral or written communicative act where particular events occur over time, thus any story has a chronological dimension (Soderberg, 2003). Leadership storytelling is viewed as a narrative process, where particular leadership intention is actualized in storytelling (Auvinen et. al., 2013). Podcasts are a practical tool for disseminating personal narratives over inquiries of significant life events and applicable research questions.

In terms of creating your own podcasts, the process can be relatively easy to generate, as anyone with a webcam, video camera, or a smartphone with a microphone can create a podcast (Dagys & Hedtke, 2006). Examining coursework currently in practice, a lesson plan will be shared that outlines a meta-cognitive experience for thinking about and participating in smart, nuanced, and informed conversations regarding the power, influence, and politics within organizations and communities (McElravy, 2019).

Students today are digital natives and often carry a multitude of communication devices (Haugen, 2007). They demand instant gratification and often are auditory learners (Haugen,

2007). A major advantage of podcasting as a pedagogy is that listening is instinctual. Linguistic psychologists found that unlike reading and writing, children do not learn how to understand the spoken word because listening is a hard-wired skill (Hew, 2009). According to Hew (2009), the spoken word can provide clarity and meaning to a learner's cognition and increases motivation by conveying directly a sense of the person who is creating the words. Additionally, existing research studies examined the purpose behind using podcasts for an instruction method and found their effectiveness for being able to increase the accessibility to learning, to enhance the flexibility of learning, and to enhance the learning experience of the student (Frydenberg, 2006; Nathan & Chan, 2007).

Challenges exist for podcasting and its usage as an instructional method. Mount and Chambers (2008) warn that consideration should be given to podcast assignments when it is evident that students have access to the technology and hardware needed to utilize their benefits. Aliotta, Bates, Brunton and Stevens (2008) suggested that podcasts should be targeted to the relevant course material, structured in a logical and engaging way and possibly incorporate visuals to concretize the concepts being discussed (p. 42).

Means for Discussion/Interaction OR Primary Objectives of Presentation

The facilitators will spend two minutes defining podcasts and providing a context of its usage in higher education, including advantages and potential challenges. The remaining 15 minutes will be spent on group discussion centered on applications, strategies, and best practices related to the incorporation of podcast and podcast assignments in leadership education.

Research questions: How do leadership educators currently use podcasting in their instruction? What are possibly intentions behind using a podcast for instructional purposes? Are podcasts considered more of a supplemental strategy or can they stand on their own as the primary method? Does podcasting contribute to a universal design approach to teaching?

Foreseeable Implications

Mitchell (2012) purposes that a challenge for educators exists to integrate technology in a manner that engages critical thinking, stimulates intellectual growth and encourages reflection in students. As educators, we encourage our students to expand their knowledge and engage leadership through a global, theoretical, and practical lens. Podcasting can offer access to speakers and concepts from across the world. While the technology may be tricky for some students, the introduction of podcasting pedagogy and methodology can add an innovative tool for leadership educators.

References

Aliotta, M., Bates, S., Brunton, K., & Stevens, A. (2008). Podcasts and lectures. *Podcasting for learning in universities*, 33-42.

Auvinen, T. P., Lämsä, A. M., Sintonen, T., & Takala, T. (2013). Leadership manipulation and ethics in storytelling. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *116*(2), 415-431. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-012-1454-8

Betrus, A. (2012). Historical evolution of instructional technology in teacher education programs: A ten-year update. *TechTrends*, *56*(5), 42-45. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11528-012-0597-x

Bryans-Bongey, S., Cizadlo, G., & Kalnbach, L. (2006). Explorations in course-casting: Podcasts in higher education. *Campus-wide information systems*, *23*(5), 350-367. https://doi.org/10.1108/10650740610714107

Copley, J. (2007). Audio and video podcasts of lectures for campus-based students: production and evaluation of student use. *Innovations in education and teaching international*, *44*(4), 387-399. https://doi.org/10.1080/14703290701602805

Dagys, A. J., & Hedtke, J. V. (2006). *Podcasting now!: Audio your way*. Thomson Course Technology.

Dede, C. (2005). Planning for neomillennial learning styles. *Educause Quarterly*, *28*(1), 7-12.

Evans, C. (2008). The effectiveness of m-learning in the form of podcast revision lectures in higher education. *Computers & Education*, *50*(2), 491-498. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.compedu.2007.09.016

Fietze, S. (2009). Podcast in higher education: Students usage behaviour. *Same places, different spaces. Proceedings ascilite Auckland 2009*, 314-318.

Fisher, M., & Baird, D. E. (2006). Making mLearning work: Utilizing mobile technology for active exploration, collaboration, assessment, and reflection in higher education. *Journal of Educational Technology Systems*, *35*(1), 3-30. https://doi.org/10.2190/4t10-rx04-113n-8858

French, D. P. (2006). iPods: Informative or invasive?. *Journal of College Science Teaching*, *36*(1), 58-59.

Frydenberg, M. (2006). Principles and pedagogy: The two P's of podcasting in the information technology classroom. In *Proceedings of ISECON* (Vol. 23).

Garrison, D. R. (2011). *E-learning in the 21st century: A framework for research and practice*. Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203838761

Gibbs, M. G., Bracey, G., & Gay, P. (2009). Podcasts: An Additional Content Delivery Method for College Students. *International Journal of Technology in Teaching & Learning*, *5*(1).

Guthrie, K. L., & Jenkins, D. M. (2018). *The role of leadership educators: Transforming learning*. IAP.

Hargis, J., Schofield, K., & Wilson, D. (2008). Fishing for Learning with a Podcast Net. *Journal of Educational Technology*, *4*(4), 33-38.

Haugen, J. (2007). Public podcasts: a superintendent reaches the digital natives. *School Administrator*, *64*(5), 16.

Hew, K. F. (2009). Use of audio podcast in K-12 and higher education: A review of research topics and methodologies. *Educational Technology Research and Development*, *57*(3), 333-357. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11423-008-9108-3

Johnson, L., Smith, R., Willis, H., Levine, A., & Haywood, K. (2011). The Horizon Report 2011. *The New Media Consortium.* Austin, Texas.

Lee, L. (2009). Promoting intercultural exchanges with blogs and podcasting: A study of Spanish–American telecollaboration. Computer Assisted Language Learning, 22(5), 425-443.

Lonn, S., & Teasley, S. D. (2009). Podcasting in higher education: What are the implications for teaching and learning?. *The Internet and Higher Education*, *12*(2), 88-92. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.iheduc.2009.06.002

Mitchell, T. A. (2012). Measuring faculty satisfaction and motivation to use podcasts: A pilot study.

Mount, N., & Chambers, C. (2008). Podcasts and practicals. *Podcasting for learning in universities*, 43-56.

Nathan, P., & Chan, A. (2007). Engaging undergraduates with podcasting in a business subject. *Proceedings of the Ascilite Singapore 2007*, 747-751.

Polkinghorne, D. E. (1988). *Narrative knowing and the human sciences*. Suny Press. https://doi.org/10.5860/choice.26-0378

Soderberg, A. M. (2003). Sensegiving and sensemaking in an integration processes. *Narratives we organize by*, *11*, 3-35.

University of Nebraska-Lincoln. Department of Agricultural Leadership, Education, and Education. (2019). *ALEC 888: Leadership, power & influence*. Lincoln, NE: L.J. McElravy.

Walsh, T. N. (2015). *Student learning experience in the design and development research of mini-lecture podcast: Instrumental case study* (Order No. 10172752). Available from ProQuest Dissertations & Theses A&I. (1828127837). Retrieved from http://libproxy.unl.edu/login?url=https://search-proquest-com.libproxy.unl.edu/docview/1828127837?accountid=8116

Servant Leadership: Bridging Theory and Practice

Carol Z. Rownd, Esther S. Gergen, Wenonah B. Ecung, Mark T. Green
Department of Leadership Studies, Our Lady of the Lake University

Abstract

The desire and interest to develop leaders is evidenced by the numerous theories, research, and books available. How best to develop leaders and build cultures of leadership remains a topic of our collective attention. Recognizing that whether in the classroom or organizational setting, professional leadership experts need to be equipped with the most effective tools that yield the greatest results, this roundtable will focus not only on the empirical benefits of servant leadership but practical means of creating supportive environments for developing servant leaders. Though other leadership approaches also offer valuable constructs, inherent to servant leadership is an emphasis on such foundational principles as community, commitment to the growth of others, stewardship, humility, and accountability—all important criteria for building cultures of leadership.

Introduction

At some point in the career of most professionals, they have been in the presence of leaders who self-identify as individuals who practice servant leadership. This simple professed statement is often a core belief of the individual yet never quite explained or described in terms of what practicing as a servant leader looks like for them. For many, initial and subsequent writings by Robert Greenleaf in 2002 and 2003 informed their thoughts and they commenced using phrases such as serving your followers or putting followers first. However, further exploration of what or how exactly leaders operationalized service to followers is an image left for the listener to create. Relying on empirical data and foundational principles of servant leadership, this roundtable furthered the understanding and practice of servant leadership by discussing what should be emphasized in teaching servant leadership, what techniques facilitate higher order thinking and application within learners, and what behaviors and practices can be implemented to foster and support the creation of servant leader cultures.

Background

Up until the mid-2000s, servant leadership was a popular philosophy but generally lacked a testable set of constructs. A step toward a more concrete definition occurred in 1998 with Spears's 10 aspects of servant leadership, however, an empirically valid and widely used instrument to test those 10 aspects did not exist. In the 2000s, several researchers built on those aspects and others' writings to develop models and instruments to measure servant leadership.

Green (2015) as well as Eva, Robin, Sendjaya, van Dierendonck, and Liden (2019) have pointed to redundancy in the measurement scales designed to measure servant leadership. Green (2015) analyzed dimensions of servant leadership provided by Spears (1998); Barbuto and Wheeler (2006); Liden, Wayne, Zhao, and Henderson (2008); Sendjaya, Sarros, and Santora (2008); and van Dierendonck and Nuijten (2011). Green (2015) summarized constructs that are somewhat

overlapping from other popular theories of leadership as well as those that seem to be unique to the concept of servant leadership.

Table 1 provides elements found in popular models of servant leadership that seem to have construct redundancy with the full range model of leadership and authentic leadership.

Table 1

Elements of Servant Leadership Found in Other Popular Leadership Theories

Intellectual Stimulation (Full Range Model of Leadership)
Conceptual Skills (Liden et al., 2008)
Conceptualization (Spears, 1998)
Courage (to Think Differently) (van Dierendonck & Nuijten, 2011)
Foresight (Spears, 1998)
Persuasion (Spears, 1998)
Persuasive Mapping (Barbuto & Wheeler, 2006)
Wisdom (Barbuto & Wheeler, 2006)
Individual Consideration (Full Range Model of Leadership)
Empathy (Spears, 1998)
Helping People Grow (Spears, 1998)
Helping Subordinates Grow and Succeed (Liden et al., 2008)
Interpersonal Acceptance (van Dierendonck & Nuijten, 2011)
Listening (Spears, 1998)
Idealized Influence – Ethics (Full Range Model of Leadership)
Behaving Ethically (Liden et al., 2008)
Responsible Morality (Sendjaya et al., 2008)
Authenticity (Authentic Leadership)
Authentic Self (Sendjaya et al., 2008)
Authenticity (van Dierendonck & Nuijten, 2011)
Awareness (Spears, 1998)

Note. The information in this table is from Green (2015, p. 284).

Table 2, however, provides elements found in popular models of servant leadership that seem to have a degree of construct uniqueness compared to models of leadership such as the full range model of leadership, task- and relationship-oriented behaviors based on Ohio State's original finding, or leader-member exchange theory.

Table 2

Elements of Servant Leadership Somewhat Unique from Other Popular Leadership Theories

Spirituality
Altruistic Calling (Barbuto & Wheeler, 2006)
Covenantal Relationship (Sendjaya et al., 2008)

	Transcendental Spirituality (Sendjaya et al., 2008)
Altruism	
	Putting Subordinates First (Liden et al., 2008)
	Voluntary Subordination (Sendjaya et al., 2008)
	Humility (van Dierendonck & Nuijten, 2011)
	Standing Back (van Dierendonck & Nuijten, 2011)
Healing	
	Emotional Healing (Barbuto & Wheeler, 2006)
	Emotional Healing (Liden et al., 2008)
	Healing (Spears, 1998)
Empowerment	
	Empowering (Liden et al., 2008)
	Empowerment (van Dierendonck & Nuijten, 2011)
Stewardship	
	Accountability (van Dierendonck & Nuijten, 2011)
	Organizational Stewardship (Barbuto & Wheeler, 2006)
	Stewardship (Spears, 1998; van Dierendonck & Nuijten, 2011)
Community	
	Creating Value for the Community (Liden et al., 2008)
	Community Building (Spears, 1998)

Note. The information in this table is from Green (2015, p. 285).

Although there are questions of construct redundancy, Hoch, Bommer, Dulebohn, and Wu's (2016) meta-analysis provided some evidence of the degree to which servant leadership is related to several follower and workplace outcomes (see Table 3). Based on their systematic review of servant leadership, Eva et al. (2019), found empirical support for the benefits of servant leadership at the individual, team, and organizational level for a variety of desired outcomes. Eva et al. also noted that the emphasis servant leaders place on followers creates a culture of caring that can transcend to the customers and ultimately the shareholders as well as the community at large. These results support a rationale that servant leadership should likely be taught by professional leadership educators in universities as well as in leadership consultancy programs and institutionally based human resource training programs.

Table 3

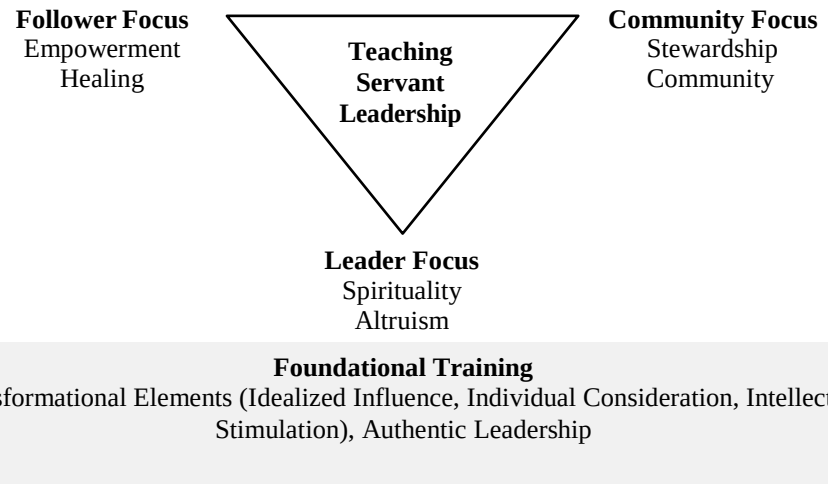
Meta-Analysis Results for Servant Leadership

Variable	k	N	Rho
Trust in Manager	7	1,886	0.71
Job Satisfaction	11	2,671	0.66
Leader-Member Exchange	4	938	0.65
Organizational Commitment	11	2,424	0.55

Engagement	4	959	0.52
Transformational Leadership	5	774	0.52
Organizational Citizenship – Organization	4	765	0.44
Affective Commitment Relational Perceptions	5	1,436	0.41
Overall Organizational Citizenship	6	2,404	0.4
Organizational Citizenship – Individuals	5	1,674	0.35
Job Performance	8	2,077	0.23

Note. Data are from Hoch et al. (2016, p. 14). *k* – the number of effect sizes, *N* – total sample size, *Rho* = estimated true-score correlation.

What to Teach



When developing a training program for servant leadership, one way to envision a training agenda is to begin with foundational leadership concepts: idealized influence, individual consideration, intellectual stimulation, and authentic leadership. While these constructs are generally a part of servant leadership, they are not unique to servant leadership. Multiple course programs are commercially available (i.e., at Mindgarden.com).

Once leadership trainees seem to understand aspects of both transformational and authentic leadership, three unique areas could be taught—each with a different focus.

Follower Focus—Empowerment and Healing. Servant leadership contains a concept of helping followers to heal. This is a much stronger aspect of leadership than more traditional concepts of being considerate of followers' needs. Healing requires assisting followers to work through feelings of mistreatment that occurred under previous leaders. Coincident to healing is helping followers learn to feel empowered. Often, followers who need healing are more cautious in work environments. Efforts to avoid continued mistreatment often prevent followers from actively using any empowerment they are given. In servant leadership training, leaders should be taught basic listening and empowerment techniques to facilitate helping followers heal.

Community Focus—Stewardship and Community. The aspects of developing community and being a steward of resources are two aspects that are generally unique to servant leadership. Popular theories with an empirical base of research tend to focus on individual follower performance. Servant leadership emphasizes developing a sense of community. This aspect of servant leadership training may need to include constructs of organizational culture, stages of team growth and development, and group conflict management skills. Stewardship training may require some traditional "management" training such as the future value of money and budgets, project management, and cost-benefit analyses.

Leader Focus—Spirituality and Altruism. Altruism or "putting follower needs first" is likely one of the most widely used summative statements of what servant leadership entails. Beyond this simple moniker, however, there are different theories of what actually entails altruism. Working with leaders on developing altruistic skills may need to be integrated with the community focus concepts. Since "follower needs" will vary from individual to individual, learning to juxtapose altruism for many followers with the concurrent requirement to develop a strong community is a training challenge. The idea of leader spirituality is somewhat unique in servant leadership. Theories such as transformational, authentic, and leader-member exchange do not contain an aspect of leader spirituality.

Spirituality training may need to differentiate between personal and workplace spirituality. Organizations vary a great deal on the degree to which policies allow workers to display or discuss any form of spirituality that is attached to a formal religion. Additionally, sometimes leader spirituality can be interpreted by some followers as a lack of action. Followers who tend to be task oriented may view a leader who contemplates larger spiritual implications of decision making as someone who is slow or unable to make a decision. Training leaders on how to engage their individual spirituality across a wide array of different followers is quite different than spiritual development training focused solely on individual spiritual growth.

Conclusion

As the understanding and appreciation for servant leadership's contribution to the field of leadership continues to be evaluated and researched, evidence already points to its value to followers, organizations, and the community at large. Emphasizing unique attributes of servant leadership, roundtable participants desirous of creating a servant leader culture, were encouraged to foster psychologically safe environments where followers are allowed space to heal and be empowered. Participants were challenged to consider the implications of being a steward to not only the resources entrusted to them but to the followers, stakeholders, and communities. Additionally, participants considered ways to incorporate altruism and spirituality into their spheres of influence and communities. Ultimately, however, the discussion emphasized that creating servant leader cultures requires leaders and educators who not only think of others first but are committed to role modeling servant leadership behaviors and practices.

References

Banks, G. C., Gooty, J., Ross, R. L., Williams, C. E., & Harrington, N. T. (2018). Construct redundancy in leader behaviors: A review and agenda for the future. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *29*(1), 236–251. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2017.12.005

Barbuto, J. E., Jr., & Wheeler, D. W. (2006). Scale development and construct clarification of servant leadership. *Group & Organization Management*, *31*(3), 300–326. https://doi.org/10.1177/1059601106287091

Eva, N., Robin, M., Sendjaya, S., van Dierendonck, D., & Liden, R. C. (2019). Servant leadership: A systematic review and call for future research. *Leadership Quarterly, 30*(2019), 111–132. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2018.07.004

Green, M. (2015). *Graduate leadership* (3rd ed., Vol. 2). North Charleston, SC: Leadership Press.

Greenleaf, R. (2002). *Servant leadership: A journey into the nature of legitimate power & greatness*. New Jersey, NJ: Paulis Press.

Greenleaf, R. (2003). *The servant leader within: A transformative path*. New Jersey, NJ: Paulis Press.

Hoch, J. E., Bommer, W. H., Dulebohn, J. H., & Wu, D. (2016). Do ethical, authentic, and servant leadership explain variance above and beyond transformational leadership? A meta-analysis. *Journal of Management*, *20*(10), 1–29. http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0149206316665461

Liden, R. C., Wayne, S., Zhao. H., & Henderson, D. (2008). Servant leadership: Development of a multidimensional measure and multi-level assessment. *Leadership Quarterly*, *19*(2), 161–177. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2008.01.006

Sendjaya, S., Sarros, J., & Santora, J. (2008). Defining and measuring servant leadership behavior in organizations. *Journal of Management Studies*, *45*(2), 402–424. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-6486.2007.00761.x

Spears, L.C. (Ed.). (1998). *Insights on leadership: Service, stewardship, spirit and servant-leadership.* New York, NY: John Wiley & Sons.

van Dierendonck, D., & Nuijten, I. (2011). The Servant Leadership Survey: Development and validation of a multidimensional measure. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, *26*(3), 249-267. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10869-010-9194-1

Building a Culture of Leadership:
Why Real Leadership is Inclusive, and How Educators and Executives Can Teach It

Yael Hellman

Abstract

Relational leadership education research finds that effective leaders consistently seek inclusivity, using self-knowledge to connect with others honestly. By strengthening their own reflective and connective powers, leaders of organizations in turn model and activate an effective, inclusive leadership paradigm. Their self-aware, sensitive communication guides workplace teams to encounter, and embrace, the diversity of diversities brought by globalization and changing local demographics. Experiential exercises provide teams practice understanding and valuing differences of culture, privilege, gender, sexuality, age, physical ability, and psychological dynamics, thus forging unity without uniformity for maximal collaboration. Longitudinal studies (Hellman, 2014) pinpoint how—and quantify how well—academic, service and business executives deploying this relation-based art of inclusion can build the culture of leadership our era requires and invites.

Few doubt that this country—and much of the world—is witnessing a challenge to the ideal of leadership as a contract between an elected head and all constituents, supporters or not. In its stead, an exclusivist managerial mindset at best preaches to its choir and at worst pursues partisan hegemony over compromise. This contraction of its meaning and mission flourishes in reaction to global migration and domestic demographics, which open not just nations but academic, service, and business organizations to the marginalized.

Without entering political parameters, leadership educators can balance this winner-take-all stance with the findings of relational leadership. These hold that effective leadership starts with knowledge of the self and aims towards connection with others—especially as cultural, social, generational, ethnic, gender and differently-abled minorities enter the majority cohort. More than ever, educators must guide current and future executives (who will train those they lead) to construct a cohesive, collaborative culture of leadership. To help, this paper undertakes two objectives: First, readers will learn about relational leadership education techniques and, second, readers will learn how to assess and advance the impact of inclusivity-informed leadership education.

Background

The enterprise of advancing relational leadership education links to, and links together, central leadership and adult pedagogy concerns. It begins by exploring how diversity has tested accepted concepts of leadership, institutional loyalty, and cohort identity. Next, it draws on adult pedagogy, group dynamics and communication theories to offer specific techniques by which educators and executives can respond to demographic changes by

building an inclusive culture of leadership. Finally, it suggests appropriate instruments to evaluate the success of such relational leadership education in different venues.

Relatively new minorities, including women managers (Bajic, 2017; O'Neil, Hopkins, & Bilimoria, 2008), immigrants, the non-heteronormative, late-retiring and millennial personnel (Gallup, 2017), the historically-underprivileged, the differently-abled, and globally-located workers—all these strain traditional notions of leadership, work-life balance, and cohort identity. Thus, maintaining an organization's uniqueness while expanding its universality has become a primary leadership task (El-Attrash, 2017).

The best instructors and directors practice educated inclusivity themselves, as well as guide those they lead to do the same. They do so not just to protect marginalized individuals, but because they know that deepening team connectivity benefits the whole enterprise by making it a collaborative cohort in which it feels safe to float innovative ideas (Goffee & Jones, 2013; Nielson, 2018). To help leaders and their units include diverse colleagues, the leadership education community draws on adult learning, group dynamics, and communication theories. Both classic and revisionist adult development theoreticians, from Erikson and Kohlberg to Goleman, Gilligan, Levinson, Vaillant, and Neugarten, specify stages of cognitive, emotional, and ethical maturation. More to the point, each finds the supportive group as crucial to individuals' passage through those stages. Safe, healthy cohorts, then, help adults deploy their life experiences, interests, and skills—and communicate them (Manning, 2007).

Closely related communication theory has evolved from almost-mechanical linear models of Shannon and Weaver, Lasswell, and Osgood-Schramm to the complex interactional ones of Barnlund and others, which incorporate current sociology and media studies. Fostering team-building communication—the tool and hallmark of a culture of leadership—despite cultural, social, and personal distinctions is neither easy nor instant. Leadership instructors must accustom learners to employ their differences in order to co-create a shared meaning. Only sensitive, informed communication generates the team-talk inviting cooperation and harnessing all members' wisdom and talents. In sum, adult learning, group dynamics, and communication theories explicitly link leaders' and team members' lifelong maturation with their ability to talk as a true cohort—a built culture of leadership.

Integrating insights from these fields, experiential techniques (activities withdebriefings) promote knowledge of self and of others. To start, games highlighting culturally-varying speech manners help participants navigate the perils of multicultural communication: intentional versus unintentional messaging; verbal versus nonverbal expression; appropriate versus inappropriate self-disclosure. Further exercises sensitize participants to errors or offenses risked by unreflective speech, and ways to avoid or repair them. Such experiential tools teach, deeply, that effective communication is ethical communication—that clarity requires care (Bajic, 2017; French-Bravo & Crow, 2015).

These initial cross-cultural exercises prepare units to consider more controversial variances: gender, sexual orientation and expression, societal privilege, and age. Later,

role-playing gives on-the-ground practice appreciating and accommodating differently-abled personnel. Whether orchestrating an international potluck, designing a universal calendar, comprehending diverse sexual identities, recognizing privilege and prejudice, or temporarily bearing a physical or mental challenge, these experiences let units sample and convey what workspace minorities may feel. Educators and executives can use them to found a leadership culture that unifies without demanding uniformity.

Educators and leaders certainly need to measure how well such connectivity-based instruction forms a culture of leadership (Miller, Mandzuk, Frankel, McDonald, & Bellow, 2013). While some decry an absence of evidence for its success (Wood, Berger, & Roberts, 2017), many reliable instruments have long gauged the impact of inclusivity-based leadership training **(**Mihelič, Lipcnik, & Tekavcic, 2010). For example, the author composed longitudinal surveys of public-sector relational leadership students and their supervisors (Hellman, 2018). In addition, academic and private-sector organizations constantly judge current trainings against earlier ones and those of competitors. They survey advancement aspirants, employees they direct, and their supervisors. Businesses regularly gather client or customer reactions to sales presentations and complaint resolutions, and track actual sales. Formal or not, these tools reliably quantify the effect of ethically-informed leadership training (Mbonu & Worlu, 2018).

Understanding, Teaching, and Assessing Relational Leadership Education

To fulfill both objectives this paper noted, educators must offer techniques first to teach, and then to assess and extend, the efficacy of experiential, connectivity-based leadership instruction. Once these relational leadership exercises have been experienced and discussed, instructors can help participants analyze the instruments weighing their results. Participants—soon to be trainers in their own right-—may then apply what they have learned by teaching others. They will then be able to open a reflective forum on how they can best promote a welcoming of diversity, and build an inclusive culture of leadership.

Implications

The current piece achieves the aim of this Conference by detailing how educators and executives in any sector can draw on relational leadership to establish an inclusive culture of leadership. It presented methods to construct, quantify, and advance connection-based instruction that creates not an elitist managerial class but a holistic culture of effective, ethical leaders—one that incorporates the diversity of diversities brought by expanding global and local demographics.

The paper first distinguished leadership embracing a cohort from one wielding partisan power. It then specified the mechanics of ethically-informed leadership instruction, and clarified how that shapes a collaborative, connection-oriented leadership. Finally, it showed how educators and executives can measure, and magnify, the ability of relation-based leadership formation to build an effective and encompassing culture of leadership.

References

Bajic, E. (2017). Why communicating vision is the single most important thing you can do. *Forbes.* Retrieved from https://www.forbes.com/sites/elenabajic/2017/12/27/why-communicating-vision-is-the-single-most-important-thing-you-can-do/#4cce6ed1e648

El-Attrash, F. (2017). How to embrace diversity with empathy. Retrieved from https://www.govloop.com/embrace-diversity-empathy/

French-Bravo, M., & Crow, G., (2015). Shared governance: The role of buy-in in bringing about change. *The Online Journal of Issues in Nursing, 20*(2). doi: 10.3912/OJIN.Vol20No02PPT02

Gallup. (2017). State of the American workplace. Retrieved from https://kcpreventioncoalition.org/wp-content/uploads/2016/04/Gallup-Report-on-Workforce.pdf

Gentile, M. C. (2011). *Giving Voice to Values: How to Speak Your Mind When You Know What's Right*. New Haven, CT: Yale University Press.

Goffee, R., & Jones, G. (2013). Creating the best workplace on Earth. *Harvard Business Review,1*(5):98-106, 150.

Hellman, Y. (2014). *Learning for Leadership: A Facilitative Approach for Training Leaders*. Alexandria, VA: ASTD Press.

Manning, G. (2007). Self-directed learning: A key component of adult learning theory. *Journal of the Washington Institute of China Studies, 2*(2), 104. Retrieved from https://www.bpastudies.org/bpastudies/article/view/38

Mbonu, C. N., & Worlu, R. E. K. (2018). Ethical leadership in organisations: A synthesis of literature. *Journal of Humanities and Social Science, 23*(9). 38-43. doi: 10.9790/0837-2301093843

Mihelič, K. K., Lipcnik, B., &Tekavcic, M. (2010). Ethical leadership. *International Journal of Management & Information Systems, 14*(5), 31-41. https://doi.org/10.19030/ijmis.v14i5.11

Miller, L., Mandzuk, C., Frankel, D., McDonald, A., & Bellow, B. (2013). ASTD 2013 state of the industry. American Society for Training and Development Technical Report. Alexandria, VA.

Nielson, D. E. (2018). *The 9 dimensions of conscious success: It's all about YOU!* Sound Wisdom: Shippensburg, PA.

O'Neil, D. A., Hopkins, M. M., & Bilimoria, D. (2008). Women's careers at the start of the 21st century: Patterns and paradoxes. *Journal of Business Ethics, 80*(4), 727-743. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-007-9465-6

Wood, R., Berger, J., & Roberts, J. (2017). Corporate social responsibility, volunteerism, and social identity: A case study of Cotopaxil In D. Pompper (Ed.), *Corporate social responsibility, sustainability, and ethical public relations: The changing context of managing people* (pp. 123-142). Retrieved from https://www.emeraldinsight.com/doi/abs/10.1108/9781787145856

Using Critical Reflection in the Classroom for Leadership Education and Development

By Sequetta F. Sweet, Ed.D.
Assistant Professor of Organizational Leadership, Stockton University

Abstract

Leadership development involves the discussion of theories along with experiential practice inside and outside of the classroom. One approach to enhancing students' experiential leadership practice is the use of critical reflection, particularly using journaling and collaborative discussions in the classroom. The use of reflective practices in the classroom is a powerful augmentation to other classroom activities that are used throughout the semester. Further, collaborative reflection in small groups can change the culture of the classroom, allowing students to think critically, desire to express themselves freely and feel motivated to engage in deeper levels of learning. Reflective practices can initially be disruptive for both faculty and students; however, the benefits of these approaches far outweigh the challenges.

Introduction (including learner/participant objectives)

Critical reflection, reflective thinking and reflective inquiry are approaches that can be used in classrooms to assist students in developing as leaders and promote a culture of self-awareness and deep learning that may lead to leadership development and individual transformation. The purpose of this presentation and discussion roundtable is to share and explore creative methods of reflective thinking (individual) and reflective inquiry (group) that are currently being or could be used to enhance student learning, growth and development as leaders. Participants of the session will gain an understanding of innovative approaches and uses of reflective practices that can augment their current pedagogical practices to deepen student learning.

Background (including connection to leadership literature/theory)

There are many definitions of the concept of reflection. The body of work is vast and rapidly changing, taking on a variety of concepts and presented in numerous forms (Hoymp, 2004). Dewey (1933), in his seminal work on relating reflection to the educative process, suggested that reflection is a form of thinking that includes a functional, enduring and deliberate review or examination of any belief or set of knowledge pertaining to the underlying ideals that support it and any outcomes to which it leads. He considered reflection or thinking to be the objective of education. Reflection could include thinking about an experience that one underwent in the past (reflection-on-action), that one is currently undergoing (reflection-in-action), or that will happen in the future (reflection-for-action), according to Schon (1983). Mezirow (1998) extended these definitions by speaking in terms of critical reflection, rather than merely reflection, as questioning one's basic or conventional assumptions and thinking related to a specific experience. Mezirow distinguished critical reflection from reflection by implying that critical reflection included an assessment or examination of the object the reflection and not simply thinking about it. "The process of leadership is intrinsically connected to learning" (Roberts, 2008). Argyris (2004) suggests that the leader's ability to learn encompasses their capacity for

invoking double-loop learning which involves the ability to test and challenge deep-seated thinking and beliefs. Growth in leadership is related to one's ability to learn, and learning involves examining or challenging one's underlying beliefs. Thus, the connection of leadership to learning positions the use critical reflection practices as viable approaches for developing leaders.

Critical reflection involves examining one's experiences, and examining those experiences is critical to the development of leaders. Critical reflection, as defined by Mezirow (1998), can be used as an approach for integrating leadership theory and practice, enabling sense- or meaning-making and provoking self-awareness (Roberts, 2008). White and Guthrie (2016) refer to reflection as "meaning-making" or "processing" (p. 61) and suggest that it includes a variety of actions that lead to learning that results from experience. According to Illeris (2007), cognitive reflection is the primary method of building knowledge from one's tangible experience. Given Mezirow's (1998) definition, critical reflection is perpetual, meaning ongoing. This sets critical reflection as part of or an ongoing extension to the learning process rather than a single event or activity (White & Guthrie, 2016) and offers leadership development facilitators the strength of a tool that can be used to help learners deepen their self-aware and growth as leaders.

It is the leadership educator's role to provide opportunities for students to reflect critically in order to become more self-aware leaders. Huber (2002) proposes that the leadership educator is the facilitator of students' learning process by causing them to seek inwardly to understand their own values and outwardly to understand their connection to the world. In doing so, several reflective pedagogies may be applied, such as reflective journals, presentations, essays, online discussions, written responses to reading (White & Guthrie, 2016), poster presentations, double-entry journals, portfolios, worksheets and experiential case studies (White, 2012). Day et al. (2014) suggest the use of self-narratives or self-stories as ways to increase self-awareness. Class preparation reflections, metacognition (thinking about thinking), note reflection and observation reflection are methods of helping students move to deeper levels of learning (Stover &Seemiller, 2017). These forms of instruction should be used throughout the leadership course rather than tacked on at the end of the course as a final assignment (Roberts, 2008). Kim (1999) proposed a structured model called critical reflective inquiry used in clinical practice to help students enhance and expand their practice through self-reflection. Cardiff (2012) speaks of the use of critical reflective inquiry through the use of personal narratives or stories to help students learn. Smith (2001) proposed the use of the process action learning to help students develop the habit of reflective inquiry since reflection does not always come easy or is not always a natural ability for learners. Action learning is an "approach that enables leaders to develop capabilities while working to solve urgent organizational or social problems" (Volz-Peacock et al., 2016, p. 318). An ultimate goal of the facilitator might be to move the learner to have reflective competence, which involves one continually challenging and examining his or her underlying beliefs and assumptions to discover relevant gaps in knowledge (Rogers et al., 2013). Critical reflection can

be positioned as a simple journaling exercise or as a complex activity with more specific and defined goals, objectives and purposes in the learning process.

The mention of reflection often leads one to believe that it is only an individual activity. Importantly, it is possible for critical reflection to transpire outside of or within the context of group discourse. Because learning is always relational, it thrives on dialogue and listening as essential elements to its process (Jordi, 2011). Daudelin (1996) explored the notion of reflecting on one's own, within dyads and within groups. Though reflecting alone and in dyads seemed to lead to personal development and intrapersonal dynamics, reflecting in groups tended to facilitate interpersonal aspects of learning like the need recognizing multiple and diverse perspectives. Thus, critical reflection is not only relegated to being used in individual learning pedagogy. Critical reflection is useful in collaborative groups and group discussions in and out of the classroom.

Means for Discussion/Interaction OR Primary objective(s) of Presentation

The purpose of the presentation and discussion roundtable would be to explore and share creative methods of reflection, reflective thinking and reflective inquiry that are currently being or could be used to enhance student learning, growth and development as leaders. What approaches to self-reflection are being used as activities inside the classroom or as assignments outside of the classroom? How are these approaches being facilitated? What success is faculty noticing with these approaches? What challenges are faculty and students encountering with these approaches? How could these approaches be enhanced to invoke deep level learning and leadership development? Can these same methods be used in online instruction? The session will take on the following format: 1) Provide an overview of the self-reflection, reflective thinking and reflective inquiry in the context of leadership, along with the literature surrounding these concepts, 2) With Roundtable participants, discuss these concepts while discovering and examining approaches that can be used inside the classroom, outside the classroom and in online courses, and 3) Discover possible research strategies for the topic particular in the context of leadership education and development.

Foreseeable Implications of Session

In the volatile, uncertain, complex and ambiguous business world in which we operate, developing leaders and preparing students to think critically is crucial for higher education leadership programs. In addition to helping students understand leadership theory, faculty must find innovative approaches to instruction that will cause critical thinking and deep learning to help students develop and transform as leaders. The Presentation Roundtable discussion will help the facilitator and participants discover and share creative methods of reflective thinking and reflective inquiry that are currently being or could be used to enhance student learning, growth and development as leaders. The discussion will also be useful to inform the direction and design of new studies on unlearning and learning through the use of reflective thinking and reflective inquiry by seeking guidance from participants interested in these topics.

References

Argyris, C. (2004). Reasons and rationalizations: The limits to organizational knowledge. Oxford, England: Oxford University Press.

Cardiff, S. (2012). Critical and creative reflective inquiry: Surfacing narratives to enable learning and inform action. Educational Action Research, 20(4), 605-622.

Daudelin, M. W. (1996). Learning from experience through reflection. Organizational Dynamics, Autumn, 36-48.

Day, D. V., Fleenor, J. W., Atwater, L. E., Sturm, R. E., McKee, R. A. (2014). Advances in leader and leadership development: A review of 25 years of research and theory. The Leadership Quarterly, 25, 64-82.

Dewey, J. (1933). How we think: A restatement of the relationship of reflective thinking to the educative process. New York: D. C. Health and Company.

Hoyrup, S. (2004). Reflection as a core process in organisational learning. Journal of Workplace Learning, 16, 442-454.

Huber, N. (2002). Approaching leadership education in the new millennium. Journal of Leadership Education, 1(1), 25-34.

Illeris, K. (2007). How We Learn: Learning and Non-Learning in School and Beyond. London: Routledge.

Jordi, R. (2011). Reframing the concept of reflection: Consciousness, experiential learning, and reflective learning practices. Adult Education Quarterly, 61(2), 181-197.

Kim, H.S. (1999). Critical reflective inquiry for knowledge development in nursing practice. Journal of Advanced Nursing, 29, 1205-1212.

Mezirow, J. (1998). On critical reflection. Adult Education Quarterly, 48(3), 185-199.

Roberts, C. (2008). Developing future leaders: The roles of reflection in the classroom. Journal of Leadership Education, 7(1), 116-130.

Rogers, K. H., Luton, R., Biggs, H., Biggs, R. O., Blignaut, S., Choles, A. G, Palmer, C. G. Tangwe, P. (2013). Fostering complexity thinking in action research for change in social-ecological systems. Ecology and Society, 18(2).

Schon, D. A. (1983). *The reflective practitioner: How professionals think in action*. New York: Basic Books.

Smith, P. A. C., (2001). Action learning and reflective practice in project environments that are related to leadership development. Management Learning, 32(1), 31-48.

Stover, S., Seemiller, C. (2017). Moving students to deeper learning in leadership. Journal of Leadership Education, 16(4), 40-59.

White, J. V. (2012). Students' perception of the role of reflection in leadership learning. Journal of Leadership Education, 11(2), 140-157

White, J. V., Guthrie, K. L. (2016). Creating a meaningful learning environment: Reflection in leadership education. Journal of Leadership Education, 15(1), 60-75

Volz-Peacock, M., Carson, B., Marquardt, M. (2016). Action learning and leadership development. Advances in Human Development, 18(3), 318-333.

Women Faculty in Leadership: Building a Culture of Support

Abstract

It is a well-documented phenomenon that the percentage of women entering into faculty roles in the profession of higher education is not indicative of the percentage of women achieving full tenure status. What factors are contributing to this inequity gap? We propose that a portion of the equation may be attributable to positive mentoring opportunities. This roundtable discussion will serve as an opportunity for leadership educators to share personal experiences related to the challenges and opportunities associated with their roles as women faculty and discuss methods for integrating effective mentoring and support structures within the profession.

Introduction

As female faculty in leadership education, we dedicate our professional lives to advancing the next generation of leaders and strive to empower our students to push the boundaries of normalcy, yet we often neglect to give voice to ourselves (Sherman, Beaty, Crum, & Peters, 2010). While literature surrounding the topic of women in leadership is widespread, the literature base examining the phenomenon of female faculty in higher education, and more specifically leadership education, is significantly narrowed. The National Leadership Educators Research Agenda 2013-2018, Priority 5 cites the need to "more effectively center considerations of social identity in leadership research, education, and practice" (Andenoro et al., 2013, p. 24), paying particular consideration to individual differences, including gender identity. Drawing from the facilitators' academic discipline of agricultural leadership, the American Association for Agricultural Education (AAAE) research agenda, 2017-2020 Strategic Plan similarly cites the need to "build a more inclusive culture within the society" (p. 1).

The facilitators of this session believe that the lived experiences of female faculty in leadership education should be voiced in an effort to foster a positive culture of open communication and empowerment. The following learner/participant objectives will guide the roundtable discussion:

- Participants will receive a brief review of current literature pertaining to women faculty in leadership education.
- Participants will share lived experiences pertaining to roles of women faculty, highlighting instances of mentoring and support networks.

Background

According to the United States Department of Labor (2014), a traditional, or female-dominated job, is defined as an occupation in which women represent 75% or more of the total employment. Traditionally, females have been majority status as educators. In 2013, women comprised 81% of all elementary and middle school teachers, 57% of secondary school teachers, and 50% of post-secondary teachers (U.S. Department of Labor). In examining the prevalence of women in the professorial ranks, researchers have found that women faculty tend to be concentrated in the assistant and associate professor ranks and only comprise 26.5% of tenured faculty at research institutions (Bilen-Green, Froelich, & Jacobson, 2008). Representation is even lower for women faculty at land-grant institutions; 23.7% of female faculty are tenured and only 16.7% have

achieved the rank of full professor (Bilen-Green, Froelich, & Jacobson, 2008). The most recent Faculty Compensation Survey report from the American Association of University Professors (2018) reported that 93% of all reporting institutions for the 2017-2018 reporting year "pay men more than women at the same rank for at least one rank" (p. 10).

Within the facilitators' disciplines of agricultural education and leadership, a factor that has been attributed to women's late entrance into the field is a lack of strong female role models to advocate for advancement to higher educational levels (Enns & Martin, 2015; Seevers & Foster, 2003). Many women pursuing studies in a more male-dominated major are likely to face difficulties, owing to a lack of female teachers to serve as role models (Hall & Sandler, 1982). Foster and Seevers (2003) reported that while women in agricultural and extension education appear happy and committed to their role within the profession when properly encouraged, the presence of mentoring and/or support networks is too few. Baxter et al. (2011) echoed this sentiment by calling for the implementation of a mentoring system in order to help females overcome real or perceived barriers within the academic profession. Research has indicated that successful mentoring relationships consist of a combination of personality (e.g. compatibility and similar values) (Eastman & Williams, 1993); community and access (e.g. belongingness, access to mentors); and trust and communication (e.g. delegating responsibility, accurate feedback) (Jones, Kelsey, & Brown, 2014).

For many, the term feminism instills the notion that in order to believe in the philosophy of feminism, one must be a female and must enact forms of political struggle against men and male-dominated institutions (Bartky, 1998). More accurately, feminism in its truest sense is defined as "a social movement that seeks equality of opportunity for all people, regardless of gender" (Tarrant, 2009, p. 3) and focuses on the core thesis that biological sex doesn't determine our life goals, behaviors, preferences, or opportunities. Men are equally as capable of being feminists as women are and in the spirit of equality, the facilitators invite all participants to bridge the gender gap and forge the sometimes messy and imperfect topic of the feminist movement.

Means for Discussion/Interaction

To introduce the session, the facilitators will briefly review current literature related to the prevalence of women faculty within the discipline of leadership education. The facilitators will then share some of the key findings from their recent follow-up study, originally conducted by Seevers and Foster (2003), providing an updated profile of women faculty in postsecondary agricultural and extension education ([Author], [Author], & [Author], 2019).

Based on qualitative data collected for the study, four emergent themes described women faculty's perceptions of the unique challenges, opportunities, and mentoring experiences in agricultural and extension education: (a) contributors to a positive work environment, (b) contributors to a toxic work environment, (c) mentoring experiences in the profession, and (d) work-life integration. For the purposes of the roundtable presentation, the facilitators will center the discussion around the theme of "mentoring experiences within the profession."

After spending approximately five minutes introducing the session, the facilitators will use the remainder of the allotted timeframe to conduct a guided discussion to encourage participation

from attendees. It is the goal of the facilitators to foster an open and inclusive discussion environment in which participants will share their experiences, expertise, and ideas. The following questions will be used to guide the discussion:

- What experiences (positive or negative) have you had pertaining to female faculty members (or graduate students) and mentoring/support structures?
- What suggestions would you recommend for growing and facilitating positive mentoring and support networks?
- How can we as a profession stimulate and encourage females to enter into and remain in positions within higher education?

Foreseeable Implications

The roundtable discussion serves as an opportunity for leadership educators to share their lived experiences pertaining to female faculty within the discipline of leadership education, thereby effectively contributing to this year's conference theme, "Building a culture of leadership." Potential outcomes of participation in this session include:

- Identification of similar experiences among women faculty pertaining to salary and tenure.
- Identification of positive experiences pertaining to women faculty and mentoring and support networks.
- The creation of a mentoring network for female leadership educators.

References

Andenoro, A. C., Allen, S. J., Haber-Curran, P., Jenkins, D. M., Sowcik, M., Dugan, J. P., & Osteen, L. (2013). *National Leadership Education research agenda 2013-2018: Providing strategic direction for the field of leadership education*. Retrieved from https://www.leadershipeducators.org/resources/Documents/NLEResearchAgenda.3.pdf

American Association for Agricultural Education. (2017, May). *2017-2020 AAAE Strategic plan.* Retrieved from https://docs.google.com/document/d/1ti_06TdzevNVuEHP1T_KZMPK0QROVrm-C2GJvC4NYOU/edit

American Association of University Professors. (2018). The annual report of the economic status of the profession, 2017-18. Retrieved from https://www.aaup.org/sites/default/files/ARES_2017-18.pdf

Bartky, S. (1998). Foreword. In T. Digby (Ed.), *Men doing feminism* [E-reader version], xi-xiv. Retrieved from https://www.worldcat.org/title/men-doing-feminism/oclc/37281876

Bilen-Green, C., Froelich, K. A., & Jacobson, S. W. (2008). *The prevalence of women in academic leadership positions, and potential impact on prevalence of women in the professorial ranks*. Proceedings of 2008 Women in Engineering Proactive Network Annual Conference, St. Louis, Missouri. Retrieved from https://www.ndsu.edu/fileadmin/forward/documents/WEPAN2.pdf

[Author, Author, & Author]. (2019). Women faculty in postsecondary agricultural and extension education: A fifteen-year update. Paper presented at American Association for Agricultural Education Southern Region Conference, 24-38. Birmingham, AL. Retrieved from http://aaaeonline.org/resources/Documents/Southern%20Region/2019SouthernConference/PaperProceedingsAAAESouthernRegion2019.pdf

Seevers, B. & Foster, B. B. (2003). Women in agricultural and extension education: A minority report. *NACTA Journal, 47*(1), 32-37. Retrieved from https://www.nactateachers.org/attachments/article/516/Seevers_and_Foster_Mar03Journal.pdf

Sherman, W. H., Beaty, D. M., Crum, K. S., & Peters, A. (2010). Unwritten: Young women faculty in educational leadership. *Journal of Educational Administration, 48*(6), 741-754. doi: 10.1108/09578231011079593

Tarrant, S. (2009). *Men and feminism* [E-reader version]. Retrieved from https://ebookcentral.proquest.com/lib/wvu/reader.action?docID=680029

United States Department of Labor: Women's Bureau. (2013). *Leading occupations*. Retrieved from https://www.dol.gov/wb/stats/leadoccupations.htm

United States Department of Labor: Women's Bureau. (2014). *Non-traditional (male-dominated) occupations, 2014 annual averages*. Retrieved from https://www.dol.gov/wb/stats/Nontraditional%20Occupations.pdf

Shifting the culture of the "F" Word:
Followership in Leadership Education

Abstract

A follow up from a 2016 round table when participants explored why it truly important for leadership educators, researchers, and practitioners to "reverse the lens" (Sharmir, 2007) and begin to strategically focus on the follower. Recently, Northouse (2018) and Rosenbach (2018) provide resources for followership in Leadership Education. This roundtable discussion seeks to collaboratively and constructively reexamine the follower in leadership education by critically analyzing semantics, discover implications of behavior of leaders (and the relationship to followership), understand and value the vast roles of followers, and promote innovative means to address the resistance of followership. This dialogue will provide tangible insights for leadership educators and researchers to best answer the question, "How can we be leaders if we don't understand the follower?"

Introduction

Define the problem: Is it important for leadership educators to "reverse the lens" (Sharmir, 2007) to begin to strategically focus on the follower? Many leadership educators would agree that the role of the follower or implicit leadership is much more complex and multifaceted than much leadership research suggests (Uhl-Bien & Carsten, 2018; Crossman & Crossman, 2011; Carsten, Uhl-Bien, West, Patera, & McGregor, 2010). Despite the fact that there is no leadership without followers, many times these key players are left out of the leadership research equation (Uhl-Bien & Carsten, 2018).

If we believe followership should be integrated more effectively into today's leadership education, why is there still a lack of scholarly research and theoretical models? Komanski (n.d) reviews of literature and publications on followership documents a small growth from 2015 - 2018. So the question is now, how do leadership educators are using this literature?

Chaleff (2009) argues individuals take on more follower roles than leaders, followership should become more prevalent not only in our research but also further integrated into our teaching (Northouse, 2018; Rosenbach, 2018; Raffo, 2013).

Learner/participant objectives: Active engagement in this roundtable, participants will have successfully accomplished the following objectives:

1. Identify, evaluate, acknowledge personal responsibility in regards to the lack of followership among leadership education research
2. Discuss and assess the use of the term 'follower'
3. Critically analyze and find the teachable implications of the behavior of leadership (and passivity of followership)
4. Explore ways to enhance the understanding and value of the vast roles of followers
5. Promote innovative means to address resistance in leadership education
6. Establish partnerships to better explore followership in leadership research and education

Background

Not until the past decade have researchers focused on followership within leadership research and education (Uhl-Bien & Carsten, 2018; Northouse, 2018; Uhl-Bien, et al., 2014). Several types of followership approaches have ensued the provide us for a framework for integrating such perspectives in our classrooms. Follower-centric approaches stemmed as a response to leader-centric views to leadership (Uhl-Bein & Carsten, 2018; Uhl-Bien, et al., 2014). These approaches to leadership focused on the follower's perspectives and perceptions of leadership (Meindl, 1995). Although many follower-centric approaches take the follower into account, the leader still becomes the primary focus (Uhl-Bien & Pillai, 2007); followership is still, therefore, constructed by the leader (Carsten, et al., 2010).

Many leadership theories, such as shared leadership (Pearce & Conger, 2003) and self-management (or self-leadership), have placed privilege on the role of followers (Carsten, et al., 2010). Considering these theories, self-leadership views the role of leadership as a developer of the follower, while shared leadership promotes enhanced team productivity and less need for

external leadership (Carson, Tesluk, & Marrone, 2007). Although such theories bring followership into the equation, the ultimate focus still remains on the behavior of the leader, not the follower (Carsten, et al., 2010).

The more recent development of *followership*, on the other hand, addresses the "behaviors of individuals acting in relations to a leader(s)" (Carsten, et al., 2010, p. 545). Followership focuses on how followers themselves perceive their own behaviors and roles in their relationship with the leader (Uhl-Bien & Pillai, 2007). Because leadership has been seen as a dynamic system of leaders and followers interacting together in context (Uhl-Bien & Ospina, 2012), Uhl-Bien and colleagues (2018, 2014) defined followership through two lenes: as a rank or position, and as a social process. These lenes provide two theoretical frameworks for the study of followership within leadership education and research: a role-based approach and a constructionist approach. In a role-based approach, followers are the moderators of leadership influence, while in a constructionist approach, followers help 'construct' leaders and the leadership process (Uhl-Bien & Carsten, 2018; Uhl-Bien, et al., 2014). The debate about leaders and followers roles continues to evolve.

Means for Discussion/Interaction

Overview of the Session Plan:

0 – 5 minutes: Introductions (facilitators and participants)

5 – 10 minutes: Introduction to Followership within Leadership Education
- Current state of followership literature
- Significance of followership in leadership education
- Types of followership literature (*role-based approach versus constructivist approach*)

10 – 20 minutes: Facilitated Conversation
- Each topic will be followed by discussion questions (*addressing participant objectives*): (1) semantics of 'follower,' (2) behavior of the leader, (3) the role of the follower, and (4) resistance in leadership education
- Additional background information is provided for participants to present further context and insight into presented topics

20 – 25 minutes: Where is the culture of followership in leadership education going?
- Participants will be encouraged to exchange contact information for ongoing dialogue, initiate continuation of the dialogue, and/or provide ongoing outreach to enhance conversation on followership among leadership education and research

Discussion Questions:

1. Semantics of Followership
    a. *Do we need to reevaluate the term 'follower' in leadership education?*
    b. *"Rost (1993) says that we shouldn't use the term "followership" because followers engage in the "leadership" process, not the followership process. On the other hand, some say that the term "followership" best describes what followers do and how they differ from leaders… Do followers participate in*

leadership as Rost advocates or do they engage in followership?" (Raffo, 2013, p. 268).

Background: Many negative connotations have been associated with the word 'follower' (Rost, 2008), simply due to the historically role-based, leadership-centric view of leadership research (Hoption, et al., 2012). The term itself romanticizes leadership (Uhl-Bien & Pillai, 2007), creating images of passivity, powerlessness, and individuals who automatically attend to the leader and his/her wishes (Kelley, 2008). Several alternative terms have been suggested, including 'collaborators,' 'participant,' and 'member' (Uhl-Bien, et al., 2014, 2018).

2. Behavior of the Leader, Relationship of the Follower
    a. *Has anyone successfully addressed this paradox in the classroom?*
    b. *How do we instill the active, relational, and dynamic behavioral characteristics of the follower in our classroom?*
    c. *Several alternative terms have been suggested, including 'collaborators,' 'participant,' and 'member' (Uhl-Bien & Carsten, 2018, Uhl-Bien, et al., 2014); what are your thoughts on using these phrases as alternatives to 'follower?'*

Background: Many negative connotations have been associated with the word 'follower' (Rost, 2008), simply due to the historically role-based, leadership-centric view of leadership research (Hoption, et al., 2012). The term itself romanticizes leadership (Uhl-Bien & Pillai, 2007), creating images of passivity, powerlessness, and individuals who automatically attend to the leader and his/her wishes (Kelley, 2008). Despite traditional leadership literature demonstrating the follower as a passive recipient, recent research has suggested a more active influence over leaders and their behaviors (Oc & Bashshur, 2013). Especially in the United States, many times the act of following is considered an insult because there is such an aversion to the characteristics often attributed to 'followers' within the leadership process (Kellerman, 2008). However, many recent approaches have been taken that address the significance of followership as a key influence on the leaders' behaviors and the emergence of leadership (Shamir, 2007). From this perspective, the follower holds significant power (individual and group level) in the social context of the leader (Oc & Bashshur, 2013).

3. The Role of the Follower
    a. *Are role-based approaches to followership still applicable to leadership education and research, considering today's organizations shifting towards shared leadership?*
    b. *How can we demonstrate to our students the significance of the continuum of roles (passive and proactive followers) among followers?*

Background: Role-based approaches to followership studies the leadership process through the role of the follower in a hierarchical context (Uhl-Bien, et al., 2014). Such an approach allows one to better understand how followers work with leaders in order to either contribute or take away from leadership outcomes (Carsten, et al., 2010). Due to the status differential between followers and leaders, followers take a multitude of roles. While some followers may construct their role in a more traditional, 'subordinate' sense, (reduced responsibility-taking, conformity, and reluctance), others may construct a more dynamic and courageous role in their relationship

with the leader (or even as co-leader) (Carsten, et al., 2010). Carsten and colleagues (2010) suggest that there is a continuum between passive and proactive followers. Within this continuum, there are also individuals who perceive followership as an active role; however, these individuals will only express their opinion if they are given the opportunity to do so (Carsten, et al., 2010). Their place on the continuum also aligns with their organizational climate, including the amount of authoritarian style and hierarchical environment within their workplace (Carsten, et al., 2010).

4. Resistance
    a. *How do we encourage students to critically examine ethics within leader-follower relationships?*
    b. *How can we initiate conversation among our students of intelligent disobedience (Chaleff, 2015)?*

Background: In opposition of the more traditional view of followership as a passive, submissive role, several researchers (Tepper, et al., 2001; Tepper, et al., 2006; Carsten & Uhl-Bien, 2013) question the role, responsibility, and actions of the follower when met with abuse or unethical requests from his/her leader. Such follower behaviors could include passive-aggressive responses (Tepper, et al., 2001) or constructive resistance (Carsten & Uhl-Bien, 2013). Ultimately, research shows that followers with weaker co-production beliefs of leadership will more likely obey a leader's unethical requests, while followers with stronger co-production beliefs will more likely resist the leader (Carsten & Uhl-Bien, 2013).

Foreseeable Implications of Discussion

Similar to the ALE Conference theme of 'Building a Culture of Leadership,' the role, term, and outcomes of *followership* within leadership education have tensions and challenges. Although most leadership educators about the significance of followers within the leadership process, many cannot answer the question of *how?* How do we teach, study, and practice followership within the context of an ever-changing world? This roundtable discussion will not only allow participants to constructively discuss and reflect on the ramifications for our lack of incorporating followership into our research and teaching, but also provide collective, tangible solutions for how to do so most effectively.

Recommended next steps/Action

Followership research still lacks comprehensive coverage. Research is geared toward industry and management and is not inclusive of populations. The applications of designing this round table allow for further insights to be drawn, the enhancement of research collaboration, sharing of innovative pedagogy and andragogy, and the initiation of a conversation key to the enhancement of future leadership education.

> "I believe we have an obligation to help our students get past an elitist view of leadership that coincides with a conformist view of followership… As leadership educators, we can help our students re-conceptualize how they view followers and nudge them past the preconceived notion that followers are unimportant and inconsequential to organizational success" (Raffo, 2013, p. 269, 270).

References

Avolio, B. J., & Gardner, W. L. (2005). Authentic leadership development: Getting to the root of positive forms of leadership. *The Leadership Quarterly, 16*, 315-338.

Berger, P., & Luckmann, T. (1966). *The social construction of reality: A treatise in the sociology of knowledge.* Garden City, NY: Doubleday.

Carson, J. B., Tesluk, P. E., & Marrone, J. A. (2007). Shared leadership in teams: An investigation of antecedent conditions and performance. *Academy of Management Journal, 50*(5), 1217-1234.

Carsten, M.K., & Uhl-Bien, M. (2013). Ethical followership: An examination of followership beliefs and crimes of disobedience. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies, 20*(1), 45-57.

Carsten, M. K., Uhl-Bien, M., West, B. J., Patera, J. L., & McGregor, R. (2010). Exploring social constructions of followership: A qualitative study. *The Leadership Quarterly, 21*, 543-562. doi 10.1016/j.leaqua.2010.03.015.

Chaleff, I. (2009). *The courageous follower (3rd ed.).* San Francisco, CA: Berrett-Koehler.

Chaleff, I. (2015). *Intelligent disobedience.* San Francisco, CA: Berret-Koehler.

Crossman, B., & Crossman, J. (2011). Conceptualizing followership–a review of the literature. Leadership, 7(4), 481-497.

Ehrhart, M. G., & Klein, K. J. (2001). Predicting followers' preferences for charismatic leadership: The influence of follower values and personality. *The Leadership Quarterly, 12*(2), 153-179.

Graen, G. B., & Uhl-Bien, M. (1995). Relationship-based approach to leadership: Development of leader-member exchange (LMX) theory of leadership over 25 years: Applying a multi-domain perspective. *The Leadership Quarterly, 6*(2), 219-247.

Hannah, S. T., Walumbwa, F. O., & Fry, L. W. (2011). Leadership in the action teams: Team leader and members' authenticity, authenticity strength, and team outcomes. *Personal Psychology, 64,* 771-802.

Harris, J., Bruce, J., & Jones, D. (2011). You are what you read: Inside leadership texts. *Journal of Leadership Education, 10*(1), 23-40.

Hoption, C.B., Christie, A.M., & Barling, J. (2012). Submitting to the follower label: Followership, positive affect and extra-role behaviors. *Journal of Psychology, 220,* 221-230.

Kahn, W. A. (1990). Psychological conditions of personal engagement and disengagement at work. *Academy of Management Journal, 33,* 692-724.

Kellerman, B. (2008). *Followership: How followers are creating change and changing leaders.* Boston, MA: Harvard Business Press.

Kelley, R.E. (2008). Rethinking followership. In R. Riggio, I. Chaleff, & J. Lipman-Blumen (eds.), *The art of followership: How great followers create great leaders and organizations,* pp. 5-16. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Kupers, W. (2007). Perspectives on integrating leadership and followership. *International Journal of Leadership Studies, 2*(3), 194-221. ISSN 1554-3145

Leroy, H., Palanski, Y., & Simons, T. (2012). Authentic leadership and behavioral integrity as drivers of follower commitment and performance. *Journal of Business Ethics, 107,* 255-264.

Lord, R. G., & Brown, D. J. (2004). *Leadership processes and follower self-identity.* Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates Publishers.

Meindl, J.R. (1995). The romance of leadership as a follower-centric theory: A social constructionist approach. *The Leadership Quarterly, 6,* 329-341.

Northouse, P. G. (2018). *Leadership: Theory and practice*. Sage publications.

Oc, B., & Bashshur, M. R. (2013). Followership, leadership and social influence. *The Leadership Quarterly, 24*(6), 919-934. doi 10.1016/j.leaqua.2013.10.006.

Pearce, C.L., & Conger, J.A. (2003). *Shared leadership: Reframing the hows and whys of leadership.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Raffo, D.M. (2013). Teaching followership in leadership education. *Journal of Leadership Education, 12*(1), 262-272.

Rosenbach, W. E. (2018). *Contemporary issues in leadership*. Routledge.

Rost, J.C. (2008). Followership: An outmoded concept. In R. Riggio, I. Chaleff, & J. Liman-Bluemen (eds.), *The art of followership: How great followers create leaders and organizations,* pp. 53-64. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Schyns, B., & Felfe, J. (2006). The personality of followers and its effect on the perception of leadership: An overview, a study, and a research agenda. *Small Group Researcher, 37*(5), 522-539.

Sharmir, B. (2007). From passive recipients to active co-producers: Followers' roles in the leadership process. In B. Shamir, R. Pillai, M. C. Bligh, & M. Uhl-Bien, eds., *Follower-*

centered perspectives on leadership: A tribute to the memory of James R. Meindl. Greenwich, CT: Information Age Publishing.

Tepper, B.J., Duffy, M.K., & Shaw, J.D. (2001). Personality moderators of the relationship between abusive supervision and subordinates' resistance. *The Journal of Applied Psychology, 86*(5), 974-983.

Tepper, B.J., Uhl-Bien, M., Kohut, G.F., Rogleberg, S.G., Lockhart, D.E., & Ensley, M.D. (2006). Subordinates' resistance and managers' evaluations of subordinates' performance. *Journal of Management, 32*(2), 185-209.

Uhl-Bien, M., & Ospina, S. (2012). Paradigm interplay in relational leadership: A way forward. In M. Uhl-Bien & S. Ospina (eds.), *Advancing relational leadership research: A dialogue among perspecitves,* pp. 537-580. Charlotte, NC: Information Age Publishers.

Uhl-Bien, M., & Pillai, R. (2007). The romance of leadership and the social construction of followership. In B. Shamir, R. Pillai, M.C. Bligh, & M. Uhl-Bien, eds., *Follower-centered perspectives on leadership: A tribute to the memory of James R. Meindl.* Greenwich, CT: Information Age Publishing.

Uhl-Bien, M., Riggio, R.E., Lowe, K.B., & Carsten, M.K. (2014). Followership theory: A review and research agenda. *The Leadership Quarterly, 25,* 83-104.

Uhl-Bien, M., & Carsten, M. (2018). Reversing the Lens in Leadership: Positioning Followership in the Leadership Construct. In Leadership Now: Reflections on the Legacy of Boas Shamir (pp. 195-222). Emerald Publishing Limited.

van Gils, S., van Quaquebeke, N., & van Knippenberg, D. (2009). The X-factor: On the relevance of Implicit Leadership and followership theories for the Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) agreement. Report No. ERS-2009-055-ORG. Erasmus Research Institute of Management.

Weick, K. E. (1995). *Sensemaking in organizations.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Grasping the Difference: How We Teach the 'Four I's' of Transformational Leadership

By: Ellie Anderson & LJ McElravy

Abstract

Although significant evidence suggests the transformational leadership model (Bass, 1985) predicts a variety of organizational outcomes (see DeRue, Nahrgang, Wellman, & Humphrey, 2011; Judge & Piccolo, 2004 for meta-analytic reviews), several authors question the theoretical conceptualization of the model and validity of the measurement model (Bycio, Hackett, & Allen, 1995; van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013). In this session, participants will unpack how leadership educators discuss and teach the conceptualization of transformational leadership based on the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (Bass & Avolio, 1995) and its four sub-dimensions: idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration. Purposeful discussion will lead to creation of statements that demonstrate how educators differentiate the sub-dimensions. Statements will be compiled and shared for educator use when teaching or developing transformational leadership.

Introduction

Transformational leadership is known to bring meaningful and creative interactions between leaders and followers to produce change that is driven by a vision (Bass, 1985). Through idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration, transformational leadership increases the follower's level of maturity in addition to the well being of others in the organization (Bass, 1999). There has been concern however, of the distinctness of the dimensionality of transformational leadership for decades (Bycio et al., 1995). Van Knippenberg and Sitkin (2013) elaborate on measurement concerns and share how current perspectives fail to specify how each dimension has a distinct influence and there is a lack of clarity on how the dimensions are different. The purpose of this round table discussion is to explore how leadership educators teach transformational leadership given that the model has significant empirical evidence and yet has measurement and methodological concerns. First, purposeful questioning will guide participants through the conceptualizations of transformational leadership and the theoretical and measurement concerns. Second, participants will discuss their strategies for differentiating the sub-dimensions in their teaching. Third, participants will formulate statements that specifically demonstrate how they teach transformational leadership, identifying the language used to differentiate the sub-dimensions and the language used to discuss the limitations of the model. By the end of this round table discussion, participants will be able to articulate the multiple ways transformational leadership and its sub-dimensions are commonly taught. Additionally, a shared resource will be created and shared that will provide specific language to use in teaching transformational leadership.

Background

There is ample evidence surrounding transformational leadership that shows followers of transformational leaders are more productive, whether their performance is measured at an individual, team, unit, or firm level (Barrick, Thurgood, Smith & Courtright 2015; Bass, Avolio, Jung & Berson, 2003a, 2003b). Transformational leadership engages the full being of its followers enabling them to perform beyond expectations (Bass, 1985). The key influence of transformational leaders is that they "lift ordinary people to extraordinary heights" (Boal & Bryson, 1988). However, there are arguments that the four transformational leadership sub dimensions need to be distinguished and explained why they are classified as transformational leadership (Deinert et al., 2015; van Knippenberg 2013 & Sitkin 2013). The four sub-dimensions consist of Idealized Influence, Inspirational Motivation, Intellectual Stimulation, and Individualized Consideration. Idealized influence is defined by Avolio & Bass (2004) as "role modeling behavior, identification with the leader, and the internalization of the leader's vision, values, and missions through the charismatic leader's emotional impact." Leaders demonstrating idealized influence are perceived as having a strong sense of purpose and collective mission, instilling pride, respect, and trust (van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013). Inspirational motivation involves articulating the goals of an organization and communicating high expectations and the importance of those goals (Ng, 2016). This dimension involves motivating behaviors towards followers, which give followers' tasks meaning, creating optimism through these behaviors, and inspiring followers through symbolic actions (Avolio & Bass, 2004). Leaders use intellectual stimulation "to challenge their followers' thoughts and imagination, creativity, and recognition of their values, beliefs, and mindset" (Avolio et al., 2004). Intellectual stimulation behaviors encourage innovative thinking and breaking away from existing norms and routines (Ng, 2016). The final dimension is individualized consideration which is demonstrated when leaders pay individual attention to the developmental needs of their followers, while coaching and supporting them through opportunities for growth (Bass, 1999). This leader behavior "enables that all team members feel acknowledged and appreciated" (Kearney & Gebert, 2009).

Primary Objectives of Presentation

Round Table Discussion Learning Objectives	
Iteration Goal:	Individuals will be able to summarize transformational leadership construct and distinguish behaviors and language that promote Individualized Consideration transformational leader behaviors.

Round Table Discussion Question Prompt & Time Allocation	
1 iteration	Minutes 1-2 Provide group with handout of transformational leadership and describe how it will be operationalized in activity Minutes 3-5 • In small groups, have participants identify leaders in their lives that demonstrate the behaviors associated with the 'Four I's' of

	transformational leadership
	• What about these individuals makes you classify them as transformational leaders?
	
	Minutes 6-15
	
	Looking Specifically at **Individualized Consideration**
	
	(For the sake of time, diving deep into this dimension and if participants would like to go into the other three dimensions, staying for an additional rotation is where they may do so)
	
	• How does a leader successfully provide support of followers' individual needs?
	  o What does this look like?
	• Why are we drawn to these behaviors?
	• Imagine yourself in your own leadership role, how would you demonstrate individualized consideration to your followers?
	  o Write down two-three sentences you would use in conversation that demonstrate individualized consideration.
	• Report back to the group

Foreseeable Implications

Following the discussion session, participants will receive a compiled list of statements and phrases generated to create distinction between the four sub-dimensions of transformational leadership. Phrases created will be geared specifically toward each individual sub-dimension: Idealized Influence, Inspirational Motivation, Individualized Consideration, and Intellectual Stimulation. Each individual who participates will leave equipped with the tools to create a culture of transformational leadership in their own educational setting or organization. Personal leadership development will take place through implementation of these tools in order to build up the next set of transformational leaders.

References

Avolio, B. J., & Bass, B. M. (2004). MLQ — Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire. Menlo Park, CA: Mind Garden.

Avolio, B. J., Zhu, W., Koh, W., & Bhatia, P. (2004). Transformational leadership and organizational commitment: Mediating role of psychological empowerment and moderating role of structural distance. *Journal of Organizational Behavior: The International Journal of Industrial, Occupational and Organizational Psychology and Behavior*, *25*(8), 951-968.

Barrick, M. R., Thurgood, G. R., Smith, T. A., & Courtright, S. H. (2015). Collective organizational engagement: Linking motivational antecedents, strategic implementation, and firm performance. Academy of Management Journal, 58, 111–135.

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

Bass, B. M. (1999). Two decades of research and development in transformational leadership. *European journal of work and organizational psychology*, *8*(1), 9-32.

Bass, B.M., & Avolio, B.J. (1995). Manual for the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire: Rater form (5X short). Palo Alto, CA: Mind Garden.

Bass, B. M., Avolio, B. J., Jung, D. I., & Berson, Y. (2003a). Predicting unit performance by assessing transformational and transactional leadership. Journal of Applied Psychology, 88, 207–218.

Bass, B. M., Avolio, B. J., Jung, D. I., & Berson, Y. (2003b). Predicting unit performance by assessing transformational and transactional leadership. Journal of Applied Psychology, 88, 207–218.

Boal, K.B., & Bryson, J.M. (1988). Charismatic leadership: A phenomenological and structural approach. In J.G. Hunt, B.R. Baliga, H.P. Dachler, & C.A. Schriesheim (Eds,), *Emerging Leadership Vistas* (pp.5-28). Lexington, MA: Lexington Books.

Bycio, P., Hackett, R. D., & Allen, J. S. (1995). Further assessments of Bass's (1985) conceptualization of transactional and transformational leadership. *Journal of applied psychology*, *80*(4), 468.

Deinert, A., Homan, A. C., Boer, D., Voelpel, S. C., & Gutermann, D. (2015). Transformational leadership sub-dimensions and their link to leaders' personality and performance. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *26*(6), 1095-1120.

DeRue, D.S., Nahrgang, J.D., Wellman, N., & Humphrey, S.E. (2011). Trait and behavioral theories of leadership: An integration and meta-analytic test of their relative validity. *Personnel Psychology*, *64*, 7–52.

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

Kearney, E., & Gebert, D. (2009). Managing diversity and enhancing team outcomes: the promise of transformational leadership. *Journal of applied psychology*, *94*(1), 77.

Lowe, K.B., Kroeck, K.G., & Sivasubramaniam, N. (1996). Effectiveness correlates of transformational leadership and transactional leadership: A meta-analytic review of the MLQ literature. *Leadership Quarterly, 7*, 385–425.

Ng, T.W.H., Transformational leadership and performance outcomes: Analyses of multiple mediation pathways, The Leadership Quarterly (2016), http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2016.11.008

Van Knippenberg, D., & Sitkin, S. B. (2013). A critical assessment of charismatic transformational leadership research: Back to the drawing board?. *The Academy of Management Annals*, *7*(1), 1-60.