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Building Leaders: A National Examination of the Leadership Capacities Within Engineering Undergraduate Students

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Abstract

We tested how engineering students' leadership differ from non-engineering students using a national sample 90,444 of college students. Results show they are less involved in teamwork, self efficacy is unaffected, but their ability to work on a diverse-team were depressed. Implications and recommendations for leadership educators will be discussed.

Introduction

An increasing number of colleges of engineering are now striving to educate students on not only the technical skills necessary for professional success, but also the leadership and team skills required to effectively serve in the modern engineering industry. The mission statements of many engineering schools include commitments to educating future leaders within the profession (Graham, 2009; Sheppard, Macatangay, Colby, & Sullivan, 2008). A 2009 study detailed explicit leadership education programs that multiple engineering schools had established (Graham, Crawley, & Mendelsohn). They reported that most of these programs were young, having started in the last ten years and represented both explicit programs focused on leadership education and imbedded programs doing so within a broader curriculum. Further, they found a lack of "resources, expertise, and formal networks" in the field of engineering leadership education (Graham et al., 2009). There is a clear intention in engineering schools to develop future leaders in the field but a lack of published research on best practices or the effects that these programs have on their undergraduate students.

A National Framework of College Student Leadership Development

The Social Change Model (SCM), which we use as the framework for leadership within our study, espouses a structure of leadership effectiveness founded upon three domains of competence – an individual domain, in which leaders display self-awareness and self-discipline; a group domain, in which they collaborate gracefully with others and guide groups to achieving a common purpose; and a community domain, in which they display citizenship behaviors and are knowledgeable about the effects of their work on a larger community (H. S. Astin, 1996; Higher Education Research Institute, 1996). The SCM is the single most popular theoretical model of leadership espoused in higher education (Owen, 2012), and serves as the framework of leadership utilized within the Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership (MSL), an international research effort focused on understanding the mechanisms and process of student leadership development in higher education (Dugan & Komives, 2007).

As a gradual consensus has emerged in the use of post-industrial leadership frames, research detailing the benefits of such curriculum has closely followed. Recent studies have revealed that students engaged in structured leadership development opportunities outscore their peers on psychometric measures of leadership capacity (Cress, Astin, Zimmerman-Oster, & Burkhardt, 2001; Dugan & Komives, 2007; Zimmerman-Oster & Burkhardt, 1999). Strong benefits emerge in students enrolled in semester-long (or longer) courses (Dugan & Komives, 2010), yet gains are measurable even if their participation is only over a short-term (e.g. single day) time frame (Rosch & Caza, 2011). Moreover, programs designed to teach a more modernpost-industrial definition of leadership students often succeed in shifting student attitudes (Wielkiewicz, 2000). Emerging research has also begun to show the multiplicative effects of formal and informal mentoring (Campbell, Smith, Dugan, & Komives, 2012) and participation in student organizations (Wolf-Wendel, Ward, & Kinzie, 2009) on increasing the effects of co- curricular and curricular leadership programs.

Despite a wave of research on student leadership development in general, most efforts collapse student populations with regard to professional career goals or academic majors. Little has been done to examine the state of leadership development among an engineering-specific population. Given the demonstrated need for leadership and teamwork skills in contemporary engineering graduates, its lack of scholarly attention is curious.

In summary, the literature on what college students gain from campus-wide leadership programs is growing and contributing to how university-based programs can be more effective. On many campuses engineering schools are starting to teach leadership skills more intentionally. But the research on these efforts' effectiveness to increase leadership capacity in engineering graduates is sparse. While the body of research on general college student leadership development continues to grow, no research published to date has systemically examined how engineering students differ from their peers in their participation and learning within leadership- oriented programs and activities.

Theoretical Framework

Our research is based on Astin's (1991; 1993) Input-Environment-Output (I-E-O) model of student learning. Accordingly, students enter college with pre-existing characteristics, attitudes, and skills. While enrolled in higher education, they interact with the college environment – their peers and instructors, course material, and co-curricular programs, for example. Students' input characteristics combine with their experiences and result in certain educational outcomes. This framework was designed to measure the varying effects of educational programs and co-curricular experiences on a diverse body of students, controlling for their incoming characteristics. Outputs measured within this study include skills relevant for practicing post-industrial leadership behaviors, including critical thinking skills, the ability to take the perspective of others, as well as confidence and capacity to practice the style of leadership described within the SCM. These outputs measure many of the leadership skills identified in the literature as important for leading in the engineering industry (ABET: Engineering Accreditation Commission, 2012; Farr & Brazil, 2009; National Academy of Engineering, 2012). In the findings reported by Crumpton-Young, et al., from their survey of engineering professionals, many of the skills ranked as most useful in industry also closely align with the outputs measured within this study. See Figure 1 for a complete list of variables included within this study.

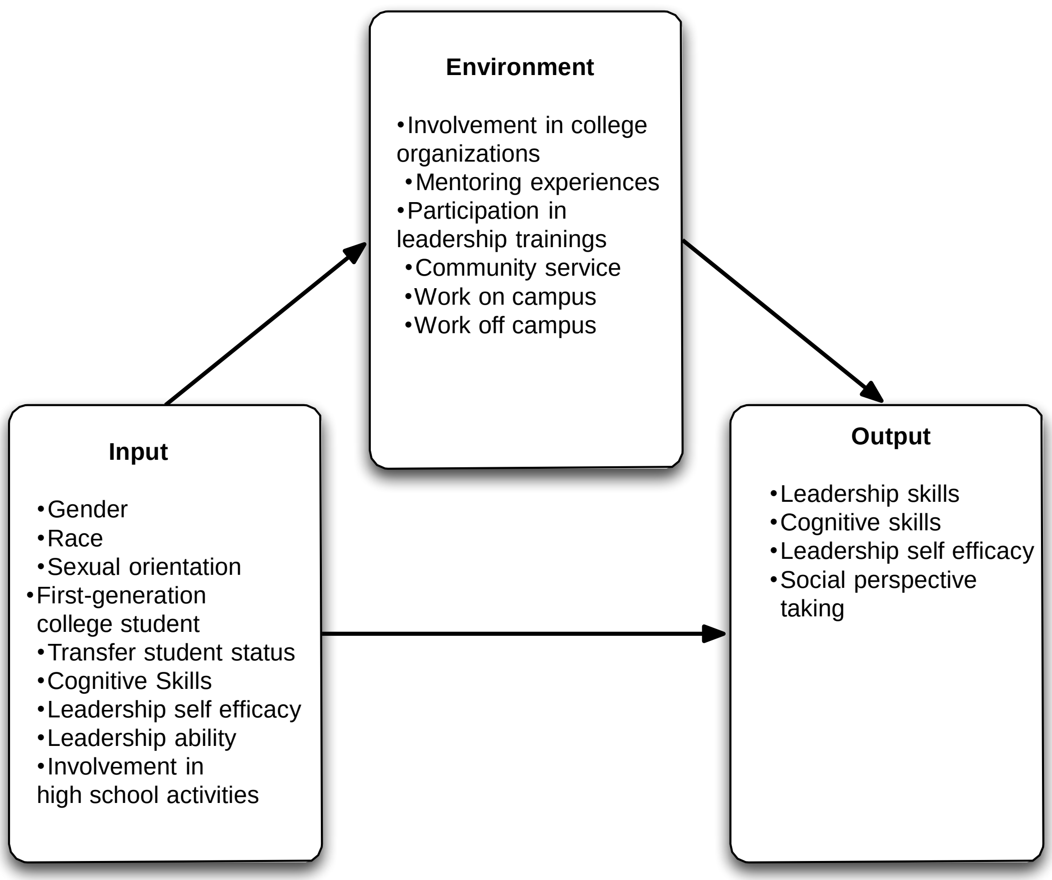
Purpose of the study

The existing literature on leadership education and the importance of leadership education for engineering students points to a need for more research in this area. Using Astin's theory as our theoretical framework we sought to answer the following research questions: RQ1. In what ways do engineering students differ from non-engineering students in their pre-collegiate leadership skills, leadership self efficacy, cognitive skills, and involvement in high school activities?

RQ2. To what extent are there differences in engineering and non-engineering students, comparable on pre-collegiate inputs, in their degree of collegiate involvement, mentoring experiences, and participation in leadership training programs?

RQ3. To what extent are there differences in engineering and non-engineering students, comparable on pre-collegiate inputs and collegiate experiences, in their leadership skills, leadership self-efficacy, cognitive flexibility, and social- perspective taking?

Figure 1. Study's variables in context of Input-Environment-Output model (Astin 1993)



Methods

Population

Our research utilized data collected in spring 2009 and spring 2010 as part of the Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership (MSL), which included 101 colleges and universities selected to serve as a representative sample of undergraduate-serving colleges and universities in the United States (Dugan & Komives, 2010), diverse in their Carnegie classifications, selectivity, control, size, and geographic location. Each institution with less than 4,000 students provided full population samples, while larger institutions provided simple random samples of 4,000 students. From these institutions, 115,632 students participated by completing surveys a 34% response rate, which is considered acceptable for institutional research using self-reported data (Gonyea, 2005).

After removing incomplete surveys, a sample of 90,444 students was used for data analysis. Students self-reported demographic identities, pre-collegiate experiences, collegiate experiences, and leadership outcomes were analyzed, see Table 1 for the full list.

Analytic Design Matching.

Perhaps the biggest challenge in studying the leadership development experiences of students majoring in engineering is that the students self-select into their major and their participation in leadership development opportunities, and likely do so for unobserved factors that affect their decision. This creates a likely endogeneity with their collegiate experiences, which are the focus of this study. Without considering these endogenous effects, any multivariate regression results may be misleading. One might erroneously attribute effects to students majoring in engineering when the effects actually were present beforehand or even occurred despite the student majoring in engineering. Therefore, it was necessary to control for this endogeneity of students' likelihood to major in engineering or participate in leadership development opportunities and attempt to reduce the likely bias in our estimates. We did so using coarsened exact matching, a relatively new pre-processing technique (Iacus, King, & Porro, 2012).

Coarsened Exact Matching (CEM) is a method of matching observations that are similar on a vector of pre-treatment variables which also reduces imbalance by retaining a subset of observations that have matches in both the treatment and the control groups for further analysis (Iacus et al., 2012). There are two classes of matching methods used to reduce imbalance—the equal percent bias reducing (EPBR) class and the monotonic imbalance bounding (MIB) class, of which CEM is the most common method (Iacus & King, 2012). In the context of this study, we utilized CEM in answering research question two (examining differences in students' college experiences) by first matching Engineering and non-engineering participants on pre-collegiate demographic information and relevant measures. For research question three (examining differences in leadership-related outcomes) we matched participants using both pre-collegiate measures and college experiences. See Table 1 for a complete list of variables included within each phase of our analysis. See Table 2 for a summary of our research questions and corresponding samples utilized to examine each question.

Table 1

Vectors of Variables used in Empirical Analyses

Abbr.	Full name	Brief description
Demographics Vector (four variables)		
GEN	Gender†	Female, Male, Transgender
RAC	Race†	White/Caucasian, Middle Eastern, African American / Black, American Indian / Alaska Native, Asian American / Asian, Latino / Hispanic, Multiracial, Race/Ethnicity not included above
SexO	Sexual Orientation	Heterosexual, bisexual/gay/lesbian/questioning, rather not say
GenST	First-generation†	First generation college student
Pre-Collegiate Vector (six variables)		
LS_{hs}	Leadership skills†	Condensed eight-question Socially Responsible Leadership scale
LSE_{hs}	Leadership self-efficacy†	Construct of four self-efficacy questions (e.g. "Organizing a group's tasks to accomplish a goal.")
CF_{hs}	Cognitive Skills†	Construct of five cognitive flexibility questions (e.g. "Analyzing new ideas and concepts")
SPC_{hs}	Social perspective-taking†	Construct of three perspective-taking questions (e.g. "I attempted to carefully consider the perspectives of those with whom I disagreed.")
INV_{hs}	Involvement level†	Five questions on level of high school activities participation
TRAN	Transfer status†	1=Started college at current institution
Collegiate Vector (six variables)		
ClassYr	Class year†	Freshman/first-year, sophomore, junior, senior, graduate student, unclassified
INV_{col}	Involvement level†	Four questions on level of college activities participation
MENT	Mentor experiences†	Six questions on quantity and quality of mentoring experiences
LeadTR	Leadership Training	Twelve questions on frequency of leadership education programs
WorkOff	Work Off Campus	Employed at an off-campus job
WorkOn	Work On Campus	Employed at an on-campus job
MCS	Monthly Community Service	Engage in regularly community service
Outcomes Vector (four variables)		
LS_{col}	Leadership skills	Full 71-question Socially Responsible Leadership Scale
LSE_{col}	Leadership self-efficacy	Construct of four self-efficacy questions
CF_{col}	Cognitive flexibility	Construct of five cognitive flexibility questions (e.g. Grown in "ability to learn more about things that are new to you")
SPT_{col}	Social perspective-taking	Construct of eight perspective-taking questions (e.g. "Before criticizing somebody, I try to imagine how I would feel if I were in their place.")

†=Used in coarsened exact matching procedure

Table 2

Summary of Research Questions

	Variables used for CEM	Matched Students: Engineering Students	Matched Students: Non-Engineering Students	Dependent Variables	Independent Variables
RQ1: Pre-Collegiate leadership-oriented attributes	Demographics Vector	4,761	4,761	LS_{hs} LSE_{hs} CF_{hs} INV_{hs}	
RQ2: Collegiate leadership experiences	Demographics Vector Pre-Collegiate Vector	4,600	62,253	INV_{col} MENT LeadTR	Engineering Major (1/0) Demographics Vector Pre-Collegiate Vector (11 total variables)
RQ3. Collegiate leadership outcomes	Demographics Vector Pre-Collegiate Vector Collegiate Vector	2,322	7,565	LS_{col} LSE_{col} CF_{col} SPT_{col}	Engineering Major (1/0) Demographics Vector Pre-Collegiate Vector Collegiate Vector (17 total variables)

Question One Design. Four two-tail t-tests were constructed to compare students in engineering majors and non-engineering majors on four pre-collegiate measurements (Kennedy, 2008; Stock & Watson, 2011). The dataset had unequal sample sizes of engineering students and non-engineering students and unequal variances in each sample, which violates an assumption of the student's t-test (Stock & Watson, 2011). Therefore, we employed coarsened exact matching to identify an equal-size sub-sample of the non-engineering students who were highly similar to the engineering students based on the three demographic variables of gender, race, and first- generation college student status. Testing showed these matched samples of equal counts to have equal variances for applying the student's t-test (Stock & Watson, 2011).

Question Two Design. Nine multivariate regressions were estimated on key collegiate experiences after pre-processing the data using coarsened exact matching to create similar samples (see Question One Design) regarding pre-collegiate leadership experiences. This matching resulted in a sub-sample of 66,853 highly similar students, 4,600 engineering majors and 62,253 non-engineering majors. Using this matched sample, we estimated regressions for three different dependent variables of their collegiate experiences: involvement level, mentoring experiences, and leadership training. For each dependent variable we built three block regressions starting with the engineering-major indicator variable, adding the demographic vector, and finally adding the pre-collegiate vector. The final block regressions had R^2 values of 0.097, 0.069, and 0.063 for the respective dependent variables of involvement level, mentoring experiences, and leadership training. For clarity, only variables with statistical significant coefficients are reported in Tables 4, 5, and 6. The full results of the estimated regressions and diagnostic are available upon request with the authors.

Question Three Design. To address RQ3, multivariate regressions were estimated on key outcome variables after pre-processing the data using a more extensive coarsened exact matching than RQ2 – by matching on both pre-college as well as collegiate leadership experiences. This extensive matching resulted in a sub-sample of 9,887 highly similar students, 2,322 engineering majors and 7,565 non-engineering majors. With this matched sample, we estimated two sets of regression models. The first set used the combined sample of all 9,887 students and the engineering-major indicator variable in each block regression. A second set of regression models used two subsetted samples, the first subset with the 2,322 engineering majors and the second subset with the 7,565 non-engineering majors. Collectively, these sets of regression models enabled a more nuanced analysis of both the direct effect of an engineering major in the first set of models and in the second set of models an analysis of the contrasting collegiate experiences and outcomes between engineering students and non-engineering students.

Regressions were all estimated on four different dependent variables of key outcomes: collegiate leadership skills, leadership self-efficacy, cognitive flexibility, and social perspective- taking. The final block regressions had R^2 values of 0.443, 0.124, 0.376, and 0.184 for the respective dependent variables of collegiate leadership skills, leadership self-efficacy, cognitive flexibility, and social perspective-taking. Again for clarity, only the full block regressions and the variables with statistical significant coefficients are reported in Tables 6, 7, 8, and 9. The full results of the estimated regressions and diagnostic are available upon request with the authors.

Results

Pre-collegiate Differences

First we addressed our research question one. We conducted four respective student's t-tests; the results of these can be found in Table 3.

Table 3
Pre-collegiate comparisons of engineering and non-engineering student for RQ1

	LS_{hs}		LSE_{hs}		CF_{hs}		INV_{hs}	
	ENG	Non-ENG	ENG	Non-ENG	ENG	Non-ENG	ENG	Non-ENG
N	4,761	4,761	4,761	4,761	4,761	4,761	4,758	4,757
μ	3.89	3.88	2.88	2.86	3.04	3.05	10.61	10.78
SD	0.49	0.52	0.69	0.71	0.57	0.58	3.53	3.61
t	0.59		1.42		-0.72		-2.31*	
p	0.56		0.15		0.47		0.02	

Notes: * p<.05

Differences in Collegiate Leadership Experiences

Next we focused on research question two. To assess differences in collegiate leadership experiences between engineering and non-engineering students, we conducted a series of multiple regression analyses using our respective criterion variables of interest as dependent variables, reported in Table 4, Table 5, and Table 6.

Table 4

Significant Predictors of Collegiate Co-curricular Involvement (INV_{col}) for RQ2

	Block 0 β	Block 1 β	Block 2 β
ENG Major	-0.40***	-0.28***	-0.24***
RAC – White		-0.57*	-0.47*
RAC – Latino		-0.70**	-0.76**
RAC – Multiracial		-0.48*	-0.51*
GenST		0.62***	0.49***
TRAN			-0.31***
LS_{hs}			0.25***
LSE_{hs}			0.73***
CF_{hs}			-0.23***
INV_{hs}			0.24***

Notes: * p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001

Table 5

Significant Predictors of Mentoring Experiences (MENT) for RQ2

	Block 0 β	Block 1 β	Block 2 β
ENG Major	-0.78***	-0.36***	-0.32***
GenST		0.44***	0.34***
TRAN			-0.51***
LS_{hs}			0.79***
LSE_{hs}			0.41***
CF_{hs}			-0.28***
INV_{hs}			0.17***

Notes: * p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001

Table 6

Significant Predictors of Leadership Training Participation (LeadTR) for RQ2

	Block 0 β	Block 1 β	Block 2 β
ENG major	-0.17***	-0.18***	-0.18***
RAC–Caucasian		-0.24***	-0.23***
RAC–Middle Eastern		0.23**	0.13
RAC–African-		0.28***	0.16**

American/Black		
RAC– American Indian/Alaska Native	0.49***	0.16
RAC-Multiracial	-0.14*	-0.16**
RAC– Race/Ethnicity not included above	0.15*	-0.05
RAC–No response	-0.88*	-0.09
GenST	0.10***	0.05***
TRAN		0.20***
LS_{hs}		-0.03***
LSE_{hs}		0.40***
CF_{hs}		-0.18***
INV_{hs}		0.09***

Notes: * p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.00

Differences in Collegiate Leadership Outcomes

Finally, we analyzed the data to answer research question three. Our variables of interest were students' current levels of leadership skill, leadership self-efficacy, cognitive flexibility, and social perspective-taking. There are two potential methods of examining outcome differences between engineering and non-engineering students that are related to campus environments. One way is to include college major choice as an independent variable within the analyses of relevant criterion variables. This allows for researchers to determine the significance of major to desired outcomes while controlling for other variables known to correlate with the outcomes. An additional option is to separate the engineering sample of students from the non-engineering sample and conduct parallel analyses. The feature of such methodology is the ability to determine which other variables of interest might play significant predictive roles for engineering students that do not for their non-engineering peers. As a benefit of the statistical power gained from our large sample size, we conducted both analyses in examining factors predictive of each outcome. The list of statistically significant results in the analysis can be found in Table 7, Table 8, Table 9, and Table 10. For clarity, only the final block of each analysis is shown.

Table 7

Significant Predictors of Students' Current Leadership Skill (LS_{col}) for RQ3

	Combined Sample β	Subsetted Samples ENG β	Subsetted Samples Non-ENG β
ENG Major	-0.01*		
GEN–Female	0.01**	<0.01	0.01***
GEN–Male	-0.01**	<0.01	-0.01***
RAC-Middle Eastern	-0.55**	-0.74**	-0.37
RAC-Latino	0.04	0.45*	-0.38
RAC-Multiracial	0.02	0.38*	-0.35
TRAN	0.04***	0.08***	0.04**
LS_{hs}	0.40***	0.40***	0.40***
LSE_{hs}	0.05***	0.05***	0.06***
CF_{hs}	0.08***	0.08***	0.09***
INV_{hs}	<-0.01*	<0.00	<0.00
INV_{col}	0.01***	0.01***	0.01***
LeadTR	<0.01**	<0.01	<0.01*
MENT	0.02***	0.02***	0.01***
WorkOff	0.02**	0.01	0.02**
MCS	0.05***	0.05***	0.05***

Notes: * p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001

Table 8

Significant Predictors of Current Leadership Self-Efficacy (LSE_{col}) for RQ3

	Combined Sample β	Subsetted Samples ENG β	Subsetted Samples Non-ENG β
ENG major	0.02		
GEN–Female	-0.03***	-0.02	-0.04***
GEN–Male	0.03***	0.02	0.04***
TRAN	0.12***	0.13***	0.11***
LSE_{hs}	0.42***	0.37**	0.43***
LS_{hs}	0.24***	0.25***	0.24***
INV_{hs}	<-0.01	-0.01*	<-0.01
INV_{col}	0.03***	0.03***	0.03***
MENT	0.02***	0.02***	0.01***
LeadTR	0.01***	0.01***	0.01***
WorkOff	0.08***	0.01	0.10***
WorkOn	0.03*	0.03	0.03*

Notes: * p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001

Table 9
Significant Predictors of Current Cognitive Flexibility (COG_{col}) for RQ3

	Combined Sample β	Subsetted Samples ENG β	Subsetted Samples Non-ENG β
ENG Major	-0.03*		
TRAN	0.16***	0.06	0.21***
LS_{hs}	0.13***	0.08*	0.15***
LSE_{hs}	0.01	0.09***	-0.01
CF_{hs}	0.11***	0.06	0.12***
INV_{hs}	-0.01***	-0.01*	-0.01***
INV_{col}	0.03***	0.02***	0.03***
MENT	0.04***	0.04***	0.04***
LeadTR	<0.01*	<0.01	0.01**
WorkOff	0.05***	0.06	0.05**

Notes: * p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001

Table 10
Significant Predictors of Current Social Perspective-taking for RQ3

	Combined Sample β	Subsetted Samples ENG β	Subsetted Samples Non-ENG β
ENG Major	-0.12***		
GEN–Female	0.11***	0.12***	0.10***
GEN–Male	-0.11***	-0.12***	-0.10***
SexOrient–Hetero	-0.07*	-0.03	-0.09*
TRAN	0.13***	0.14*	0.12*
LS_{hs}	0.39***	0.49***	0.35***
LSE_{hs}	-0.06***	-0.05	-0.07**
CF_{hs}	0.10***	0.03	0.12***
INV_{hs}	0.01*	<0.01	0.01
MENT	0.02***	0.01*	0.02***
MCS	0.05*	<-0.01	0.07**

Notes: * p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001

Discussion

In line with a growing concern and research about the leadership and teambuilding skills of aspiring engineers (Cox, Cekic, & Adams, 2010; Dugan, Fath, Howes, Lavelle, & Polanin, 2013; Graham et al., 2009; Lewis, Aldridge, & Swamidass, 1998; Luechtefeld, Baca, & Watkins, 2008; McIntyre, 2011; Reeve, 2010; Schaffer, Xiaojun, Xiumei, & Oakes, 2012), this study consisted of a national examination of the leadership and teamwork capacities of undergraduate students matriculated at colleges and universities in the United States. Our research questions focused on the differences between comparable engineering and non-engineering students in their high school leadership and involvement experiences, collegiate leadership and involvement experiences, and outcomes necessary for leadership and team-building success in a professional environment.

Summary of Findings

Pre-collegiate experiences. Our results suggest that engineering students did not differ from their non-engineering peers on retrospectively measured scales of leadership capacity; their remembered high-school leadership skills and confidence were of a level achieved by non-engineers as well. However, engineering students report significant differences in their intensity of involvement in co-curricular group experiences while in high school. Even when matched demographically by gender, race, and first-generation status, engineering students participated in fewer co-curricular student clubs and organizations. In essence, this suggests engineering students come to their university experience not lacking in leadership-oriented confidence and skill, but lacking in practical teamwork experience vis-à-vis their peers.

Collegiate experiences. Our results further demonstrate that once in college, engineering students are less involved in co-curricular student clubs and service organizations, report fewer relationships with faculty and staff mentors, and participate less often in co- curricular leadership training programs than their non-engineering peers, even when controlling for demographic variables and high school involvement experiences. Moreover, of the three, they differ to the greatest extent in the degree to which they can identify mentors—defined in the study instrument as a campus affiliated faculty or staff member who helps them learn leadership skills or otherwise achieve professional success in either formal or informal ways.

Collegiate leadership and teamwork outcomes. The results of our study suggest that engineering students do not significantly differ from non-engineers in leadership-oriented confidence or cognitive flexibility. However, they do differ slightly in leadership skill and much more considerably in their ability to take the perspective of others while interacting with these others. Differences persist even when controlling for demographics, high school experiences, and most significantly, collegiate mentoring, co-curricular involvement and leadership experiences. For engineering students, mentoring experiences played a much more significant role in predicting leadership and teamwork capacity than for non-engineers, and served as a significant predictor of the skill to take the perspective of others in interactions. Moreover, both high school and collegiate involvement experiences predicted engineering students' confidence in their leadership practices. Somewhat surprisingly, the amount of leadership training engineering students' reported did not significantly predict scores in each of the relevant leadership and teamwork outcomes examined within the study.

Implications

Several implications emerge as a result of this research study. Related to our examination of the incoming high school experiences of engineering students, engineering educators should recognize that their students tend to arrive at their university with less practical experience in co-curricular student organizations than might be expected of a typical university student. Moreover, these differences not only persist once immersed within the university environment, they are present even when comparing engineering and non-engineering students who were similarly involved in high school. Our findings suggest that what might separate engineering students from non-engineering students is their degree of skill of navigating interpersonal interactions, and a potential key in augmenting these skills might be found in the practical knowledge and skills gained from the informal interactions gained from co-curricular involvement—finding supported in past research in a non-engineering environment as well (Lichtenstein, McCormick, Sheppard, & Puma, 2010; Wolf-Wendel et al., 2009). Educators might benefit their students by more intentionally creating pathways to these types of involvements for busy or professionally-motivated engineering students who feel that success in coursework may be the only relevant route to later success.

The results also imply the significance of mentoring to engineering students' education in leadership and team-oriented skill development. The degree to which engineering students experienced significant mentoring on campus served as a significant predictor in every outcome measured, even after controlling for a host of other demographic, high school, and collegiate variables. Somewhat distressingly, however, engineering students report fewer of these relationships than their non-engineering peers, even controlling for demographic and pre-collegiate factors.

Our examination of leadership outcomes yielded some important implications for the significance of college experiences in helping engineering students augment their teamwork and leadership skills. High school involvement was not nearly as predictive of leadership outcomes as collegiate involvement and mentoring, suggesting that even though engineering students may enter university, on average, with less involvement than their peers, they could make up ground once there. Put another way, engineering schools can significantly contribute to their students' leadership outcomes through involvement and mentoring. However, the typical undergraduate experience for engineering students may lag behind that of their peers in contributing to growth in these areas. While the potential for growth is there, our results show that the practice of involvement continues to lag behind.

An additional substantial finding from the research study was the role of transferring from one institution to another. Students who report a "Transfer" status within the study significantly lagged behind their peers who had started their university experience at that campus in both leadership outcomes (i.e. skill and confidence). This gap, surprisingly, did not emerge to such an extent for non-engineering peers (see tables 7 and 8), suggesting that schools of engineering may not be serving the needs of transfer students to the extent they do for non- transfers. Particularly significant given the increasing pressure for community college students to transfer into STEM-related field (Hoffman, Starobin, Laanan, & Rivera, 2010; Olson & Labov, 2012; Tsapogas, 2004; Wang, 2013) augmenting transfer orientation programs and initiatives to provide transfer students pathways to mentoring relationship development and leadership opportunities may be in order.

Lastly, the findings related to the social perspective-taking capacity of engineering students were noteworthy. Even when controlling for important variables such as gender, race, transfer status, and high school and collegiate involvement, engineering students lag behind non- engineering peers in their ability to take the perspectives of others during interpersonal interactions. The engineering major played a larger role in predicting scores than a student's first-generation status or transfer history, suggesting that engineering educators are not currently doing enough to provide their students skills in navigating interpersonal interactions. These skills are critical, especially when teamwork requires collaboration, compromise, and synergistic solutions to achieve success. Several steps could positively contribute to social-perspective taking skills. Orientation programs might be augmented by providing explicit training in such interactions. Academic courses could include short sessions before group projects on best practices in collaboration, conflict resolution, and team decision-making. This research found that engineering students are not attending leadership trainings at the same rate as their peers, so targeted trainings focused on interpersonal skill development for engineering students could be in order.

Overall, a stereotype might exist that engineering students lack certain key interpersonal skills (Farr & Brazil, 2009; Russell & Yao, 1996). Our research study, unfortunately, provides empirical evidence suggesting that there might be truth to such beliefs. Even when matching engineering students with their peers on a total of 17 input and environmental variables, engineering students lag behind their non-engineering peers on measures of leadership capacity and social perspective-taking.

Conclusions

A national sample of undergraduate engineering students and a rigorous comparison sample of non-engineering peers were examined to determine differences between these two groups in leadership and teamwork-oriented outcome measures. A significant gap emerged between the two groups in ability to take the perspective of others in interpersonal interactions, while a narrower gap emerged in regards to leadership skill. These gaps persisted even when rigorously controlling for a variety of student demographic and experiential factors, such as gender, race, student high school involvement, collegiate involvement, mentoring experiences, and participation in leadership programs. Moreover, our results show that engineering students' collegiate co-curricular involvement lags behind non-engineering peers in the degree to which they join student organizations, participate in leadership development opportunities, and interact with faculty in a mentoring relationship. This study possesses significant implications for engineering educators in the way they help students develop leadership and teamwork capacity; particularly in the role that faculty mentoring and transfer student services can play.

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Understanding the Nature of Eco-Leadership:
An Exploratory Study of Community Organization Involvement

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Abstract

Leadership is increasingly viewed not as the effect of an individual, but rather a collective process. In an effort to better understand this ecological approach to leadership, this applied research study examined community groups, investigating the relationship between their leadership culture, cohesiveness, and community project involvement.

Introduction

The challenges communities face are changing, becoming more complex and requiring a greater reliance on interdependent work. To meet these challenges, the way in which leadership is approached is also changing. Leadership is increasingly viewed not as the effect of an individual, but rather a collective process (Avolio, Walumbwa, & Weber, 2009).

Reflecting on this shift in leadership discourse, Western (2007) identified an emerging "eco-leader discourse." "Eco" does not refer to the natural environment or any environmental cause, but rather the environment in which leadership occurs. Eco-leadership is characterized by collective decision-making, collaboration, shared leadership, and grassroots organization. It "shifts the focus from individual leaders to leadership" (Western, 2010, p. 36). Leadership does include the individual leader, but also includes collective groups and teams assuming leadership (Western, 2007). When viewing leadership through this new ecological perspective, positional leaders are encouraged to "assist in the emergence of leadership rather than creating change through executive orders and decisions" (Wielkiewicz & Stelzner, 2005, p. 331).

This new eco-leadership approach is beneficial to community organizations because a larger number of stakeholders — including minority stakeholders — have a stronger voice, creating the potential for both better decisions and greater commitment to those decisions by group members (Allen, Stelzner, & Wielkiewicz, 1999). Eco-leadership approach also aligns directly with the community viability priority area of many community groups, and with public leadership's need to solve wicked problems through community engagement (Redekop, 2010).

Unfortunately, research studies investigating eco-leadership, leadership culture, and group cohesion in relation to community project involvement are limited. "The vast majority of published work relies on a conceptual approach rather than an empirical one" (San Martin-Rodriguez, Beaulieu, D'Amour, & Ferrada-Videla, 2005, p. 133). This may be due in part to the complexities associated with group-level problem solving. In an eco-leadership approach, it is the whole team that solves the problem, and it is often more difficult to study the whole team than an individual leader. "While traditional historical teaching points to the 'great man' theory of leadership, it is the marginalized, grass-roots, social movements that often lead and innovate change, and so it is with eco-leadership…" (Western, 2010, p. 43). Few as they may be, these studies' implications could have significant impact how community groups collectivize, and how leaders seek to apply governance within government and community groups (Redekop, 2010).

Literature Review

Before a coherent discourse of eco-leadership emerged, a broader, ecological perspective of leadership was first described by Allen, Stelzner, and Wielkiewicz (1999). They suggested that we must understand leadership in the context of ecological systems. Wielkiewicz and Stelzner (2005) put forward six important premises for an ecological theory of leadership:

1. Leadership is an emergent process.
2. The cognitive task of organization members is to optimize the tension between the "old school"/industrial perspective and the "new school"/ecological perspective.
3. Leadership occurs in a web of interdependent social and biological systems.
4. Adaptability is determined by the richness and variability of feedback loops allowed to influence the leadership processes.
5. A tension exists between a need for human and social diversity within the organization versus single-minded pursuit of common goals and objectives.
6. Leadership processes need to be evaluated in terms of how adaptively an organization responds to its long-term challenges.

These premises have the potential to change the way we conceive of leadership, particularly because traditional perspectives on power are called into question. We tend to consider power at the center as a sign of structural strength, where power at the margins is considered a structural weakness; however, neither is the case (Western, 2010). "Eco-leadership shifts the power from individual leaders to leadership…in an attempt to harness the energy and creativity of the whole system" (Western, 2010, p. 44).

Emergence of Eco-Leadership Discourse

Based on a meta-analysis of leadership from historical, social/political, and economic perspectives, Western (2007) has identified four discourses of leadership over the past century (Figure 1). The controller leadership discourse emerged at the turn of the 20th century and is characterized by a focus on efficiency. Calls for a more democratic society following World War II resulted in the therapist leadership discourse, which "works on the principle that 'happy workers are more productive workers'" (Western, 2010, p. 39). Though the therapist discourse made leadership more people-focused, it focused on shaping individuals to fit desired norms. In the 1970s, the messiah leadership discourse emerged "with the aim to create strong, dynamic organizational cultures under the vision and charisma of a transformational leader" (Western, 2010, p. 40). While the messiah leadership discourse remains strong, the evangelical leaders it has created are sometimes seen to be a façade, and they have often failed to produce the desired results.

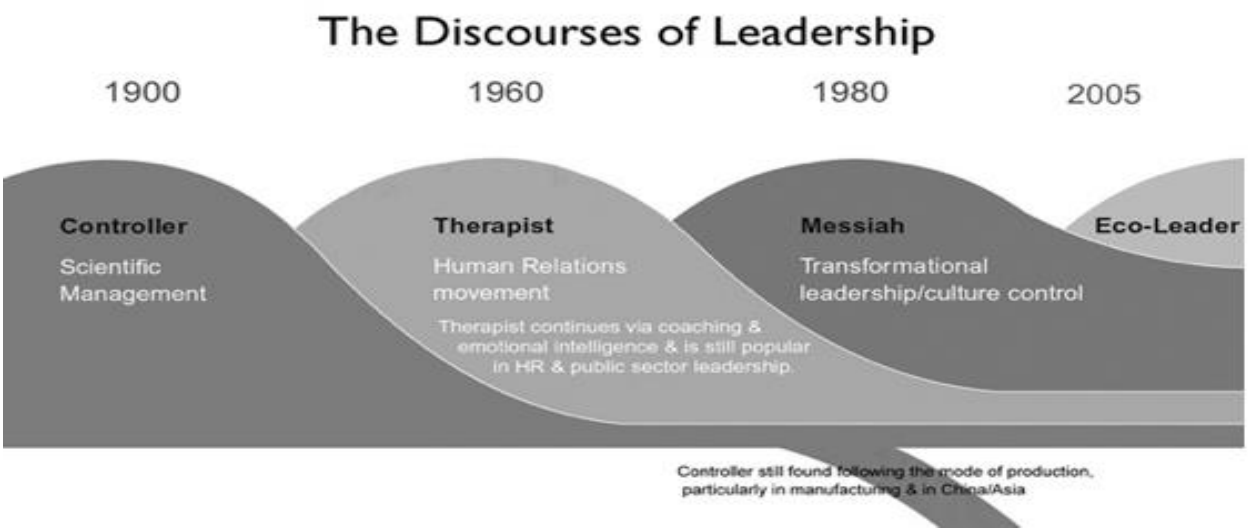


Figure 1. Approximate timeline of leadership discourses (Western, 2007, p. 82).

Following the controller, therapist, and messiah discourses, Western (2007, 2010) noted a significant change with the emerging eco-leadership discourse. Rather than focusing on leader created change, eco-leadership focuses on "a reciprocal relationship between leadership and its environment. It decenters individuals and challenges centralized power, claiming that by creating the right culture and conditions, leadership will emerge in plural forms and unexpected places" (Western, 2010, p. 36).

Group-Level Leadership

Though eco-leadership may seem like a feel-good approach to leadership, the reality is that it is a serious and challenging approach, both in practice and as a subject of study. As an example, Williams (2010) shares findings from his research with environmental leaders and their experiences with collaboration:

> I always thought there was something naturally appealing about collaboration. I had visions of lots of different people 'co-laboring' or laboring together for a common purpose. It just seemed natural that humans are social creatures and so they would want to work together. After a couple of very bad experiences with collaboration, I realized that my approach to collaboration was like my approach to my first marriage: it was love at first sight, filled with romance and dreams, and natural. Then it all fell apart because I had not worked at the relationship or even my naiveté about marriage. (p. 68)

Williams (2010) summarized his findings by saying, "if you choose to collaborate, you should not assume you can 'play at it.' Rather, you will need to work at it like the future depends upon it" (p. 89). We need to know more about collaboration and group-level leadership.

Despite its relevance for leadership theory and practice, little attention has been given to assessing leadership at a collective, group level. Indeed, following a recent review of 25 years of empirical research in 11 top journals, DeChurch et al. (2010) argued that "much more research attention is needed to explain the specific ways in which leadership effects emergent team and unit-level phenomenon" (p. 1081). Too often, researchers overlook the underlying structure of the social exchanges.

Seibert, Sparrowe, and Liden (2003) point out that the "pattern of relationships among group members can have a major impact on the ability of a group to function effectively" (p. 181). Accordingly, these various group exchange structures have important implications for the potential level of group cohesion, as well as the potential approaches of the group.

Group Cohesion

Acknowledging the importance of exchange relationships, research on group-level leadership should consider group cohesion and its influence on the factors being studied. Group cohesion can be thought of as the "glue" or interpersonal bonds that hold a group together. Cohesion is particularly important for performance when the group's task requires high levels of interaction, coordination, and interdependence (Kubeš, 1998). According to social psychologists, "members of highly cohesive groups mutually accept each other's ideas, contribute equally to problem solving, and are not likely to be adversely affected by the power and status structures within the group" (Treadwell, Lavertue, Kumar, & Veeraraghavan, 2001, p. 4).

To measure group cohesion with a broad range of groups, Treadwell et al. (2001) developed the group cohesion scale. The current, revised scale (GCS-R) is a 25-item questionnaire designed to assess group cohesion in terms of interaction and communication among group members, member retention, decision-making, vulnerability among group members, and consistency between group and individual goals (Treadwell, et al., 2001). Factor loadings reveal five dimensions of cohesion: member acceptance, information sharing, sticking together, dependence on leader, and task orientation (Noel, 2006).

Assessing Shared Leadership

The group exchange structures outlined by Seibert et al. (2003) suggest important limitations on the potential for a single individual to provide leadership to the group. Indeed, research by Pearce, Yoo, and Alavi (2004) suggests that shared leadership is a more powerful predictor of group performance than individual leadership, particularly in not-for-profit settings. Unfortunately, "when focusing on leadership in teams, most authors have examined the behavior of an individual appointed leader as opposed to the leadership exhibited by all members of the team" (Avolio, et al., 2003, p. 144). In response to this need, Avolio et al. (2003) developed the team multifactor leadership questionnaire (TMLQ). The complete TMLQ is a 48-item questionnaire designed to assess the "collective" leadership style of a group (Gronn, 2008). Factor loadings reveal five dimensions of the scale: inspiring leadership, intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration, management-by-exception-active, and passive/avoidant leadership. Although Avolio et al. (2003) have outlined strong support for the validity and reliability of the TMLQ, they believe it is merely a building block for developing a "deeper understanding of what constitutes 'shared' leadership" (p. 167).

Purpose

The purpose of this study is to explore eco-leadership in practice, specifically among community groups in the New River Valley area of Virginia. An explanatory sequential mixed methods design will be used, involving the collection of quantitative data first and then explaining the quantitative results with in-depth qualitative data. The study will describe any relationships between a community group's shared leadership style, group cohesiveness, and levels of community project involvement. This study has four research objectives:

1. Characterize the leadership culture of participating community groups.
2. Assess the cohesiveness of participating community groups.
3. Assess participating groups' community project involvement.
4. Determine if a significant relationship exists between leadership culture, group cohesiveness, and community project involvement.

Methods and Procedures

This study utilized a mixed methods explanatory design (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009) in which qualitative data were used to expound on quantitative results. The Virginia Tech's Institutional Review Board granted approval for the study.

Sample

The general criteria for selecting participant organizations included: holding regular face-to-face meetings; self-identifying as a civic, social, or service group; and serving the New River Valley area. The researchers developed a sampling frame of 91 community-based organizations within the New River Valley by searching online resources and employing snowball strategies. Community groups were then contacted by phone using a recruitment script. Groups expressing interest received a follow-up email with an information packet that included IRB-approved consent form, examples of survey instruments, and contact information. Based on willingness and availability, a convenience sample of six organizations was selected, representing a variety of interests, focuses, and missions. These organizations may or may not engage in environmental projects, but all engage in projects serving the community.

We used simple descriptive statistics to determine the demographic make-up of sample organizations' members, including gender, age, race, years of service, and level of education. Of 92 total individual respondents, 84 members provided sufficient data for analysis: 61% were male (n=50), and 39% were female (n=34). Ages of participants ranged from 19 to 91 years, with a mean age of 62. Respondents reported being 82% white (n=69), 14.3% black (n=12), 2.4% Asian (n=2), and 1.2% Hispanic (n=1). Education levels varied with 34.9% (n=29) holding a Ph.D. or professional degree, 27.1% (n=23) with a master's degree, 13.3% (n=11) with a bachelor's degree, 4.3% (n=4) with associate degree, and 19.3% (n=16) with "some college or less."

Data Collection

The study involved a mixed methods approach, employing both qualitative and quantitative phases in the collection of data. We used two standardized instruments to collect data in the quantitative phase of this study: the Group Cohesion Scale – Revised (GCS-R) and Team Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (TMLQ). The GCS-R is a 25-item questionnaire designed to assess group cohesion in terms of interaction and communication among group members, member retention, decision-making, vulnerability among group members, and consistency between group and individual goals (Treadwell, Lavertue, Kumar, & Veeraraghavan, 2001). The GCS-R shows acceptably high reliability (>0.8) for use in research and is sensitive to detecting changes in cohesiveness as a function of group development (Treadwell, et al). The TMLQ is a 48-item questionnaire designed to assess the collective leadership style of a group (Gronn, 2008). The TMLQ has been used in multiple studies, and exhibits an acceptably high reliability and validity (Avolio et al., 2003). In addition to the standardized instruments, we created a demographic survey to collect basic stakeholder information, such as age, gender, occupation, local residence, etc. This survey also collected information related to the group's involvement in community projects, which is represented in the project index score (Figure 2) and served as the dependent variable for the study. When collecting data, researchers attended regular or special meetings of participant organizations. Researchers briefly discussed the study, collected signed, IRB-approved consent forms, and administered the two standardized instruments, as well as the demographic survey.

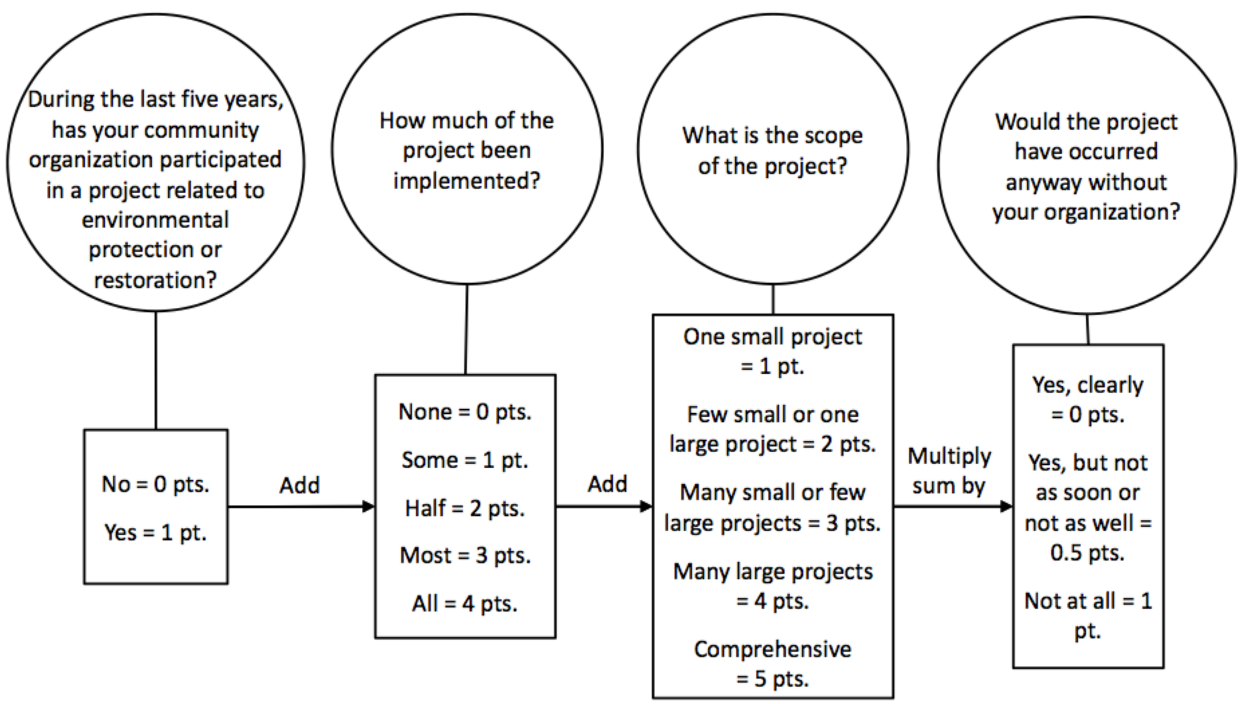


Figure 2. Index of restoration projects. Adapted from *Are Trust and Social Capital the Keys to Success?* (Figure 8.2, p. 241) by W. D. Leach & P. A. Sabatier, 2005, Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.

Based on quantitative findings, we identified cases for more in-depth investigation through qualitative research techniques. General criteria for selection included a willingness and ability to provide thick, rich descriptions of experiences with respective community groups. We conducted focus group sessions with four participating community groups. Group sizes ranged from four to seven participants. Focus group sessions were held at times and locations convenient for participants. Sessions followed a semi-structured, open-ended format to allow participants to respond in their own words. The protocol focused the conversation on how leadership emerged within the group and how the group was able to overcome challenges with the group exchange structure. During focus group sessions, the researchers acted as facilitators and note takers. A rotation of duties reduced the potential for bias associated with having a single facilitator for all sessions. In addition to field notes, we captured data using a digital audio recording device.

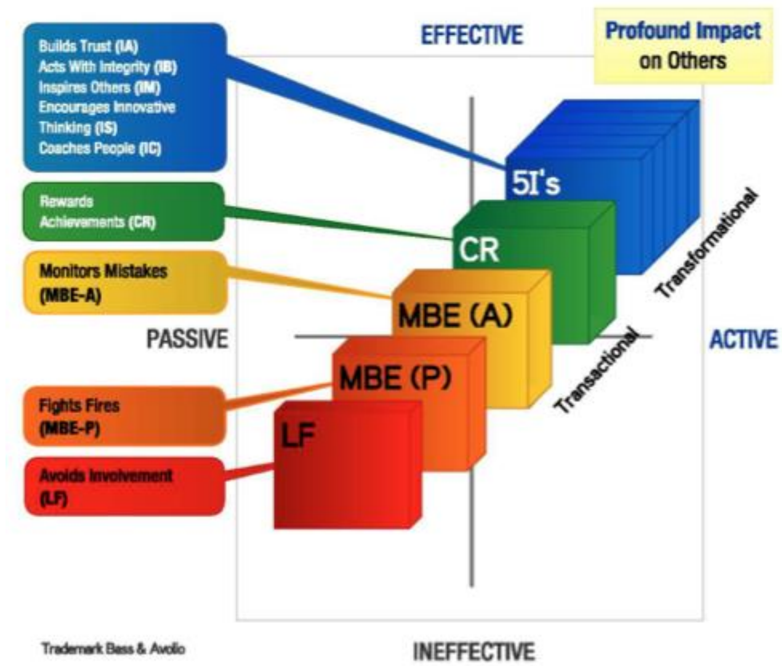
Data Analysis

Following the collection of quantitative data, we used SPSS to screen the data through univariate and multivariate analyses. We then calculated group-level composite scores for all independent and control variables and used descriptive statistics and correlational analysis to investigate relationships between variables. Following the collection of qualitative data, we enlisted a professional transcription company transcribe the audio files verbatim. We conducted a preliminary whole-text analysis of the transcript and selected supporting passages to augment quantitative results. The complete analysis of qualitative data is ongoing. As outlined be Seidel (1998) and supported by Friese (2006), qualitative data analysis involves three basic steps: noticing things, collecting things, and thinking about things. Accordingly, the final, yet-to-be-completed stage of the research will be interpretation and explanation of the mixed qualitative and quantitative findings.

Findings

Objective 1: Characterize the leadership culture of participating community groups

Objective one of the study was to characterize the leadership culture of participating community groups. Results from the Team Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (TMLQ) are presented within the Full Range Leadership Model. Respondents (n=85) reported Laissez-faire scores ranging from 0.0 to 2.6, with a mean score of 1.104 and standard deviation of 0.644. Management by Exception passive scores ranged from 0.0 to 3.0, with a mean score of 1.005 and standard deviation of 0.676. Management by Exception active scores ranged from 0.0 to 3.3, with a mean of 1.152 and a standard deviation of 0.760. Contingent Reward scores ranged from 0.6 to 4.0, with a mean score of 2.866 and standard deviation of 0.630. Aggregated Transformational Leadership scores ranged from 1.7 to 4.0, with a mean of 2.968 and standard deviation of 0.482. Average component scores of Transformational Leadership are reported in Figure 3.



Factor/Attribute	Team Average
Idealized Attributes	3.3
Idealized Behaviors	3.0
Inspirational Motivation	3.2
Intellectual Stimulation	2.5
Individualized Consideration	2.9
Contingent Reward	2.9
Mngmt-by-Exception (Active)	1.2
Mngmt-by-Exception (Passive)	1.0
Laissez-faire	1.1

Figure 3. The Full Range Leadership Model ™ with ratings from the Team Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire. Note: Figure adapted from MLQ International. Ratings are on a five-point scale: "Never" (0), "Once in a while" (1), "Sometimes (2), "Fairly often" (3), and "Frequently, if not always" (4).

Regarding the leadership culture of the groups, the following quote from the focus groups represents the general experience and expectations:

> Our leadership style is very informal in a way. I think there's a great deal of respect because people sort of rotate through the divisions anyway. But there's a great deal of respect for the fact that everybody is a volunteer. I think that's very important as a volunteer organization that you respect that. If you try to push too much as a volunteer, like you're saying, I think they will push back.

The shared approach to leadership is reflected in the following quote: "Any of the activities that we are involved in we don't necessarily initiate; the idea comes from members on the committee." Another explained the dynamic interaction by saying, "I think that part of our conflict resolution, our management style, is because there is no hierarchy."

Objective 2: Assess the cohesiveness of participating community groups.

Group Cohesion scores for all participants (n=92) ranged from 73.60 to 84.80, with a mean of 80.21 and standard deviation of 2.77. The group cohesion is better understood through quotes from the focus groups, where one member said:

> I feel attracted to this group. I am proud of the fact that we are active in the community in so many different ways, and I'm glad to be a part of it, and I want to continue to be a part of it. I mean it motivates me to get here.

Another shared, “It's fun to come to meetings just because of the people who are there, the camaraderie. If I didn't come for any other reason it would be for that.” Still another said, “I was thinking it was funny how much the fact that we’re a civic organization, but also social, and how much the fact that we eat together may affect how we feel about each other.” One participant explained, “There’s a transition that goes on just in size. We benefit from being small. It’s nice to have a new member if you don’t get too many.” Another summarized by saying, “I think there’s a sort of mutual respect that we have for the other members.”

Objective 3: Assess participating groups’ community project involvement.

The third objective of this study was to assess participating groups’ community involvement. To operationalize this objective, we adapted Leach and Sabatier’s (2005) Index of Restoration Projects (Figure 2). Respondents (n=76) reported a range of 0.00 to 8.00, with a mean of 2.25 and standard deviation of 2.60. The participants’ experience is represented in the following quote from the focus groups:

> We have people going off in lots of different directions doing different things; and I think more in the last few years, things have evolved so that when people come up with an idea, they send it either to their Chairman of their committee or the President or something, so it goes somewhere other than just running around doing things.

One participant shared, “And so I do a lot of stuff in the community, and that's one of the reasons why I come to this group is so I can help facilitate getting this group connected to what's outside.” Another participant explained, “I think that kind of in general we tend to say, ‘Let's give it a try and see how it goes.’”

Objective 4: Determine if a significant relationship exists between leadership culture, group cohesiveness, and community project involvement.

The fourth objective of the study was to determine if a relationship exists between group cohesion, leadership culture, and community project involvement. In considering correlations between aspects of Transformational Leadership and Community Project Involvement, we found a weak-to-moderate, significant relationship (r = .283, p < .05) between Idealized Attributes and Community Project Involvement and a second weak-to-moderate relationship (r = .257, p < .05) between Inspirational Motivation and Community Project Involvement. Group Cohesion was not statistically related to Community Project Involvement (Table 1).

Idealized Attributes is one of five components of the Full Range Leadership Model ™ and is characterized by such attributes as instilling pride in others, going beyond self interest, earning respect, and displaying confidence (Bass & Avolio, 2004). Inspirational Motivation is also one of five components of Full Range Leadership Model ™ concerned with communicating high expectations to followers, inspiring them to become a part of a shared vision, and using emotional appeals to inspire members to achieve more than had they been acting out of self interest (Northouse, 2013).

Although we might have expected the group cohesion to be significantly related to community project involvement, the quotes from the focus group sessions help explain the discrepancy. For example, one participant said, “So that strikes me as interesting that although we’re very social in the club and at the board and all the times that we get together, we don’t do a lot outside of the projects or the club meetings.” The role of idealized attributes is reflected in the following statement:

> I think a lot of us tend to want to be involved with things, that we'll do on our own, so it connects us to a larger group that are doing things that, you know: there's things that I would be involved with regardless of, you know, whether or not this group was, but that it's important to me, so to do it and have multiple people that I know are doing it too is nice.

The shared nature of this approach was reiterated by a participant who said, “Everybody in this branch has the potential of being a leader. Everybody in this branch is very in tuned and I would say highly intelligent and can carry on the duties and the responsibilities of this organization.” Another shared, “None of us are deemed very important, and we’re just all part of it.” The inspirational motivation was explained by a focus group participant who said, “Everybody’s passionate about what it is that they stand firm on.” Another explained, “All of our hearts are into it, and we just basically want what is right. That’s it.”

Table 1

Correlations, means, and standard deviations of variables hypothesized as related to community project involvement

Measure	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1 Community Project Involvement	2.25	2.60												
2 Group Cohesion	3.21	0.26	.193											
3 Idealized Attributes	3.27	0.51	.283*	.596**										
4 Idealized Behaviors	2.95	0.63	.049	.443**	.532**									
5 Inspirational Motivation	3.19	0.59	.257*	.507**	.650**	.690**								
6 Intellectual Stimulation	2.49	0.63	.007	.080	.394**	.518**	.562**							
7 Individualized Consideration	2.81	0.64	.192	.619**	.702**	.651**	.741**	.459**						
8 Transformational Leadership	2.94	0.49	.185	.540**	.783**	.834**	.888**	.724**	.867**					
9 Contingent Reward	2.88	0.66	.192	.353**	.455**	.577**	.579**	.543**	.506**	.652**				
10 Management-by-Exception: Active	1.17	0.78	-.082	-.376**	-.306**	-.245*	-.298**	.076	-.288*	-.253*	-.064			
11 Management-by-Exception: Passive	1.04	0.69	-.092	-.474**	-.428**	-.429**	-.480**	-.141	-.466**	-.471**	-.312**	.619**		
12 Laissez-faire	1.10	0.67	-.084	-.350**	-.410**	-.416**	-.451**	-.253*	-.455**	-.483**	-.372**	.545**	.627**	
13 Extra Effort	2.99	0.74	.241*	.458**	.602**	.602**	.821**	.597**	.682**	.807**	.579**	-.218	-.373**	-.453**

Note. $^{*}p<.05$, $^{**}p<.01$

Conclusions/Discussion/Recommendations

This applied research study examined community groups, investigating the relationship between their leadership culture, cohesiveness, and community project involvement. Results suggest that a group's productivity with community projects depends more heavily upon certain transformational leadership characteristics than group cohesion. In particular, efforts to inspire others and build trust appear to be most related to implementation of community projects. Quotes from focus group participants support these findings.

While this is a pilot study, there are implications for civic organization involvement and leadership for our changing world. Leadership educators should consider opportunities to incorporate eco-leadership principles into the curricula. While leadership education programs are adapting to the new, more collaborative nature of leadership, a lack of research and validated models has limited the scholarly and curricular support for such changes (Eich, 2008; Leigh, Shapiro, & Penney, 2010; Rego & Garau, 2008). The findings from this study will help form the foundation for new formal and non-formal education curricula that highlight contexts that require intense collaboration among diverse stakeholders. The investigation of eco-leadership offers great potential for leadership educators who can use the findings to equip local and global leaders for generations to come.

Due to the exploratory nature of this study, further research is needed. Specifically, the authors recommend investigation of the following questions:

- Does the relationship between community project involvement and *idealized attributes* of the group hold true for civic organizations in other communities, or is this relationship unique to this particular community?
- Does the relationship between community project involvement and *inspirational motivation* of the group hold true for civic organizations in other communities, or is this relationship unique to this particular community?
- Why does the broad measure of collective transformational leadership characteristics fail to offer a significant relationship with community project involvement? (In other words, why is there no significant relationship with *idealized behaviors*, *intellectual stimulation*, and *individualized consideration*?)
- Why does group cohesion fail to offer a significant relationship with community project involvement?
- How are community groups making the transition from the messiah discourse of leadership to eco-leadership?
- What can leadership educators do to better support and promote the principles associated with effective eco-leadership?

We encourage other leadership scholars to join us in conducting research that helps answer these questions.

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Work-life balance and leadership opportunities: Cross-generational perspectives from women

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Abstract

This qualitative study focuses on how women of three different generations, Generation Y, Generation X and Baby Boomers, balance work-life commitments and how their choices have impacted their ability to obtain workplace leadership positions. Work-life balance was defined differently across the three generations, but the generational lines faded as most women reported struggling with finding a balance. Some women conveyed choosing not to pursue high-level leadership positions as the personal cost was too high. Those who had obtained high-level leadership positions reflected on the past and shared what types of support were most effective in helping them juggle personal and professional obligations. The researchers offer suggestions for how Leadership Education programs can use these findings to make their curriculum more relevant to female students.

Introduction

Today's workforce is comprised of three generations working side by side – Generation Y (born between 1981-2000), Generation X (born between 1965-1989) and Baby Boomers (born between 1946-1964). Each generation brings distinctly different sets of values, expectations, attitudes, and motivational factors to their work (Klun, 2008). In this study, the authors describe how societal factors and social identity impact women's decisions to pursue leadership positions in the workplace. A better understanding of these intersections can be useful to leadership educators working with individuals from a variety of age groups.

Broad Generational Descriptions

Baby Boomers are comprised of the post-World War II babies. Boomers have enjoyed unprecedented employment and educational opportunities in most countries. Boomers tend to evaluate achievement in terms of personal fulfillment and unlike their conformist parents, they question authority. This generation was the first to discover that lifetime employment no longer existed—thus, job satisfaction tends to be more important to them than job security. With women now firmly implanted in the workforce, Boomers have been forced to re-evaluate the role of work in their personal lives. Because Boomers invented new forms of families, they also incurred new stresses. Boomers were the first generation to divorce at a higher rate than the two previous generations (Hammill, 2005).

Generation X was the first generation to grow up in the new family systems created by the Boomers, so this group tends to be comprised of independent individuals. They are determined to be involved, responsible and in control. Because Xers grew up watching television, they tend to have a more cynical view of the world and they focus on the here and now. They are risk takers, but they take calculated risks and are not intimidated by authority. They are problem solvers, tend to be goal oriented, and demand flexibility (Hammill, 2005).

The Gen Yers (also known as Millennials) are the first generation to grow up with the internet—they do not remember a time when it didn't exist. Many Millennials are both technologically savvy and dependent upon it (Hammill, 2005). They are over stimulated and became easily bored. This generation understands they will change jobs at least once every five years. As such, titles do not mean much—they believe respect should be earned based on performance and the job, not the title. Millennials are goal-oriented and are team players. However, they are also extremely independent and feel empowered. They will question workplace regulations and leave one organization to go to another if they are not satisfied.

Work-Life Balance

"Work-life balance is a commonly used term to describe workplace practices that aim to support the needs of employees in achieving a balance between the demands of their family (life) and work lives" (Jyothi & Jyothi, 2012, p. 35)."In the highly competitive global scenario, society and organizations are filled with conflicting commitment and responsibilities. Hence, work-life balance has become an important issue at the workplace" (Kanwar, Singh & Kodwani, 2009, p. 3). Kanwar, Singh and Kodwani note that work-life balance facilitates job satisfaction and promotes a healthy balance between family and work life, while effectively reducing organizational costs and enhancing employee performance. Interestingly, they also identified that burnout by those who struggle to attain work-life balance is a common thread that hinders attainment of that very goal.

"Seeking out a more balanced life is not a women's issue; balance would be better for us all" (Slaughter, 2012, p. 100). However, few can argue against the point that women carry most of the burden of caring for children, grandchildren and parents, while also juggling household tasks and responsibilities at work. "Generally speaking, in the United States, women's career development is still more subject to the family needs than men's" (Zhao, 2011, p. 725). Women, more than men, see such options as part time work, child care availability and work flexibility as ways to improve their work life balance (Doble & Supriya, 2010). Emslie and Hunt (2009) concluded that work-life balance choices are constrained by socioeconomic resources and cultural norms and noted that "while the middle-class independent women had the freedom to reduce their working hours in order to enhance their work–life balance, this option was not open to those with more limited resources" (p. 168).

Theoretically, work-life balance is straightforwardly attainable by simply allocating equal time between work-related tasks and activities related to other areas of an individual's life. Jyothi and Jyothi (2012), however, state that a positive work-life balance involves achievement and enjoyment and should not be understood as simply an equal balance or scheduling equal number of hours for each one's work and personal activities. From theory to reality, the concept becomes much more complex as contextual circumstances change the landscape and alter the work-life dynamic. For example, previous discussions of work-life balance for women typically revolved around balancing work demands with those of raising children. Today, however, just as many women mention the demands of caring for aging parents. Emslie and Hunt (2009) report on this further:

> Women found it difficult to combine roles such as employee, partner, mother, friend and daughter, and spontaneously used metaphors of juggling and balance to express these difficulties (for example, 'can't keep all the balls in the air', 'juggling match', need 'more of a balance'). Many discussed caring for grandchildren or assisting elderly parents with household tasks. Maureen and Heather spoke about making difficult choices between spending time with aging parents or with their children (p. 159).

In addition to often having more care-taking demands placed on them, women also are learning how to navigate an increasingly technologically driven world that blurs the lines between work and personal time (Brough & Kalliath, 2009; Sarker, Sarker & Ahuja, 2012). Currie and Eveline (2011) detail this invasion and intrusion of e-technologies into homes as "a blessing and a curse" (p. 533) that is of benefit to work, but comes at a cost to family life. Thurston (2012) suggests that technology is such a threat to work-life balance that there is no place anyone can go to get away from work, further emphasizing this by stating that even the restroom holds no solace. Conversely, Cousins and Varshney (2009) challenge concerns that technology is disrupting work-life balance and propose that it may simply be representative of new ways of working and living. Technology may, in fact, assist with work-life balance as the "ubiquity of computing resources is increasing and work activities infiltrate the home with ease and spontaneity, and employees can carry out family activities at work effortlessly" (p. 117).

Work-Life Balance Across Generations

What constitutes work-life balance changes at various stages of people's careers and different factors become important to individuals as they age (Jyothi & Jyothi, 2012). "The negotiation of work and life is mediated by generational attitudes and understandings of the workplace" (Favero & Heath, 2012, p. 351). Klum (2008) concurs noting that:

> Baby boomers may have pioneered the concept of work-life balance as an important component of their satisfaction with work, but younger workers from Generation X (born
> 1960–1980) and Generation Y (born 1980–2000) place even higher value on meshing family needs with the demands of their jobs (p. 1).

Sonier (2012), however, asserts that Baby Boomers are often considered die hard workaholics who have long sneered at the idea of a work-life balance. As such, it is not surprising that a tension surfaces in the workplace with the addition of Gen X and Y workers who seek improved accommodations to better balance work and life (Favero & Heath, 2012). Nevertheless, Sonier reports a clear consensus among generations:

> The data strongly suggests that all generations are now working longer hours and are making significant work-life sacrifices. A recent survey by the Society of Human Resource Management finds that among all generations, 89% of American workers say work-life balance is now a problem (p. 20).

Women in Leadership

Many women sacrifice job advancement opportunities if they do not perceive they can balance work and other obligations (Guillaume & Pochic, 2009). This is especially true if they deem the personal cost to be too high (Gerdes, 2010). Employers can no longer ignore the significant impact that non-work demands have on employee performance, commitment and job satisfaction. As Jyothi and Jyothi (2012) share "It is not enough for organizations to implement family-friendly practices such as flextime and extended parental leave, to reduce employees' work-life conflicts. It is more important to have a supportive culture that encourages employee utilization of work-life benefits" (p. 36).

Without strong organizational support, some women find it is easier to simply leave the workforce (Zhao & Shang, 2011). Sandberg (2013) shares that:

> When it comes to integrating career and family, planning too far in advance can close doors rather than open them. I've seen this happen over and over. Women rarely make one decision to leave the workforce. Instead, they make a lot of small decisions along the way, making accommodations and sacrifices that they believe will be required to have a family. Of all the ways women hold themselves back; perhaps, the most pervasive is that they leave before they leave. (p. 93)

Organizations with supportive cultures that retain women who assume leadership roles, however, can look forward to a financial advantage. Desvaux, Devillard-Hoellinge and Meaney (2008) found that firms which had three or more women in senior management had higher scores on all dimensions that related directly to financial performance than did firms with no women at the top.

Although there is significant research on both work-life balance and generational differences, there is little research examining both generational differences and work-life balance among women. Favero and Heath (2012) noted this lack of research and recommended that future research attend to questions such as "How do women from different generations work differently or the same as they progress through the life cycle?"(pg. 351), and "How does conflict with work and life change among generational cohorts as they age?" (p. 351). McNamara, Pitt-Catsaouphes, Matz-Costa, Brown and Valcour (2012) also support a need for additional "gender-focused analysis of satisfaction with work–family balance focusing on differences within genders, rather than between genders" (p. 293). Furthermore, there is little information on how generational differences and the pursuit of work-life balance impact women's opportunities for leadership.

This study attempts to shed light on some of these issues by using a qualitative research examination of the following questions: (a) Do women from each of the three different generations experience work-life conflict?; (b) Are there differences in the way the generations balance their professional and personal life?; (c) How do they and their places of employment address potential work-life balance issues and provide support?; (d) Does organizational support help women move into organizational leadership positions?; and (e) How willing are women in the workplace to help each other.

Methods

Participants

A total of 161 women fully completed the study questionnaire with 79 percent self-identifying their ethnicity as White, 68 percent reporting they were married and 63 percent indicating they had at least one child. Seventy six percent of the participants were employed full-time in a variety of settings ranging from Education to HealthCare and Consulting to Telecommunications with 63 percent indicating they currently held a managerial or leadership position in their organization. Forty percent of those surveyed held at least a Bachelor's degree.

> Generational breakdown of the participants was: a) Baby Boomers (born from 1946-1964) = 54; b) Generation X (born from 1965-1980) = 69; and c) Generation Y (born from 1981- 2000) = 38.

Instrument

The author-designed questionnaire created for this study was based on an interview protocol used as a course assignment in a Women's Leadership MBA course taught by one of the authors. The study instrument contained various demographic questions, one optional question for women to make any comment(s) they chose and the following five primary questions:

> 1) Has there been a time in your life when your personal and professional goals clashed or were not in balance? If so, please elaborate.
>
> 2) Do you see any differences between the way you balance your work and personal life from women in your family or workplace who are from different generations than you? If so, please elaborate.
>
> 3) How supportive have organizations for which you have worked been regarding your responsibilities and commitments outside of work? Please explain your response.
>
> 4) What impact does the above described level of organizational support have on the ability of women to move into organizational leadership positions?
>
> 5) Do women in your workplace help each other and have you noticed any change in the willingness of women to help each other over the span of your professional life? Please explain your response.

Procedure

The authors invited colleagues, family members, personal friends, and professional contacts to respond to the questionnaire. All participants were asked to forward the survey to other females they thought might like to participate. In addition, a link to the survey was also posted on various professional organizations' websites from whom the authors obtained permission. Data was collected over a three month period in the fall of 2012 with results maintained in Qualtrics, a web-based research surveying software program.

Responses were grouped according to generation. At the halfway point of data collection, the authors began to read through the participants' answers using Lincoln and Guba's (1985) and Strauss and Corbin's (1990) constant comparative analysis techniques. Responses were then analyzed again at the conclusion of the study. Credibility was established through the use of triangulation between the three authors.

Through the use of open coding (Boyatzis, 1998), the initial general framework, key word analysis, and extraction of phrases and contextual comments was determined. Next, emerging categories and over-arching themes were identified. Then, axial coding techniques were used to build a hierarchy of codes, categories and themes. Finally, selective coding was employed to generate key statements that resulted in a general theory.

Results

In examining the responses to each of the five primary research questions, some general themes emerged. Specific findings follow.

Question 1) Has there been a time in your life when your personal and professional goals clashed or were not in balance?

Generation Y women mentioned clashes such as:

> "Working an inconsistent, 50+ hour a week schedule didn't allow me the time to pursue personal interests, such as joining an intramural sports league and joining a Toastmasters Club" and

> Yes. My first job out of college was incredibly demanding and provided no opportunity for a healthy work-life balance. As a newlywed, my home life was very important to me. However, getting a good start to my career was also important.

Generation X and Baby Boomer participants frequently mentioned clashes regarding having and raising children (when they were younger) and helping with aging parents. Quotes from some of the participants which reflect these themes include "Yes - when my children were young and required my being available to pick them up after school. This conflict required my having to leave my job" and

> Yes, when I had an opportunity to accept a high paying, high profile, right up my alley kind of job, one of my parents became terminally ill. I chose my parent over the job. Some people did not understand that decision, but I have no regrets.

Question 2) Do you see any differences between the way you balance your work and personal life from women in your family or workplace who are from different generations than you?

Generation Y women often noted that one difference between them and older working generations is technology. As one woman stated:

> I think the generations in the past were more effective in balancing work and personal life. I feel this imbalance has been partly due to technology. Women today bring work home due to the internet and email. I feel this causes more of a grey line and therefore, the work/family lines to cross more often.

Generation X women, however, stated a difference between them and their older female relatives was that their relatives did not have to work and thus balance was easier to obtain. For example, this woman shared:

> Oh yeah...completely. Older generations of women don't seem to bother trying to have a career if they don't have too. The man is the breadwinner. The woman is the homemaker. Case closed. I am sure they look at my generation and shake their heads. I know my mother says, "I don't know how you do it all.

Some Baby Boomers made negative comments about the work ethic of younger generations. For example, one woman stated “Younger generations don't live to work. Baby Boomers live to work. We created the 80-hour week and feel guilty if we take time off.” Other Baby Boomers, however, wanted to share their life wisdom and encouraged younger women to give up on being “superwomen.”

Question 3) How supportive have organizations for which you have worked been regarding your responsibilities and commitments outside of work?

No generational differences surfaced for this question. Most participants said “yes” their organizations were supportive or it depended on where they were working. For example, one participant said:

> I find it varies on a boss-by-boss basis. My female bosses with families and young children, and are familiar with having to juggle many different roles, are generally more flexible. Male bosses, bosses with older children, or bosses without children are less forgiving and more demanding of my time outside of work. In my experience, they tend to believe that I'm available to work outside of standard work hours or on my vacation, and are more resentful when I take sick or vacation days.

Some women, such as this one, mentioned quitting jobs that did not provide the support they needed:

> Some have been more responsive than others. In my current position, things have been very flexible; however, when I had a purely administrative job the demands placed on me were great. The needs of the business typically came first particularly in our busiest times. Once I quite a job as a Director of Education because my daughter got sick and I needed to be with her more. The demands of the job did not allow this so I resigned.

Question 4) What impact does the above described level of organizational support have on the ability of women to move into organizational leadership positions?

Again, there were no generational differences on the responses to this question. Many respondents said something similar to this woman “It's vital. Without that support, many women are forced to choose, which shouldn't have to happen. Some women choose the career, some their families, either choice can have significant consequences."

Moving into leadership positions was also very situational to the industry in which the woman worked. Those who listed working in an Education sector, for example, were pleased with the opportunities to obtain leadership positions. Several women, however, noted that working in a male dominated industry made it more difficult to obtain a leadership position. As one woman said "My location within this organization is led by white males. We have 300 employees at this site. We have four women in second tier leadership roles but none at the highest level. I don't see a woman being offered a top tier leadership role here."

Question 5) Do women in your workplace help each other and have you noticed any change in the willingness of women to help each other over the span of your professional life?

As with the above two questions, there were no generational differences on the answers to this question. Support was very situational with women from all generations noting that their biggest supporters or "enemies" might be women. As one woman put it:

> I'd say "it depends." I've had some amazingly helpful women in my life and some amazingly nasty, stab you in the back to get ahead kind of women. Some women are really competitive against other women. I guess there are only so many good positions and if they help you there goes one!

Other women, such as this one, stated that being supported by women inspired her to help others:

> I have had several female mentors in my career, especially at my current company. Earlier in my career, I felt there was more backstabbing behavior. I haven't really experienced that lately. I try to act as a mentor and role model to other women in my workplace, letting them know that I work hard to achieve a level of work/life balance and that I state that as a priority with my boss. I think it helps them to know that it's an option and not one that will necessarily result in limitations on your growth potential.

Key statements that emerged from the above data were: a) Work-Life balance is an issue for all women, regardless of generation; b) Caregiving is the primary source of concern for women; c) Each generation had a somewhat negative view of how women from other generations balanced work and life commitments; and d) Many women chose not to pursue leadership positions at their workplace if they felt they could not have a healthy work-life balance. A general theory emerged from the data – women are attempting to integrate, rather than balance their multiple roles and commitments.

Discussion

The results of this research study indicate that the answer to Research Question 1 (*Has there been a time in your life when your personal and professional goals clashed and were not in balance?)* is clearly "yes". Gen Yers mentioned a hobby, vacation, church or volunteer commitment as being important in their personal lives and sometimes clashing with their professional lives. It is interesting to note that not one Gen. Xer or Baby Boomer mentioned those things; all of their balance issues had to do with caregiving.

Our findings on this research question supports the work of Jyothi and Jyothi (2012) who concluded that demands from family appear to increase over the years as the Gen Xers and especially Baby Boomers start to care for aging parents. Similarly, Guillaume and Pochic (2009) found that Gen X and Baby Boomers tended to sacrifice work to meet the needs of their families. Also, due to the current economy, some Baby Boomers and Gen Xers are providing for adult children who could not find jobs upon their graduation from college or lost their jobs due to the economy. Another interesting finding of the current study was that these two generations rarely mentioned husbands or partners or their role in helping with work/life balance issues.

Based upon our experience as educators, we believe it is possible that the Gen Yers may not have faced these family conflicts as much due to their age. Many of the Gen Yers we teach are just starting their careers and have yet to marry, have children or aging parents for which they care.

Regarding Research Question 2 (*Do you see any differences between the way you balance your work and personal life from women in your family or workplace who are from different generations than you?***)**, all generations, but especially the Gen. Xers, commented that their mothers, grandmothers, aunts, and other family members did not have to work or left a career to stay at home. Across the generations, women mentioned that balance had more to do with profession or field than generations. One person said the big difference is not generational, but whether or not people are parents.

Many of the Baby Boomers and some Gen Xers had negative comments about the work ethic of younger generations and seemed to think that the younger generations don't work as hard as them and favor doing family and fun things over their jobs. These comments seem to support Sonier's (2012) research that found Baby Boomers were company loyalists who expect their work to spill over into their personal lives. Younger generations, however, prefer more of a separation between work and play. In Hannay's and Fretwell's (2011) study, for example, they found that leisure is very important to Generation Y and stated "The veterans and the baby boomers were content to see work as the driving force in their lives. Gen X and Gen Y increasingly demand more work-life balance in the workplace" (pg. 4).

Our study, however, found that it was the Gen Yers who thought the older women stuck to a 9-5 schedule, didn't put in extra time, and did not have a problem of work-life balance like they did because of technology. These younger study participants said work is easier with technology and companies are more willing for women to work from home. However, they also feel the same technology can be a burden. Compared to Baby Boomers or Gen Xers, Gen Yers spend 50 percent more time than other generations online (Hellrigel & Slocum, 2009). Twenty six percent of professional women in another study felt they had to be connected to work all day, every day (Barsh, Cranston & Lewis, 2009). The Gen Yers in this study believed the boundaries between work and the rest of their lives were blurred, which was what Sarker, Sarker & Ahuja (2012) found regarding technology. For the Gen Yers in our study, it does not appear that technology is the missing link that brings women closer to achieving work-life balance but the catalyst that further deteriorates their work-life balance as they frantically try to do it all. A few Baby Boomers mentioned wanting to help the Gen Yers understand that they can’t be “superwomen” and that it is not worth it in the long run to pursue money, advancements, and titles if the personal costs are too high.

For Research Question 3 (*How supportive have organizations for which you have worked been regarding your responsibilities and commitments outside of work*?), the results indicated the women across all generations perceived they did have some organizational support. All respondents stated that the amount of support they had all depended upon where they worked. We did not find enough evidence, however, to support the notion that organizations are adapting and changing work environments to support both men and women in balancing their lives. An employer with flexible policies helps women be successful at both work and home (Owens, 2010).

One study respondent sums the findings for this question well:

> If women know there is support for both their career goals and the ability to manage their life, they are more likely to stay with a company and continue to grow and develop within that same organization. Women who lack organizational support are more likely to look elsewhere. Women need to know that it is possible to both strive for career goals and support their families at the same time.

Regarding Research Question 4 (*What impact does the above described level of organizational support have on the ability of women to move into organizational leadership positions?)* we found no generational differences. Several of the women mentioned that it is still a man's world and whether they could move into organizational leadership roles depended upon the profession. For example, those females who identified "education" seemed to be happy with their leadership opportunities. While others who indicated they were in more male-dominated professions shared that their chances of being promoted were slim.

Some Gen Xers shared that they had decided to stop trying to climb the corporate ladder as they perceived it wasn’t worth the effort or they could not make a difference in their organization. Other researchers concur noting that not pursuing leadership positions may also be due to the fact that women are often held to a higher standard of competence than men and have had to demonstrate superior performance to get promoted (Eagly & Carli, 2003).

. Finally, for Research Question 5 (*Do women in your workplace help each other and have you noticed any change in the willingness of women to help each other over the span of your professional life?)* we encountered a mixed response of both “yes” and “no” that seemed to be situational. The “yes” responses support the findings of Smith, Roebuck, and Maendler’s (2013) study that found younger aged women frequently answered ‘yes’ to the question of women supporting each other, while women in the older age brackets tended to use clarifying terms such as ‘depends.’ The “no” responses in this study continues to support the work of other research that suggests women in top leadership positions may resort to undermining tactics instead of supporting other women who follow in their footsteps (Hoyt & Simon, 2011; Rodgers- Healy, 2003; Roebuck & Smith, 2011). It appears some progress may be occurring but obviously women are still not as willing to help each other as men do and continue to view other women as competition instead of individuals they should mentor and help climb the corporate ladder. We did not deduct any industry or generational differences in the responses to this question. It was interesting to note that most negative responses on this question came from the Gen Y group.

Implications

Findings from this study indicate that organizations still need to further develop and employ creative strategies that allow women to pursue work/life balance or integration and assume work place leadership positions. As Howards and Wellins (2009) assert, "In today's sagging global economy, organizations that mentor and support women moving up the organizational ladder could well be one of the best survival strategies that an organization could undertake" (p. 3).

Barsh and Yee (2011) further challenge organizations noting that systemic and intentional cultural change must occur if organizations truly desire to help women advance. As our study participants shared, flexible work hours are not enough if the employees who take advantage of those seem to be overlooked when there are opportunities for promotion. Even when there are equal opportunities for promotion, some women choose to stay in their current positions. Senior level positions are often perceived to be political or lonely. Women value their relationships with their colleagues and don't want to forfeit the joy they derive from that. Many women also need to feel that their work matters or makes a difference (Barsh & Yee, 2011; Sturges, 1999). As Gerdes (2010) learned in her study of senior academic women, over half her respondents sought personal fulfillment through their work. Leadership positions which prevent women from being able to pursue that which matters most to them will not retain or attract women. One of our study participants shared:

> I do think that even in a female dominated industry, you will see that the vast majority of senior management are men. I really feel that is simply the choice of today's women. I stopped the climb to upper management because I saw that everybody in the next level up was divorced, separated and extremely unhappy. The job became their whole life. Once I realized that, I understood that it is more important for me to find balance and to be happy. I believe the reason why you do not see women at that level is because it is too demanding and will not allow for a balanced lifestyle. I believe men are more willing to climb the ladder out of tradition for the title, and women do not need the title to feel successful.

We encourage leadership educators to conduct scholarship which will better help us understand the complexities of leadership and identity or purpose for women.

Another implication of this study's findings is that organizations need to address generational clashes. As one participant noted, "The older generations at my firm expect longer hours and the younger generation expects more flexible working environments and schedules. It is actually an issue." Schullery (2013) notes that as multiple generations work side-by-side, exploring and understanding the underlying values of each can offer enlightenment toward creating a more engaged workforce. We suggest that Leadership Education curriculums incorporate generational learning experiences that might help prevent and resolve conflicts in organizations.

Unfortunately, as many of our study participants shared, individual women and the organizations for which they work still need to focus on establishing cultures in which women support and help each other more. Doing so is a win-win for both women and the companies in which they work (Evans, 2003). Additionally, women who learn to rely on other women and focus on across gender networking strategies tend to be more successful in both their careers and life in general (Wolf, 2011). Leadership Education courses that focus on women in leadership would be an excellent place to start an honest conversation on this topic.

Overall, the findings of this study indicate that institutions of higher learning should adapt curriculum to meet the needs of female students who aspire to leadership positions. Such curriculum adaptations could include units that help women develop important skills such as people management, personal, political, operations and career development (Tessens, White & Web, 2011). Leadership Education programs might also incorporate suggestions from researchers to organizations. For example, Ely, Ibarra and Kolb (2011) recommend that women's leadership development programs be developed that focus specifically on how to use 360 feedback to set goals, network and negotiate, lead change, and navigate career transitions. Leadership Education programs which connect theory to practice have a unique opportunity to impact future leaders. Courses that focus on coping strategies, goal setting, and integration of roles allow students the opportunity to reflect on issues that will be directly relevant to them in the workplace.

Limitations of Study

As is true of all research studies, our study is limited by the following conditions. First, all three authors are women who fall into the typical demographic of the majority of the study participants. It is possible we imposed on the data and drew upon our own experiences to come up with the themes, study statements and general theory. Second, the findings may not be transferable to the general population. The sample in this study is primarily white and well educated. Finally, the questions in the survey might be leading or poorly worded resulting in different interpretations by respondents.

Suggestions for Future Research

Any one of the five questions posed in this study could be a stand-alone study. By focusing on just one question, researchers could increase their sample size and learn whether or not the same concepts emerge. A related opportunity for further research would be to repeat the study with men to see if the same issues/concepts arise. Or, researchers could undertake a cross- cultural study to compare the results across countries and genders. Another interesting study might be to cross tabulate the results to look at intersections between demographic data such as ethnicity, type of industry and level of education and responses given. The current study just looked at the answers across the three generations. Finally, many participants provided their names for future contact. To expand the current study, follow up interviews or focus groups could be undertaken to determine if the key statements and general theory noted in this study held true or resonated with them.

Conclusion

As was mentioned at the end of the findings section, several key statements emerged from this study regarding work-life balance. The wellness model (Hettler, 1984) suggested there are six dimensions in our lives that should be in balance - occupational, intellectual, emotional, spiritual, physical, and social. When the term work/life is used, however, we imply that five of the dimensions are dumped into "life." It is easy to see how it is difficult to achieve balance and why men and women of all generations struggle trying to achieve it. Bone (2010) presents the notion of "fit" instead of "balance" because of the implication that individual women will make choices that are healthy for them and tailored to their unique situations.Other researchers, such as Barsh, Cranston and Lewis (2009) recommend that women let go and realize work/life balance may not exist. Instead they recommend women consider work and home commitments in a new light.

Could that new light be called the integration of work and life instead of work-life balance? Golder (2013), a role integration coach and author thinks so. She strives to help women integrate multiple roles without sacrificing their success, health or peace of mind. Golder recommends women know their passion and purpose so they can make wise choices each day regarding how to live a fulfilled life instead of worrying about work-life balance. The data which emerged from this study seems to suggest that women indeed are attempting to integrate, rather than balance their multiple roles and commitments. As leadership educators, our challenge is to create relevant and focused leadership programs for female students. If we equip our female students with the necessary knowledge and skills when they graduate, they will possess the confidence, tools, and tactics to lead our organizations into the next century.

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Self-Perceived Career and Interpersonal Skills Gained from Participation on a Collegiate Livestock Judging Team

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Abstract

Collegiate livestock judging is primarily an extracurricular activity that reinforces concepts taught in the classroom. Previous research has determined that participating on a livestock judging team can aid in the development of perceived life skills. Participants of this study indicated that their experience on a collegiate team helped them develop professional public speaking skills, learn the value of hard work and dedication, and be task and goal-oriented.

Introduction

Livestock judging has long been a part of the 4-H organization and the middle and high school agricultural education program. Starting around 1920, boys who were 4-H members were encouraged to participate in livestock judging contests and received instruction from Extension Agents (Murray, Tabor, Driftmier, Bennett, King, & University of Georgia Agricultural Alumni Association, 1975, p.72). Then in 1926, the American Royal Livestock Show extended an invitation to vocational agriculture students to participate in the National Livestock Judging Contests in Kansas City, Missouri (National FFA Organization Records, 2013). The Future Farmers of America (FFA) would later be established in 1928 at this same contest (National FFA Organization Records, 2013).

Not only has livestock judging been a part of the 4-H and FFA organizations, it has also been a long-established sector of the collegiate curriculum. Within land-grant universities, the curriculum often includes courses that teach "practical work in stock judging" (Wheeler, 1948). Livestock judging is primarily an extracurricular activity that reinforces concepts taught in the classroom such as conformation, soundness, and breed characteristics (Cavinder, Byrd, Franke, & Holub, 2011). From its initial foundation in 4-H and FFA, livestock judging on the collegiate level has become a highly competitive and prestigious activity. In 2013, twenty-five junior college teams and thirty-one senior college teams competed for top honors at the American Royal Livestock Judging Contest (American Royal College Contests, 2013).

As defined by Kays (1937), "Livestock judging consists of making a careful analysis of animals and measuring them against a standard commonly accepted as the ideal" (pg. 177). This ideal is referred to as the *type* for each species of livestock (Kays, 1937). Animals are grouped into a set of four and participants must rank the animals from most desirable to least desirable as they compare them to the ideal. Each set is comprised of the same species, sex, and purpose (e.g., a set of four Angus steers). The purpose of livestock judging is to critically evaluate livestock in order to bring about improvement for future progeny (Kays, 1937, Nash & Sant, 2005). Participants must consider a variety of factors in order to correctly rank the livestock. Phelps and Shanteau (1978) determined that livestock judges simultaneously utilize nine to eleven pieces of information when evaluating livestock. The participants must then utilize this information to form a set of oral reasons that establishes and justifies their ranking, and then present these reasons to a judge. Although Kays (1937) pointed out the value of oral reasoning for livestock judging events, oral reasons were not a part of many contests until much later. Correct placing along with appropriate and fluent livestock terminology is essential. This includes numerous interpersonal skills.

Previous studies have been conducted to evaluate the benefits of livestock judging through youth organizations in the development of interpersonal skills, such as oral communication and decision-making. According to Rusk, Martin, Talbert, and Balschweid (2002), the top four skills 4-H alumni claimed as being a result of their participation in livestock judging were "… the ability to verbally defend a decision, livestock industry knowledge, oral communication, and decision-making" (p.5). Nash and Sant (2005) discovered that livestock judging improved animal industry knowledge of 4-H members and was "moderately influential on the development of communication, decision-making, problem-solving, self-discipline, self-motivation, teamwork, and organization" (pg. 1). Additionally, 4-H participation in general was linked to participants having a greater development of perceived life skills (Boyd, Herring, & Briers, 1992). Although these studies provide evidence that livestock judging participation through youth organizations can lead to the development of interpersonal and life skills and impacted participants' lives, further investigation on a collegiate level is needed to fully validate the value of livestock judging participation. The current study investigated the value of collegiate livestock judging participation on interpersonal and life skills.

Livestock judging can also influence interpersonal, life, and career skills. A 2011 study conducted at Texas A&M University evaluating the effects of collegiate livestock judging participation on life skill development found that the experience had a positive influence on participants' career and interpersonal skills (Cavinder, Byrd, Franke, & Holub, 2011). The career component included skills such as communication, time management, and self-assertiveness (Cavinder et al., 2011). The interpersonal skills component included areas such as confidence with authority, task and goal priority, and ability to work well with others (Cavinder et al., 2011). The ranking of these skills in each of these areas by participants was positively related to livestock judging participation (Cavinder et al., 2011).

Life skills developed through livestock judging are among those most desirable to employers. A National Association of Public and Land-grant Universities (APLU) study of seven soft-skill clusters consisting of communication, decision-making/problem solving, self-management, teamwork, professionalism, experiences, and leadership skills was conducted to determine which soft skills employers seek in new college graduates (Crawford, Lang, Fink, Dalton, & Fielitz 2011). Of these seven clusters, the top two ranked by employers were communication and decision-making/problem solving (Crawford et al., 2011). Within the communication cluster are skills such as listening effectively, communicating accurately and efficiently, and effective oral communication (Crawford et al., 2011). The decision-making/problem solving cluster includes recognizing and analyzing problems, taking effective and appropriate actions, and realizing the effects of those actions (Crawford et al., 2011). Following these two clusters is the self-management cluster, consisting of working efficiently, self-starting, and well-developed work ethic, integrity and sense of loyalty (Crawford et al., 2011). As evidenced in the 2011 APLU study, there are a cadre of items related to "soft-skills" that new hires should be capable of performing in the work place. The current study will seek to identify which of the aforementioned cluster items may be gleaned from participating on a collegiate livestock judging team.

Theoretical Framework

As previously mentioned, participants on a livestock judging team are required to experientially identify and argue their placings of livestock based on a set of industry standards. Experiential learning has long been the foundation of youth organizations such as the FFA and 4-H as well as a central component of the college curriculum. As defined by Kolb (1984), "…[experiential] learning is described as a process whereby concepts are derived from and continuously modified by experience" (p.26). After evaluating similar previous theories set forth by Lewin, Dewey, and Piaget, Kolb formulated a model illustrating the process of experiential learning as seen in Figure 1 (Kolb, 1984).

The four primary steps within this model are concrete experience, reflecting on an observation, forming abstract ideas, and active experimentation (Walker, Morgan, Ricketts, & Duncan, 2008). Although those participating in experiential learning may enter the cycle at different stages, the sequence must be followed as illustrated in Figure 1 (Kolb, 1984; Walker et al., 2008). The focus on implementing experiential learning in youth organizations such as the FFA is perhaps best illustrated by their motto, "Learning to Do, Doing to Learn, Earning to Live, Living to Serve" (National FFA Organization Records, 2013).

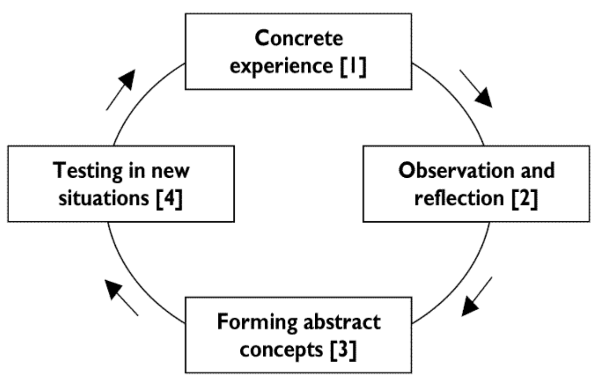

Figure 1. **The Experiential Learning Cycle (Kolb, 1984)**

Livestock judging fits nicely into the experiential learning model. Participants evaluate sets of animals as previously described and quickly decide their beneficial attributes as well as those that may make the livestock less functional for a producer. This fulfills the concrete experience stage as well as the observation and reflection stages of Kolb's Experiential Learning Cycle (1984). Participants must then form an oral set of reasons that accurately describes the attributes of each animal and provides validation for the rank of each animal within the set; this completes the stage of forming abstract ideas. Lastly, participants must give this analysis to a panel of judges that evaluate their accuracy, competency, and fluency in terms of livestock. The presentation of these oral reasons to a judge completes the experiential learning cycle with active experimentation. The decisions participants made, and the terms they utilized in their oral reasons will determine the score they receive from the judge. Through livestock judging, participants are continuously participating in the experiential learning cycle.

Critical thinking is described by Facione (1998) as when a person "…uses a core set of cognitive skills--analysis, interpretation, inference, explanation, evaluation, and self-regulation-- to form that judgment and to monitor and improve the quality of that judgment" (Facione, Sanchez & Facione, 1994, p.4). Facione et al. (1994) goes further to state that "…[critical thinking] skills are to be used to address problems, consider alternatives, and make decisions about what to believe or what to do in every area of human life" (p.4). This is congruent with the many processes occurring when individuals participate in livestock judging both at the youth organization level and especially at the collegiate level. Through participants' individual analysis of sets of livestock, they are utilizing all of these cognitive skills described above.

The ability to critically think has been proven as a skill that can be learned (Facione, 1998). Therefore, individuals who participate in livestock judging, an activity that requires critical thinking are developing critical thinking skills through their participation. The capacity of collegiate individuals to think critically has been significantly correlated with college GPA and reading comprehension (Facione, 1998). College graduates with strong critical thinking skills are desired by employers.

Methodology

The purpose of this study was to identify which of the soft-skills described by Crawford et al. (2011) result from participating on a collegiate livestock judging team. For the purposes of this study, the researcher modified an existing survey instrument constructed by Cavinder (2011) who conducted a similar study at Texas A&M University (Cavinder et al., 2011). The two main constructs (career and interpersonal attributes) remained the same for this study. However, the questions were significantly modified in their wording and order of answer choices by following Dillman's (2009) protocol on survey construction to make the survey more personable and clear to participants (Dillman, Smyth, & Christian, 2009). A more extensive demographics section was also added to provide a clearer picture of participant characteristics.

The target population for this study was past and present participants on the University of [Georgia's] Livestock Judging team from 2007 to 2013. The reasoning for this time span was that during the 2007-2013 seasons, team members were trained by the same coach at the University. The total number of participants between 2007 and 2013 was forty. A pilot study was conducted to establish reliability and validity of the revised instrument, which therefore eliminated ten participants from being part of the final survey group. Five participants of the pilot study were randomly selected from the 2013 team roster and five alumni were randomly selected. After the initial survey was distributed to the pilot group through an email attachment, the instrument was then coded and responses were entered into a spreadsheet. Seven of the ten completed the pilot survey. Cronbach's alpha values were used as an indicator of internal consistency in responses to constructs on the revised instrument and alphas for the constructs ranged from 0.83 to 0.92. These reliability findings, in addition to feedback from a panel of experts who examined the instrument for face and content validity, informed the minor changes to the final instrument.

The revised survey was entered into Qualtrics and Dillman's (2009) recommendations were again followed for Internet survey distribution (Dillman et al., 2009). Prior to distributing the survey to the thirty remaining participants (excluding the 10 from the pilot sample), an introductory email was sent to make participants aware of the survey link to come. Three days later, an email was sent to participants containing an embedded link for the Qualtrics survey. A week later from the date that the embedded link was sent, an email was sent containing a second link and expressing appreciation for those who had already completed the survey and urging those that had not to do so. A final reminder email was sent a week later to once again thank participants and remind those who had yet to respond to respond soon.

Results

The final sample for the study was 30 participants. Of the 30, 22 completed the survey, resulting in a 73% response rate. An independent sample's t-test was run to compare early and late respondents on the career skills construct. No significant difference was found between early and late respondents on this construct at the $\alpha = 0.05$ level ($p = 0.818$). An independent sample's t-test was also run to compare early and late respondents on the interpersonal skills construct. No significant difference was found between early and late respondents on this construct ($p = 0.809$).

In a review of research literature spanning ten years, Lindner, Murphy, and Briers (2001) concluded that "both early/late comparison and follow-up with non-respondents are defensible and generally accepted procedures for handling non-response error as a threat to external validity of research findings" (p.51). Additionally, Radhakrishna and Doamekpor (2008) indicate that if no significant difference is found between early and late respondents, then the findings from the sample may be representative of the population. Therefore, since there were no significant differences between early and late respondents, the findings of the study may be representative of the larger population of collegiate livestock judging participants at the University.

Participants were composed of eleven male and eleven female individuals [50% male, 50% female]. Individuals were an average age of 24.77, with a range of 22 to 29 years.
Of those that responded, thirteen (59%) had participated in livestock judging through the FFA or 4-H. The average number of years in FFA or 4-H for those that had judged through these organizations was 6.92 years. Those that had participated in livestock judging at a junior college prior to attending the University of Georgia were also accounted for and totaled four (18%). The majority of those who were part of the livestock judging team at the University of Georgia had not previously judged livestock at a junior college (82%). Eleven participants (50%) currently served as an official judge for livestock exhibitions in FFA and 4-H.

All of the participants had received training from the same coach while they participated on the livestock judging team at the University of Georgia. Of the twenty-two that responded, all had received or were currently pursuing a Bachelor's Degree. Areas of study included Animal Science (15), Agricultural Education (5), Agricultural Engineering (1), and Agricultural

Communication (1). Of the twenty-two that responded, nine earned or were currently working towards earning their Master's Degree (41%). The majority of these Master's Degrees were in an agricultural field (8) with one in Adult Education and Community Leadership. There were four that had received or were currently pursuing a Doctoral Degree (18%). Areas of study included Veterinary Medicine (3) and Ruminant Nutrition (1). Additionally, the majority of respondents were also livestock producers (59%). Beef cattle were the primary species produced followed by dairy cattle (92% and 8% respectively). The scale of these operations ranged from 15 to 300 animals. Additionally, current career positions of respondents included high school Agricultural Education teachers, employees of Agriculture Industry Companies, professors, and farmers.

The instrument contained two constructs with moderately strong reliabilities. The Cronbach's Alpha for the career skills construct was 0.787, and the Cronbach's Alpha for the interpersonal skills construct was 0.887. There were nine items in the career skills construct. Participants indicated their level of agreement with each statement in reference to their experience on a collegiate livestock judging team. Each of these items was on a scale of one to five (1=Strongly Disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=Neutral, 4=Agree, 5=Strongly Agree). Therefore, the minimum summed score for this construct was nine and the maximum summed score for this construct was forty-five. The item with the highest mean within the construct was the statement "I developed a professional public speaking ability, which can be used to reach a variety of audiences" with a mean of 4.76. The second highest item was "I learned the value of hard work and dedication to a common team goal" with a mean of 4.57. The item with the lowest mean was "I built my self-esteem" with a mean of 4.14. However, although the statement "I learned to interrelate with a diverse personality group" had a mean of 4.24, it brought down the construct more significantly than any other items within the construct. If this item were to be deleted, the Cronbach's Alpha for the career skills construct would have increased from 0.787 to 0.844. The ranking of each item can be seen in Table 1.

Table 1
Career Skills Construct

Cronbach's Alpha	0.787		
Item	*Mean*	*St. Deviation*	*Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted*
I developed a professional public speaking ability, which can be used to reach a variety of audiences.	4.76	0.436	0.766
I learned the value of hard work and dedication to a common team goal.	4.57	0.507	0.768
I learned how to be self-assertive.	4.43	0.598	0.753
I learned to control anxiety in stressful situations while maintaining my composure and focus.	4.33	0.658	0.749
I developed the ability to respect others' opinions.	4.33	0.658	0.737

I learned how to maintain my personal opinion while still being open minded to the suggestions of others.	4.33	0.577	0.764
I developed strong time management skills.	4.33	0.658	0.729
I learned to interrelate with a diverse personality group.	4.24	0.831	0.844
I built my self-esteem.	4.14	0.910	0.768

Note: Scale 1-5 (1=Strongly Disagree, 5=Strongly Agree)

The Cronbach's Alpha for the interpersonal skills construct was 0.887. This construct consisted of eight items, and participants indicated how much their participation on a collegiate livestock judging team helped to develop abilities in each area. The scale for each item was a numeric value of one to ten (1= low influence and 10= high influence). This gave the interpersonal skills construct a minimum summed score of eight and a maximum summed score of eighty. The interpersonal skill that was ranked the highest was the ability to "Communicate verbally with others" with a mean of 9.38. The ability to "Be task and goal oriented" with a mean of 9.00 ranked second. The interpersonal skill with the lowest mean score was the ability to "Be patient" with a mean of 6.67. The removal of this item would have actually brought up the Cronbach's Alpha of the construct to 0.915 (Table 2).

Table 2
Interpersonal Skills Construct

Cronbach's Alpha	0.887		
Item	*Mean*	*St. Deviation*	*Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted*
Communicate verbally with others.	9.38	1.024	0.860
Be task and goal oriented.	9.00	1.612	0.867
Be confident in social situations.	8.95	1.359	0.872
Be confident as a leader.	8.76	1.513	0.857
Be confident with authority figures.	8.67	1.461	0.862
Work well with others.	8.19	1.365	0.874
Be assertive with others.	7.76	1.546	0.871
Be patient.	6.67	1.880	0.915

Note: Scale 1-10 (1=low influence; 10=high influence)

An independent sample's t-test was run to compare participants who had judged at a junior college prior to competing on the University of Georgia's livestock judging team and those that had not previously judged at a junior college for the career skills construct. No significant differences were found between the two groups [t=-0.487, p=0.631, mean of yes=40.25, mean of no=39.27 at the α= 0.05 level]. An independent sample's t-test was run to compare participants who had judged at a junior college prior to competing on the University of Georgia's livestock judging team and those that had not previously judged at a junior college for the interpersonal skills construct. No significant differences were found between the two groups [t=-0.374, p=0.713, mean of yes=69.00, mean of no=67.16 at the α= 0.05 level]. These values can be seen in Table 3.

Table 3
Junior College Experience Prior to Senior College (T-test)

Construct	*Judged at a Junior College?*	*Number*	*Mean*	*St. Deviation*	*t-value*	*p-value*
Career Skills	No	18	39.27	3.083	-0.487	0.631
	Yes	4	40.25	5.737		
Interpersonal Skills	No	18	67.16	9.463	-0.374	0.713
	Yes	4	69.00	4.242		

An independent sample's t-test was run to compare males and females within the career skills construct. No significant differences were found between the two groups [t=1.486, p=0.159, mean of males=40.54, mean of females=38.36 at the α= 0.05 level]. An independent sample's t-test was run to compare males and females within the interpersonal skills construct. No significant differences were found between the two groups [t=1.959, p=0.074, mean of males=70.90, mean of females=64.09 at the α= 0.05 level]. These values can be seen in Table 4.

Table 4
Males vs. Females within Each Construct (T-test)

Construct	*Gender*	*Number*	*Mean*	*St. Deviation*	*t-value*	*p-value*
Career Skills	Male	11	40.54	2.067	1.486	0.159
	Female	11	38.36	4.140		
Interpersonal Skills	Male	11	70.90	3.330	1.959	0.074
	Female	11	64.09	11.049		

Conclusions

The sample was comprised of participants who had participated on the University of Georgia's Livestock Judging Team from 2007 to 2013. Participants consisted equally of males and females and ranged in age from 22 to 29 years of age. Of these, thirteen (59%) had participated in livestock judging through 4-H or FFA. A total of four participants (18%) had participated in livestock judging at a junior college prior to attending the University of Georgia. Additionally, at the time of the study, eleven participants (50%) had served as an official judge for 4-H and FFA livestock exhibition events in which they judge and place youth livestock projects.

Nearly all participants had received or were currently pursuing a Bachelor's Degree. Nine (41%) respondents had earned or were currently working towards a Master's Degree, and four (18%) had received or were currently pursuing a Doctoral Degree. Current positions of respondents included students, high school agricultural education teachers, agriculture industry companies, professors, and farmers. Of these, fifty-nine percent of participants were also livestock producers, primarily beef cattle.

In the career skills construct, the order of means of each item indicated the influence of livestock judging on participants' development of career skills. From the data gathered, respondents most strongly developed public speaking ability through their participation in collegiate livestock judging. Following public speaking ability were skills such as hard work and dedication to a common team goal and the ability to be self-assertive. Overall, participants agreed with the items in the career skills construct [4=Agree, M>4.00].

In the interpersonal skills construct, the ability to verbally communicate with others was the skill most strongly developed through collegiate livestock judging. This was followed by the ability to be task and goal oriented. The next three items referring to the development of confidence were all ranked within a very close range of each other (M=8.95 to M=8.67). In order of mean values, these items were confidence in social situations, confidence as a leader, and confidence with authority figures. The item that was ranked least was the ability to be patient with a mean of 6.67. Cavinder, Byrd, Franke, and Holub (2011) also had patience as the skill least developed through participation in collegiate livestock judging. Although patience had the lowest mean within the interpersonal skills construct, none of the items within the construct had a low mean (<5.00), indicating low influence of livestock judging participation.

The skills developed through participation on a livestock judging team in both constructs were related to verbal communication. In the career skills construct, respondents indicated the development of professional public speaking ability. In the interpersonal skills construct, respondents indicated the development of the ability to communicate verbally with others. Oral communication was ranked as one of the top four skills 4-H alumni claimed as being a result of their participation in livestock judging (Rusk, Martin, & Balschweid, 2002). In another study conducted by Nash and Sant (2005), Idaho 4-H alumni indicated that their participation in livestock judging was "moderately influential on the development of communication, decision-making, problem-solving, self-discipline, self-motivation, teamwork, and organization" (pg. 1). The results of this study support findings of previous studies.

The importance of these skills is not to be taken lightly. In a survey reported in TIME magazine, more than 60% of employers stated that applicants were lacking in the areas of "communication and interpersonal skills" (White, 2013). In another survey within the same article, employers were found to have difficulty in finding applicants with skills such as "communication, creativity and collaboration" (White, 2013). In a national study of seven soft-skill clusters consisting of communication, decision-making/problem solving, self-management, teamwork, professionalism, experiences, and leadership skills, employers ranked the communication cluster and decision-making/problem solving cluster as the top two most important (Crawford et al., 2011). The career skills and interpersonal skills developed through participation in livestock judging support these areas deemed as important by employers. Therefore, the skills participants develop through collegiate livestock judging are not only applicable in contests, but also later in their professional careers.

Recommendations for Practice

The data from this study and the data collected in previous studies evaluating similar life-skills developed through participation in livestock judging validate the time, money and efforts put into livestock judging programs, specifically at the collegiate level (Rusk, Martin, Talbert, & Balschweid, 2002, Nash & Sant, 2005, Cavinder, Byrd, Franke, & Holub, 2011). Students in youth livestock judging programs should be encouraged to continue on to eventually compete at the collegiate level. The skills participants obtain are not only beneficial at the time of the contest, but also contribute to success later in life by developing skills in demand by employers.

Additionally, funds for collegiate livestock judging programs should remain in tact and hopefully grow to support student travels to practices and contests. The students' successes should also be highlighted to not only give participants recognition, but also promote the program to other students. By providing support and promotion for livestock judging programs, contributors are aiding students to participate in the experiential learning cycle and enhance their critical thinking skills (Kolb, 1984, Facione et al., 1994, Facione, 1998). This prepares participants to be a marketable individual in the workplace.

Recommendations for Research

In order to get a more accurate picture of the skills gained through livestock judging in future studies, a few recommendations can be made. First, a larger and more diverse sample of students would strengthen the conclusions drawn from this study. A larger sample may also allow for stronger comparisons to be made between students who are demographically similar but did not participate in livestock judging. Second, a deeper investigation of the potential influence of the coach is needed. In this study, all participants had exposure to the same coach. What proportion of student growth can be attributed to the coach versus the livestock judging experience overall? Finally, in reference to Table 5, the t-value for the interpersonal skills construct is on the borderline of indicating a significant difference in males and females ($t=1.959$). To further investigate the differences in development of interpersonal skills from participation in livestock judging, focus groups of each gender are needed. Small focus groups divided by gender would allow researchers to pinpoint the interpersonal skills that females feel they more strongly develop through livestock judging. This should be done with each gender separately so that the female participants are not influenced by and do not influence the males. Focus groups could allow researchers to incorporate or eliminate items from the survey instrument in order to improve instrument validity and reliability.

Implications

Although the Cronbach's Alphas were strong for each construct and the data supported findings in previous studies, one has to recognize that there were a small number of respondents in this study ($N=22$). Additionally, the same individual coached all participants of this study at the same college. Conducting this study on a larger scale would provide stronger data that may further illustrate the benefits of participating in livestock judging. As such, one recommendation would be to conduct a similar study, but on a regional or national scale. Researchers could compare results of participants by region, and data from individuals who have competed on livestock judging teams could also be compared to their successes at various contests such as the American Royal Livestock Show.

Additionally, the average amount of time spent practicing as well as the number of contests participants competed in could also be factored in to determine to what extent participation in livestock judging contributed to the development of particular life skills. Finally, the attributes of the coaches involved should also be factored into future studies. Certain characteristics of coaches may have a greater influence on participants' development of particular life skills.

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Examining the Scope of Agricultural Leadership Education

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Abstract

Agricultural leadership education is an important component of agricultural education programs across the country, yet a national study of the scope and types of programs offered has not been conducted since 2003 (Fritz et al.). The purpose of the current study was to provide national and timely data regarding the scope and type of opportunities offered in agricultural leadership education. Of the 56 responding institutions, 41 indicated offering agricultural leadership education opportunities. The types of opportunities offered include leadership majors, minors, options, foci, industry programs, graduate student programs, undergraduate programs and leadership courses. Leadership courses and minors were identified as the two agricultural leadership education opportunities with the highest student enrollment, serving an estimate of 7,904 and 1,581 students respectively. Leadership minors were also found to serve the highest proportion of students outside of Colleges of Agriculture. Responding faculty members in agricultural leadership education perceived the continued growth of leadership opportunities within their institution. Additionally, the majority of responding faculty identified moderate to substantial support for their agricultural leadership education endeavors from their home department, university colleagues and the agriculture industry. Implications and recommendations for the future of agricultural leadership education are discussed.

Introduction

Like most disciplines, agricultural education has evolved. What began with teacher education as its primary mission has evolved into a dynamic discipline incorporating multiple interest areas including teacher education, agricultural leadership, agricultural communications, Extension education, and international programs to name a few. In 2005, a 27-member team met to begin work on “the first national research agenda to be developed and formally embraced by the broader discipline of agricultural education and communication” (Osborne, 2007, p. 2). Their work began by identifying “draft research priorities for each of the five major dimensions of the discipline” (Osborne, 2007, p. 2) which the team identified as: Agricultural Communications, Agricultural Leadership, Agricultural Education in Domestic and International Settings: Extension & Outreach, Agricultural Education in University and Postsecondary Settings, and Agricultural Education in Schools.

While agricultural leadership may not have been the primary focus within agricultural education departments early on, Phipps, Osborne, Dyer, and Ball (2008) noted that leadership education has been a key component of agricultural education since its inception. Similarly, Townsend and Fritz (n.d.) stated, "leadership training has a rich heritage in Colleges of Agriculture and most departments of Agricultural Education can trace a history of leadership education for decades" (p. 19).

In the early 1990s, agricultural educators began calling for the programmatic diversification of agricultural education departments. Barrick (1993) proposed an agricultural education department conceptual model consisting of four components (Teaching and Learning, Human Resource Development and Management, Communication and Research Methodology, and Data Analysis) and identified the Human Resource Development and Management component as a missing element from agricultural education departments of the time. Newcomb (1993) also identified leadership as an important programmatic emphasis area to be included in agricultural education departments, stating in his Distinguished Lecture at the 1993 American Association for Agricultural Education (AAAE) annual meeting, "no area of the campus is better equipped to meet this need than agricultural education departments" (p. 5).

According to the National Research Agenda: Agricultural Education and Communication, 2007-2010 (Osborne, 2007),

> What is the place of leadership education within colleges of agriculture? What is the role of agricultural leadership educators as they tackle the serious task of preparing their clientele to face the changing world of agriculture and life sciences? Certainly, leadership education has a rich history in university-based academic programs in agriculture, and most departments of agricultural education have provided the bulk of this instruction for decades. As far back as the early 1900s, leadership educators have been formally prepared to advise FFA and 4-H members…Scholars are discovering theories for effective agricultural leadership and are using those basic principles to develop successful agricultural leadership education programs. (p. 12)

While calls have been made for the development of agricultural leadership programs, there is a lack of recent, published studies which examine the current nationwide scope of agricultural leadership. Individual programs from across the nation are left to wonder about the prevalence and size of other agricultural leadership programs. Furthermore, as budgets tighten, and departments consider the funding for individual programs, an understanding of the nationwide impact of agricultural leadership may aid in determining the growth potential and long-term sustainability of agricultural leadership programs.

Conceptual Framework

Two studies conducted within the agricultural education discipline, and more specifically within the agricultural leadership dimension, have attempted to document the number of agricultural education departments incorporating leadership education into their programmatic foci. Brown and Fritz (1994) surveyed all four-year, post-secondary institutions whose departmental title contained the words "agricultural education" about leadership and human resource management/development (HRM/D) courses offered. A total of 88 specific course leadership and HRM/D titles were identified by study participants as being offered through departments of agricultural education. Study authors concluded, “sixty-five percent of the 55 four-year, post-secondary agricultural education departments surveyed in this study reported that they offered courses of this type” (Brown & Fritz, 1994, pp. 4-5). The Brown and Fritz (1994) study also examined enrollment history of the courses offered, faculty characteristics of individuals teaching leadership courses, student reactions toward the leadership courses, and institutional support for leadership courses.

Fritz et al. (2003) surveyed department heads and chairs to “provide a description of leadership courses offered in departments of agricultural education” (p. 19). Sixty-eight percent of respondents indicated their department offered leadership courses, however, it must be noted that only 41 of the 92 departments (45%) participated in the study. In this study, 82 specific courses were identified as being taught in departments of agricultural education, yet one-third did not contain the word leadership in the title. Authors also described the type of students who took the courses (i.e. outside the college), student enrollment in the courses, student attitudes toward the courses, faculty characteristics of those teaching the courses, the ease or difficulty of getting courses approved at the college and university levels, and whether or not respondents were considering adding a faculty member in the area of leadership and HRM/D. Results led the authors to conclude “leadership education is a recognized component of collegiate agricultural education departments” (Fritz et al., 2003, p. 21).

While Birkenholz and Simonsen (2011) reported that nine of the 10 distinguished agricultural education programs in the county included specializations in leadership, it has been more than a decade since agricultural leadership programs have been quantitatively described and documented as a part of the more broadly defined agricultural education discipline. Since the last study that could be located was conducted, new majors and minors in agricultural leadership have been created. Pennington and Weeks (2006) stated, “in 2004, the American Association of [for] Agricultural Education determined that there were eight departments of agricultural education offering an area of study focused in leadership” (p. 42). However, the first to include leadership in the title, and the first officially recognized undergraduate major in Agricultural Leadership, was created in the College of Agricultural Sciences and Natural Resources at Oklahoma State University and housed in the Department of Agricultural Education, Communications, and 4-H Youth Development (Pennington & Weeks, 2006). To further develop programs and program understanding, the National Research Agenda in Priority 5: Efficient and Effective Agricultural Education Programs (Doerfert, 2011) calls for “accurate and reliable data that describes the quality and impact of educational programs and outreach efforts at all levels” (p. 10). Thus, it is important to determine and describe the current scope of agricultural leadership education programs within agricultural education in higher education today.

Purpose & Objectives

As agricultural education continues to evolve so does agricultural leadership education. This study attempts to describe the current state of agricultural leadership education by identifying the number and types of opportunities offered, the students enrolled in these opportunities, and responding faculty members’ perceptions of past enrollment, future enrollment and support. By describing agricultural leadership education, this study seeks to provide timely, national data highlighting the impact of leadership efforts through agricultural education. The specific objectives of this study were to:

1. Identify the number and enrollment of agricultural leadership opportunities (major, minor, option, focus area, program, course and industry);
2. Define the distribution of students based on home department, College of Agriculture and university;
3. Determine faculty perceptions of past and future enrollment in agricultural leadership education; and
4. Identify the perceived levels of support provided by the department, university colleagues, agricultural industry, and the American Association for Agricultural Education (AAAE).

Methods

One of the inherent difficulties when researching agricultural leadership education is the development and establishment of a population frame. Agricultural leadership is often embedded within departments that do not evidence leadership in the department title and are not readily identifiable through an internet search. Furthermore, many departments may only offer one or two courses that are relatively unknown to others in the agricultural leadership profession and at times, others in the department. Evidence of the difficulty in establishing a consistent frame can be found by examining the frames of the last two similar studies (Fritz & Brown, 1998; Fritz et al., 2003).

In 1998, Fritz and Brown reported 53 departments as their population frame. Their frame was identified by examining the AAAE directory and was limited to only departments that contained agricultural education in the title. Fritz et al. (2003) were the last to publish a study examining the scope and breadth of agricultural leadership education. Their frame consisted of 92 departments listed in the AAAE directory.

The frame for this research consisted of all departments or programs in the United States currently engaged in agricultural education. For this research, the authors began establishing a population frame by examining the member lists of AAAE and identifying programs engaged in agricultural education. Analysis revealed 81 such departments or programs. Given the historic difficulty in determining the specific agricultural departments or programs that offer agricultural leadership education, the authors chose to send email solicitations to the entire identified population frame. The researchers were unable to make contact with a select faculty member from five institutions; therefore the useable frame included 76 departments or programs.

The researchers in this study found that, after identifying a frame, the next challenge was to identify a single individual in the department who could provide the enrollment, course, and department information needed. In prior studies, the survey was sent to the department heads; however, given the type of information requested, the researchers believed that in some cases, the information would be more readily available and attainable by direct contact with faculty members. To address this, a list of the individuals initially identified in the frame were examined by a panel of 4 faculty members and one graduate student involved in agricultural leadership education. Collectively, this panel of experts had 55 years of experience in agricultural leadership education. The panel reviewed the frame and provided comments on the appropriateness of the listed contact individual. Several changes were made to the recipient list resulting in a final list, containing a mix of both department heads and faculty members, which identified a single individual from each department or program. While the authors made every effort to establish a trustworthy frame and develop a valid instrument, as with all survey research, the data provided was dependent on the truthfulness of respondents.

Instrumentation

The researchers examined prior survey research instruments utilized in two similar studies (Fritz & Brown, 1998; Fritz et al., 2003). After review of the prior literature, the researchers compiled a similar survey instrument that requested the data necessary to address the objectives of the study. The survey instrument was then reviewed by a panel of experts consisting of four faculty members within agricultural leadership education and one graduate student. Changes were made to enhance the clarity of the questions and refine the electronic instrumentation format. If/then logic was used within the survey to eliminate questions that participants indicated did not pertain to them. This greatly enhanced the survey and resulted in an average response time of 7-12 minutes.

Data Collection

Using the finalized list of contact individuals, the authors sent out a request to participate to all 76 individuals identified. The initial contact email also contained a request to notify the researchers if the email was not sent to the most appropriate individual within the department or program to provide enrollment, course, and department data. This initial invite resulted in seven notifications of more appropriate contact individuals. The frame was then further refined and the authors sent out the survey via the online survey provider Qualtrics. Dillman's Tailored Design method (2000) was utilized as a guide to conduct this research and participants received an initial invitation and up to three email reminders. Given the wide disparity in the size of agricultural leadership programs, ranging from single courses to programs with full academic majors and minors, the researchers did not attempt to generalize the findings to the entire frame. Therefore, after four email solicitations, no further attempt was made to follow up with nonrespondents.

The researchers received a total of 56 useable instruments resulting in a 74% response rate. Of the respondents, 15 programs indicated that they do not currently offer any agricultural leadership education coursework or programs. The remaining 41 respondents indicated offering some type of agricultural leadership education.

Findings

The purpose of this study was to describe the scope of agricultural leadership education. In this effort, data were collected identifying the number and types of leadership programs offered, number of students impacted by these leadership programs, distribution of these students, faculty perceptions of past and future enrollment, and faculty perceptions of support.

The first objective of this study was to identify the number and enrollment of agricultural leadership education opportunities (Table 1). Based on previous literature describing agricultural leadership education (Brown & Fritz, 1994; Fritz et al., 2003) six types of undergraduate leadership opportunities were presented including leadership majors, minors, options, foci, programs, and courses. Of these six opportunities, leadership courses were identified as the most commonly offered agricultural leadership experience with a total of 38 (68%) of the responding institutions indicating offering at least one leadership course.

Additionally, this objective sought to identify student enrollment in agricultural leadership education. Researchers acknowledge that many students participate in multiple agricultural leadership experiences; therefore a total number of students impacted through agricultural leadership education cannot be determined. Although the total number of students impacted cannot be determined, researchers posit that the number most likely exceeds 7,904 students.

Table 1

Number and Enrollment of Undergraduate Agricultural Leadership Education Opportunities at Responding Institutions (n = 56)

	Leadership Major	Leadership Minor	Leadership Option	Leadership Focus	Leadership Program[3]	Leadership Course
Number of Programs[1]	5	13	16	11	14	38
Enrollment[2]	828	1,581	272	116	583	7,904

[1]Number in cells represents the number of institutions that responded “yes” to offering these agricultural leadership education opportunities.

[2]Number in cells represents the total number of students enrolled in these agricultural leadership education opportunities.

[3]Examples include certificates, academies, and living/learning communities.

In addition to undergraduate leadership education opportunities, responding institutions also identified offering both industry and graduate level leadership development programs. Seven institutions indicated offering an industry leadership development program. A total of 72 participants were enrolled in these industry leadership development opportunities. Additionally, eight institutions identified offering a graduate level leadership development program. Responding institutions indicated a total of 130 graduate students enrolled in these graduate agricultural leadership education programs.

The second objective of this study was to describe the distribution of enrollment in agricultural leadership education by home department, College of Agriculture, and university (Table 2). Respondents were asked to estimate the percentage of students in each agricultural leadership experience from their home department (department offering agricultural education) and the College of Agriculture. From this information, researchers could estimate the number of students participating in agricultural leadership education who were enrolled in colleges other than the College of Agriculture.

Average student enrollment percentages identify the overwhelming majority of students enrolled in leadership majors, leadership options, leadership foci, and leadership courses as coming for the department offering agricultural education. Alternatively, leadership minors and leadership programs evidenced a greater distribution of student enrollment.

Table 2

Student Enrollment Percentages in Agricultural Leadership Education Separated by Department, College, and University (n = 56)

	Demographics of Student Enrollment at Responding Institutions[1]					
Students From[3]	Leadership Major	Leadership Minor	Leadership Option	Leadership Focus	Leadership Program[2]	Leadership Courses
Home Department	93.75	25.75	85.38	90.00	38.10	57.63
College of Agriculture	3.00	33.92	9.62	5.00	31.45	26.11
University	3.25	40.33	5.00	5.00	30.45	16.26

[1]Number in cells represents the percentage of students enrolled in these agricultural leadership education opportunities.

[2]Examples include certificates, academies, and living/learning communities.

[3]Enrollment percentages distinctive to either home department, or College of Agriculture, or university.

The third research objective sought to identify the perceptions of responding faculty regarding the change in student enrollment in agricultural leadership education over the past ten years as well as their projection of the change in student enrollment over the next ten years (Table 3). Fifteen respondents perceived “no change” in agricultural leadership education enrollment over the past ten years within their institution and 28 (61%) respondents indicated some level of enrollment increase over the past ten years.

When asked their perceptions of the future enrollment in agricultural leadership education thirteen respondents indicated they expect a “substantial increase.” Additionally, 35 (76%) respondents indicated that they expected some level of increase in student enrollment at their institution over the next ten years (Table 3).

Table 3

Perception of the Change in Past and Future Agricultural Leadership Education Enrollment (n = 56)

	Perceived Change in Leadership Enrollment at Responding Institutions[1]						
	Substantial Decline	Moderate Decline	Minimal Decline	No Change	Minimal Increase	Moderate Increase	Substantial Increase
Past Ten Years	2	2	0	15	8	7	13
Next Ten Years	1	0	0	10	11	12	13

[1]Number in cells represents frequency of response.

The final objective of this study was to identify respondents' perception of support received from their home department, institutional peers, the agricultural industry, and AAAE (Table 4). These findings indicate that the majority of respondents perceive substantial support from their home department. Furthermore, respondents indicated receiving moderate support from institutional peers and the agricultural industry, and minimal to moderate support from AAAE towards their agricultural leadership education endeavors.

Table 4

Perceived Support for Agricultural Leadership Education (n = 56)

	Perceived Level of Perceived Support at Responding Institutions [1]			
	No Support	Minimal Support	Moderate Support	Substantial Support
Home Department	4	7	14	20
Institutional Peers	4	13	22	5
Agricultural Industry	4	6	24	8
AAAE	10	14	17	4

[1]Number in cells represents frequency of response.

Conclusions, Implications & Recommendations

Analysis of objective one revealed that agricultural leadership program offerings are prevalent and growing across the nation. Perhaps as a result of some of the earlier calls and the visionary leadership of department heads and deans, agricultural leadership education is growing. Since the last nationwide study (Fritz et al., 2003), the respondents to this study indicated adding three leadership majors, six leadership minors, seven leadership focus areas, seven undergraduate leadership programs, and four graduate agricultural leadership programs.

An implication of recent growth is the need to determine whether departments and programs have the resources needed to establish and sustain an exemplary agricultural leadership program. From a pedagogical perspective, the recent increase may make it more difficult to find faculty who have specific training or skills in leadership education. Subsequently, the question of faculty expertise and background arises. Should faculty hires be made from traditional agricultural education ranks or should faculty be sought from the larger domain of leadership education? Philosophically, this raises the question of whether agricultural leadership programs should be pedagogically grounded in both leadership and agriculture. While there is no current research which explores the degree to which agriculture is infused within agricultural leadership education, if the profession is to continue to develop, clarity on the intent and purpose of the agricultural label is warranted. This research revealed that leadership minors, which enroll over 1,500 students, contain a fairly heterogeneous mix of students, in which approximately 40% are not enrolled in a College of Agriculture. Future research should explore the level to which agriculture is incorporated into agricultural leadership education.

The results of objective one also highlight the high number of students involved in agricultural leadership education. By far the greatest student impact in agricultural leadership education is through leadership minors and leadership courses. Given the student attraction, programs looking to increase student numbers should consider the development of new courses or minors.

Objective two examined the enrollment distribution of students across six leadership areas. Not surprisingly, leadership majors, as well as options, and foci served predominately departmental students while leadership minors, programs and courses serve a mix of department, college and university students. If a department is seeking growth and expansion in agricultural leadership, they should identify the audience they are hoping to attract and develop the appropriate leadership programming. If university students are the intended audience then minors and courses appear to be the best avenue for engagement. On the other hand, if departments are focusing on their own students, the development of options, foci, and eventually majors would be more appropriate.

Faculty respondents perceived past and future growth of agricultural leadership education. The majority of respondents indicated either no change or some form of increase in enrollment over the past ten years and the next ten years. In fact, only 5 respondents indicated any form of perceived decline over this 20 year period. Based on these findings, the authors recommend that agricultural leadership education programs establish a plan for growth and a vision for adding additional leadership programing, infrastructure, and faculty.

The last objective of this study revealed that faculty members, in general, feel supported by their home department, institutional peers, and the agricultural industry. However, 53% of the respondents indicated feeling that the AAAE (the professional organization with which agricultural leadership educators historically affiliate) provided no or minimal support to their agricultural leadership education endeavors.

While the strength of support at the local and industry level is encouraging, who is providing the professional development needed to ensure high quality, pedagogically sound agricultural leadership education? As agricultural leadership education continues to grow and develop, department heads and program leads should consider allocating funding to allow faculty to find and engage in focused professional development centered on agricultural leadership education. Two such opportunities have included the 2004 and 2013 Agricultural Education Leadership Summits. Both of these have provided faculty the chance to enhance pedagogy, develop assessments, identify research areas and pursue extramural funding. Given the growth in agricultural leadership, the researchers recommend the establishment of similar national meetings on a more regular basis.

Given the length of time between agricultural leadership education studies, and the amount of change in the past ten years alone, the researchers recommend continued studies. As agricultural leadership education continues to evolve the need for consistent data on the scope of agricultural leadership education is warranted.

Agricultural leadership education is vibrant and growing in both programs and student numbers. In the next few years it is vital that the profession take meaningful steps to establish sound leadership pedagogy, gain clarity on purpose and make a continued effort to support the professional development of faculty. With an established purpose, agricultural leadership educators will be better positioned to provide scholarly contributions, enhance student growth and positively impact departments, colleges, and universities.

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Students' Voices: Exploring Outcomes of a Yearlong Leadership Development Program

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Abstract

This qualitative study explores the learning outcomes associated with specific experiences in a one-year, intensive leadership development program at a large northwest research university. Results highlight student growth resulting from faculty mentoring, a yearlong seminar course, and sustained community involvement.

Introduction

"I'm really thankful for the Leadership Academy experience, because it helped me grow as a person. It pushed me down a path that I wanted to go on but didn't think I was capable of going down, and the people I met along the way really helped me through it, and I'm extremely thankful for their help and their guidance." – Jane, 2013 Leadership Academy graduate

Twelve months earlier, Jane sat in an interview room after having submitted a paper application to an undergraduate leadership development program, answering questions about her desire to learn and grow and her ability to take feedback and try new things. She was not polished, but she recognized her own weaknesses and need for further development. A committee of several faculty members selected Jane and ten other undergraduate students to participate in the program. As the program administrators, we paired Jane with a faculty member, who would serve as her mentor, and we did the same for every other student in the program. Through common experiences, candid discussions, and time together in a weekly seminar, the group became a cohort.

Jane created a roadmap for herself, setting leadership development goals, which she could tackle during her year in the program. She aligned the requirements of the program with her goals, to more purposefully engage in leadership development. Jane attended workshops and a weekly seminar, where she learned new skills and leadership perspectives. Then she got involved with a student club, volunteered for a community organization, and attended professional networking events to practice those skills. Jane's mentor provided guidance, encouragement, and advice each step of the way, helping Jane debrief and reflect on her experiences.

Jane had confidence that the skills she worked to develop mattered, because she interacted regularly with industry professionals, some of whom served as advisers to the program, ensuring the curriculum and requirements were relevant and valuable for students who would soon enter the workforce. Others have also identified many of these skills – problem solving, teamwork, communication, decision making, organization of information, writing, critical thinking, and many others – as essential for college graduates (APLU, 2009; NFAMEC, 2006; SCANS, 2000).

The National Food and Agribusiness Management Education Commission (2006) identified interpersonal communication, critical thinking, and writing "among the most important skills that industry desires in new hires with the capacity to become leaders" (p. 5). Likewise the

Association of Public and Land Grant Universities (APLU, 2009) compiled the responses of employers, alumni, faculty, and students, ranking communication, decision making, self-management, teamwork, professionalism, experience, and leadership, in that order, as important skills for new graduates. Using the 1991 Secretary's Commission on Achieving Necessary Skills (SCANS) as a framework, and commissioned by the U.S. Department of Labor Employment and Training Administration, ACT, Inc. (2000) described a number of essential workplace skills, including integrity and honesty, acquiring and evaluating information, exercising leadership, participating as a team member, creative thinking, decision making, and listening.

Undergraduate students recognize some of these needs and have articulated a preference for personal growth and skill-building activities, self-development opportunities, and personalized settings, when pursuing leadership development (Allen & Hartman, 2009). Allen and Hartman recommended using "a variety of learning interventions" to positively affect the greatest number of students, despite differences in learning styles (p. 15). Leadership educators do employ a number of instructional strategies in the classroom (Jenkins, 2012), but little research exists that describes the outcomes specific to those instructional strategies. So we asked the question, what learning outcomes do graduates of this yearlong leadership program identify as a result of having completed the program? Based on this question we sought to explore the potential connections between student's experiences in a leadership development program and the outcomes they articulate

Literature Review

Studies have shown that leadership is a skill, one that educational experiences can develop (Bennis, 1994; Buschlen & Dvorak, 2011; Wimmer, Meyers, Porter, & Shaw, 2012). Furthermore, many have identified the college experience as an ideal time to focus on leadership development (Astin & Astin, 2000; Buschlen & Dvorak, 2011; Komives, Owen, Longerbeam, Mainella, & Osteen, 2005). Not surprisingly, the number of collegiate leadership development programs has been on the rise (Dugan & Komives, 2007; Engbers, 2006), which has created a need to identify the leadership skills developed through college experiences.

Student involvement in collegiate leadership development programs has been found to increase leadership skills (Cress, Astin, Zimmerman-Oster, & Burkhardt, 2001). Dugan and Komives (2007) found that student involvement in long-term, formal leadership development programs, of which the program studied is one, significantly enhanced the outcomes of creating change, citizenship, collaboration, and establishing a common purpose. In a more recent study, Buschlen and Dvorak (2011) found a college leadership experience, using the social change model, effectively enhanced the development of students' consciousness of self, group values, and community values.

These studies provide evidence that experiences within collegiate leadership development programs and classrooms yield positive leadership outcomes, yet they fail to provide a clear description of student involvement in these experiences. A number of studies have addressed the experiences within leadership development programs, including a 2009 study by Allen and Hartman. Allen and Hartman categorized leadership development activities using a model originally proposed by Conger (1992) that identified leadership development occurring through four types of experiences: personal growth, conceptual understanding, feedback, and skill building. Within each of these four types of experiences, Allen and Hartman identified a variety of experiences which occur in leadership development programs, for example service learning activities (personal growth), reading leadership texts (conceptual understanding), self-assessments of leadership (feedback), and role-playing activities (skill building).

Jenkins (2012) expanded on the work of Allen and Hartman to identify the most commonly used experiences within leadership education. This study identified class discussions, interactive lectures, small group discussion, group projects, and research projects as the most commonly used pedagogies in leadership education. The next logical step in the research process is to identify the links between these curricular experiences and leadership skill development. Yet, research has identified that one of the key challenges among the leadership education community is the process of linking program activities with intended outcomes and impact (Russon & Reinelt, 2004).

Dugan and Komives (2007) attempted to link specific experiences with leadership outcomes. Researchers were able to identify that mentoring, campus involvement, community service, leadership roles, and formal leadership development programs positively influenced students' leadership development. Yet, this study did not explore students' level or type of involvement in these experiences. Our study will use the theory of student involvement (Astin, 1970a, 1970b, 1991, 1999), which identifies the need to understand both the level and type of student involvement, to explore students' reflections of experiences while involved in a yearlong leadership development program and the outcomes they articulate while talking about those experiences. Through this analysis, we seek to provide evidence of potential connections between specific leadership development experiences and specific leadership development outcomes.

Theoretical Framework

We will use the theory of student involvement (Astin, 1970a, 1970b, 1991, 1999) to interpret and discuss the findings of our research. The theory of student involvement seeks to explain student development though college experiences by using three components: inputs, environment, and outcomes, in a model typically called the I-E-O model. Inputs refer to the characteristics and experiences with which students enter into their college experience, including demographic variables and background.

The second variable of interest in this model is the college environment. Astin (1970a, 1970b, 1991, 1999) identifies both distal and proximal aspects of this environment. The distal aspect accounts for the climate of the institution as a whole. Variables such as school size, types of buildings, and location of school are important when considering the distal aspects of the college environment. Proximal aspects, the environmental variables considered in this study, include variables in which the students are immersed, while in college. Proximal aspects include classroom discussions, level of involvement on campus, and leadership training experiences like the one of interest in this analysis.

The final component of the I-E-O model is outcomes of student experiences. These outcomes encompass the characteristics, skills, knowledge, attitudes, beliefs, and values students exhibit as they finish their college experience. We sought to identify potential links between the experiences of students involved in a leadership development program and the outcomes they described from that involvement.

Methods

The purpose of this qualitative study was to explore potential connections between student's experiences in a leadership development program and the outcomes they articulate. We chose to study these potential connections using a qualitative research method because of its exploratory nature.

Data Collection

We collected data from all eleven participants in the leadership development program, a week after completion of the program, through a one-on-one, semi-structured, audio recorded interview (Creswell, 2009). Each interview lasted between 30 and 45 minutes. We elicited respondents' reflections of experiences in the program by asking, for example "What benefits and challenges did you experience through the weekly seminars?" and "What did you learn through interaction with your mentor?" Follow-up questions helped us identify additional information about students' experiences in the leadership development program.

Data Analysis

The data analysis process we used showcases the "ongoing process involving continual reflection about the data" (Creswell, 2009, p. 184). We began the process by first preparing the data for analysis by transcribing the interviews. We then read through the transcripts to identify general concepts in the data. We met and discussed our initial interpretation of the data, which involved coding for learning outcomes identified by students. After initial analysis, a number of outcomes-based themes emerged. We reexamined the data to determine if students identified those outcomes when discussing specific experiences in the leadership program and coded the data by identifying outcomes students articulated as they talked about certain aspects of the program. For example, when we asked one student, "what did you learn through interaction with your mentor?" he indicated, "I learned the value of building rapport with someone." We coded the outcome of this comment as learning the value of building rapport and the experience as the mentoring component of the program. During this round of analysis, three program-component themes emerged: mentoring, seminars, and experiential learning. Respondents referenced these themes numerous times in the data. We then came to a consensus on our codes connecting the program component themes and outcome themes, which we will refer to as main themes and subthemes, respectively.

Participants

The participants in this study included eleven students in both the College of Agriculture and the College of Forestry at a large university in the Pacific Northwest. The participants included six females and five males. Students ranged from sophomore status to senior status. In order to keep the identities of the students confidential, students' names have been replaced with pseudonyms for our description.

Research Quality

Throughout this study we sought to increase the reliability and validity of our findings. We sought to increase the reliability by continually meeting as a research team to discuss our interpretations of the data and cross-check our codes (Creswell, 2009). We sought to increase the validity of our findings by using three researchers to triangulate the data analysis and coding process and by using rich descriptions and student quotes to describe the findings (Creswell, 2009).

Limitations

An additional method for increasing the validity of our findings is being open about our experiences and involvement in the program that may have led to biases in our interpretation of the data. We all work very closely with the leadership development program we are studying. Our involvement in this program includes teaching the seminars, organizing the experiences associated with the program, and meeting with students throughout the year to encourage their success as they participate in the program. Through the use of continual meetings, cross-checking of codes, triangulation of data analysis and rich descriptions of the data, we attempted to overcome our potential biases and believe the findings presented through this study are valuable to the profession of leadership education.

An additional limitation of qualitative research is the lack of generalizability of the findings (Creswell, 2009). Qualitative research is best suited for exploring, in more depth, the experiences and interpretations of a small number of people. We acknowledge this limitation, and make no attempt to generalize our findings beyond the participants in this research study.

Findings

Analysis of the participant responses revealed several clear themes relating to programmatic elements of the program and several sub-themes related to program outcomes. The following tables highlight the student results pertaining to three programmatic aspects of the program. While some of the subthemes differ, it is important to recognize that some similar subthemes emerged while students discussed different experiences. The student quotes attributed to subthemes were provided in the context of the specified main themes: mentoring, seminar, and experiential learning.

Mentoring

Each participant interacted with one faculty mentor for the duration of the academic year. Typically, students met once or twice per month for one hour mentoring sessions. The mentoring relationship was open-ended and, with the exception of a short, mentor orientation, mentors were free to individualize their approach to mentoring. Review of the data revealed several subthemes that emerged when asking students about their experiences working with a faculty mentor. Subthemes included growth in relationships, improved ability to understand leadership, the new experience of mentoring, and development of communication skills. Table 1 highlights some of the student data associated with each of these subthemes.

Table 1

Mentoring Subthemes: Relationships, Understanding Leadership, New Experience, and Communication

Mentoring Subthemes	**Participant Quotations**
Relationships	"She taught me how important it is to be nice to people and be friends with people and like build a relationship with them" (Jane)
	"He opened my eyes to the value of listening and conversation skills and building relationships" (Trevor)
	"Another great thing about it was learning about the mentoring relationship and the value of it" (Trevor)
	"Yeah I can't talk enough about how great the mentor relationship or program through the Leadership Academy was. It was great." (Andrew)
	"I just learned the value of building a rapport with someone and taking the time to sit down and really talking things through with them" (Ruth)
	"I really appreciated knowing that there was someone in the college who I could go to if I had any questions, sit over a cup of coffee with and just hash out life with" (Ruth)
Understanding Leadership	"I would say that I learned a lot about myself as well as how to be an effective and well-rounded leader" (Lacy)
	"I learned from him that to be a leader is to stand up for what is right and also have a core set of values to go back to" (Niel)
	"hearing how he learned these skills and how he struggled with them and what he's done to overcome those were really, really great conversations" (Trevor)
New Experience	"I think having a mentor is key because looking back, trying to do this all on my own, I never would have done it" (Lacy)
	"it was my first interaction with somebody in like a faculty position that wasn't one of my professors" (Andrew)
Communication	"He really encouraged me to look at conversation, to really work on interpersonal communication with others" (Jill)

	"I really learned a lot about effective communication with colleagues, things that work and don't work" (Henry) "We worked a lot on communication and not just like communication like how do I structure this it was more so okay how do I effectively connect with you inside of a professional relationship" (Brittany)

Seminar

Students participated in a yearlong seminar course, which we facilitated. The course met for two hours, weekly, for the entire academic year. When the participants referenced the seminars in the data, four prevalent themes emerged: collective growth, self-awareness, reflection skills, and understanding leadership. Table 2 provides an overview of the student findings related to these four themes.

Table 2

Seminar Subthemes: Collective Growth, Self-Awareness, Reflection Skills, and Understanding Leadership

Seminar Subthemes	**Participant Quotations**
Collective Growth	"the benefit was just being able to have a group. It was almost like a sounding board" (Jane) "getting to interact with the rest of the cohort and learn from them was a huge benefit" (Trevor) "really discussing about leadership stuff because when you're just reading a book or you know learning it by yourself you're not really getting that feedback that you need" (Jill) "There are some really amazing leaders in that class and in the Leadership Academy, and it's just great to feed off of one another. Get each other's input and insights and kind of just grow together" (Ruth)
Self-Awareness	"and the biggest thing I gained out of that [seminar] was the tools to use for listening" (David) "the emotions one[seminar], I really caught myself when I was trying to talk somebody through an issue that I might have been having with them" (Henry) "I thought it was really good to have those seminars to get feedback, to learn a lot more, to be able to apply it to like exercises, and challenge yourself, see where you are" (Jill)
Reflection Skills	"I really enjoyed the practicality of them" (Henry)

	"I've only had a couple classes that I've really left like really thinking a lot about after and those are the ones you really remember" (Andrew) "so the leadership seminars were incredible, probably my favorite part of the entire process" (Brittany) "the growing and finding things out about myself that I didn't realize, yeah" (Kim) "is really beneficial just to sit down and listen to and just kind of learn" (Ruth)
Understanding Leadership	"I'm going to use this idea and I'm going to implement it and work on it so that was a strength" (David) "Additionally the agenda workshop has made my meetings, both officer and chapter, of different clubs run much smoother, much more clarity, things get done, the action is there now" (Henry)

Experiential Learning

In the program, we asked students to volunteer and engage with an off-campus community organization for approximately four hours per week for the academic year. The impact of the experiential learning experience was evident in the lives of students and the subthemes of being pushed, networking, community involvement and relationship skills emerged. Table 3 highlights the subthemes associated with their experiential learning.

Table 3

Experiential Learning Subthemes: Being Pushed, Networking, Community Involvement, and Relationship Skills

Experiential Learning Subthemes	Participant Quotations
Being Pushed	"I mean the challenge kind of turned into a benefit in that I got the experience of utilizing my communication that I've been working on" (Henry) "I thought it was great to make sure that the cohort is going outside of the college you know as a comfort zone type of thing we tend to stick to what we know and I absolutely loved it" (Lacy) "the community involvement was where I did most of my growing" (Lacy) "I learned how to work with diversity" (Kim) "I really appreciated that just little reminder from the Leadership Academy, that what we do is important, and the organizations that we are involved in, they

	have a purpose and we need to make our time in those important or purposeful and effective” (Ruth)
Networking	“now my network if you will has expanded even more and I have gotten a lot out of that” (Jane)
	“I got the opportunity to meet a lot of really interesting people” (Andrew)
	“One of the benefits was meeting new people, creating new friendships, networking” (Kim)
Community Involvement	“it was like you know the first time I’d really done some really good leadership work like outside of the community or outside the university” (Jill)
	“I interacted a lot with the people of [town] and learned a lot about this town, the people in it and it was a really great experience” (Lacy)
	“I now understand that community involvement is really important to me and not just for me personally but I understand that now as we are looking forward into the future” (Brittany)
Relationship Skills	“I felt like I was doing something benefiting both me and the residents” (Andrew)
	“working with people that were a lot older than me, basically kind of like a different population” (Jill)
	“I was able to build relationships with people over the term and that was what one of my goals was so that was really beneficial” (Trevor)

Discussion & Conclusions

Our purpose as we began this study was to explore the learning outcomes associated with specific programmatic experiences. Prior literature has explored leadership education pedagogies, but we wanted to examine specific programmatic inputs and their relationship to specific student learning outcomes. While our research method prevents us from establishing a causal connection, the results do provide some evidence for the link between programmatic experiences and ultimately student leadership learning. The students themselves provided evidence for learning as they reflected back on their experiences.

Prior studies have shown that leadership development programs increase leadership skills (Cress et al., 2001). However, given the fact that the number of leadership programs is growing, it is imperative to begin the process of examining the pedagogical and programmatic components that students are identifying as promoting leadership growth. This study revealed a clear connection between leadership growth and the three programmatic elements of mentoring, a weekly seminar, and experiential learning.

The results revealed that being actively engaged with a faculty mentor aided students in their conceptualizations of relationships, understanding of leadership, and communication. Students referenced the mentor relationship as a new experience that was instrumental in promoting their growth. It is encouraging to see the student results considering that the faculty mentoring relationships were not highly structured. Faculty members tend to be busy with teaching, research, and service, and it is therefore easier to recruit faculty when the time constraints of mentoring are low. In this case, one two-hour mentor orientation session was all that was required for faculty to begin this process. We recommend that programs consider using faculty in mentoring roles with a practical understanding of their time constraints. This study revealed that with minimal upfront investment, a program where faculty serve as mentors can help to facilitate student leadership growth.

The development of a yearlong seminar, while presenting a logistical challenge, as it spans semesters/quarters, provided an environment that promoted collective growth, enhanced self-awareness, and facilitated the development of reflection skills and an understanding of leadership. Regarding collective growth, students enrolled in this program are part of a cohort. The same students persist in the program for the entire year. This allowed students to develop close relationships, and students referenced this group as a “sounding board,” a “huge benefit,” and a group where “it’s just great to feed off of one another.” Future programs should consider the leadership growth that occurs through sustained, facilitated interaction. In addition, students referenced the development of self-awareness and reflection skills, both critical components of leadership. Programmatically, we – two faculty members and a graduate student – facilitated the seminar course, and an industry-based advisory board identified the seminar topics. This helped to ensure that the content was relevant to industry needs and potentially also aided in student buy-in and engagement during the seminars.

Students engaged in off-campus, community-based experiential learning referenced being pushed, increasing learning and understanding regarding community involvement, networking and relationship skills as areas of growth. Based on this weekly investment of three to four hours, students grew in their leadership. Other programs should consider implementing off-campus community involvement, if they want to push students and enhance their awareness of the importance of being involved in a community. The student voices in this study were very pronounced. Students learned and grew through community involvement.

The findings of this study help to articulate important considerations in the utilization of the student involvement theory. This study identified three proximal components of an environment focused on the development of leadership skills among college students. The data suggests that each of these proximal experiences, mentoring, seminars, and experiential learning, were conducive to the development of a variety of positive leadership outcomes. Leadership educators should consider the implementation of these experiences when designing leadership programs.

This is the first step down a road that, given further research, will eventually provide the causal links necessary to support the essential programmatic elements of an effective leadership development program, based on the desired learning outcomes. Students are only with us for a while, yet they interact with us during a highly pivotal stage in their growth and development. We owe it to students like Jane to develop programs that help students grow, push their development, exceed their perceived capabilities, enhance their relationships, and provide help and guidance during this transformative stage. Our task is not easy, but the rewards of a changed life compel our efforts.

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The Journey to Authenticity: An Analysis of Undergraduate Personal Development

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Abstract

Oklahoma State University offers a course that provides personal authentic leadership development as an essential building block toward the global leadership crisis. This instrumental case study sought to determine how students changed throughout the course. Four themes emerged: (a) self-evolution, (b) cognitive gain, (c) perceived self-awareness, and (d) framework confusion.

Introduction

Authentic leaders are a global necessity and needed for the 21st century (Lloyd-Walker & Walker, 2011). Authentic leadership development should be a significant component of a collegiate-level leadership program (Pennington, 2006). The authentic leadership process begins with developing authenticity, or being true to the self, and is accomplished through self-awareness, self-acceptance, and authentic actions and relationships (Gardner, Avolio, Luthans, May, & Walumbwa, 2005). This type of leadership is a root construct, meaning it underlies the basis for what constitutes other forms of positive leadership (Avolio & Gardner, 2005). When a leader's actions are genuine and focused on the development of the self and others, the effectiveness of participative, achievement-oriented, transactional, supportive, and other forms of leadership are likely enhanced (Avolio & Gardner, 2005). Authentic leadership requires heightened levels of self-awareness, leading to authentic leaders knowing where they stand on important issues, values, and beliefs (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Lloyd-Walker & Walker, 2011). In fact, Gardner et al. proposed, "authentic leaders are more aware of, and committed to, their core end values" (2005, p. 350). Leading students to develop as authentic leaders goes beyond the traditional classroom lecture format.

Teaching leadership at the collegiate level is challenging, in that teachers find themselves explaining abstract concepts and theories to students (Halpern, 2000; Williams & McClure, 2010), thus making exploring new, innovative ways of teaching leadership important for classroom delivery (Williams & McClure, 2010). Research has been conducted to examine various teaching methods as it pertains to leadership (Williams & McClure, 2010; Williams, Townsend, & Linder, 2005; Wimmer, Meyers, Porter, & Shaw, 2012) and has shown that students retain more leadership concepts utilizing the public pedagogy and experiential learning methods as opposed to traditional lecture (Williams & McClure, 2010). Additionally, students retained their leadership knowledge after taking leadership courses one, two, and three years later (Williams et al., 2005).

Today's traditional-aged college students are not like previous generations. Known as *Millennials*, these individuals are technologically savvy (Kaiser Family Foundation, 2005), and welcome variability in the classroom including teamwork, experiential learning activities, structure, entertainment, and technology (Raines, 2002). Effective teachers incorporate enthusiasm and variability in their classrooms (Rosenshine & Furst, 1973), and comprehension and application of leadership concepts can be enhanced when combining these characteristics (Wimmer et al., 2012). As affirmed by previous research, utilizing public pedagogies enhances leadership concept retention in students. Additionally, authentic leadership can also improve leadership skill acquisition (Pennington, 2006). Helping students become self-aware and explore their values and vision necessitates an open, reflective, and creative learning environment (Pennington, 2006). Although authentic leadership development is a lifelong process, it can be enhanced through a formal collegiate level course where leadership concepts are taught through interactive activities, self-reflection assignments, and class discussions (Pennington, 2006).

Oklahoma State University offers a course that provides personal leadership development as an essential building block toward the global leadership crisis. The National Leadership Education Research Agenda (NLERA) identified Teaching, Learning, and Curriculum Development as a research priority area with the following outcome: "Explore curriculum development frameworks to enhance the leadership education transfer of learning" (Andenoro et al., 2013, p. 1). Hence, we analyzed an archived class assignment that was conceptually grounded in a relatively new curriculum framework in the personal leadership development course offered at Oklahoma State University. Specifically, we employed the instrumental case study approach (Stake, 2005) to determine how students' *Discovering Leadership Framework* (DLF) changed throughout the duration of the course.

Description of the Case: A Fictional Vignette for Understanding

Holley entered the classroom on the first day of Personal Leadership Development assuming it would be the typical, mundane college class routine: lecture, presentations, and note taking. However, she quickly learned that the class would not be your ordinary college class. In just the second class-meeting, she found herself bidding for the most important leadership traits in a trait auction. During week two, she was working in a small group with students she had just met to prepare a presentation for the class about generational diversity in the workplace. During the next couple of weeks, she was trekking across campus in search of leaders to interview. Holley thought to herself, "What next?," as she never knew what activity to expect. The class never did disappoint, as Holley was excited the day her class was charged with the task of debating against each other about their philosophy regarding strengths. One day while glancing around the classroom, Holley realized that she was surrounded by a variety of students, representing numerous majors and interests. She had assumed the class would be the typical agricultural leadership cohort that was in all of her other classes, but was pleasantly surprised to meet students from across different disciplines. They all shared one common purpose, the desire to take a course on personal leadership development. As the semester came to a close, Holley told some of her friends that she learned a great deal about herself during the course without even realizing it. When asked to describe Personal Leadership Development, Holley quickly responded, "It's interactive, it's hands-on, and I now know my values, my vision, my strengths, and who I am as a leader."

Conceptual Framework

The personal leadership development course was centered on guiding the students toward personal authenticity. This was achieved by helping the students determine their personal values, leadership vision, top strengths, and motivations to lead. *Discovering the Leader in You* (King, Altman, & Lee, 2011) served as the course textbook for the journey. Through a systematic approach, the text helps students understand explicitly how leadership fits into their lives, what unique leadership qualities they possess, and the impact the students want to have on the world as a leader (King et al., 2011). Students embark on a personal development journey to identify *drift* within their lives and how to move beyond drift to leadership *clarity* (King et al., 2011). King et al. (2011) describe drift as having doubts about one's capabilities, questioning how to leverage one's talents, or being "simply confused about the leader within" (p. 4). Clarity, on the other hand, varies depending on the perceptions of those involved, but can best be explained as being certain "about [one's] goals as a leader" (p. 4). To promote this movement from drift to clarity, King et al. (2011) created the Discovering Leadership Framework (DLF). The DLF provides a visual interpretation of how an individual's leadership vision, values, skills, and motivation align with organizational and personal realities (King et al., 2011). The DLF is based on five key topics: current organizational realities, leadership vision, leadership values, leadership profile, and current personal realities (King et al., 2011) (Figure 1). These topics served as the core foundation of the personal leadership development course and, therefore, guided our data analysis efforts.

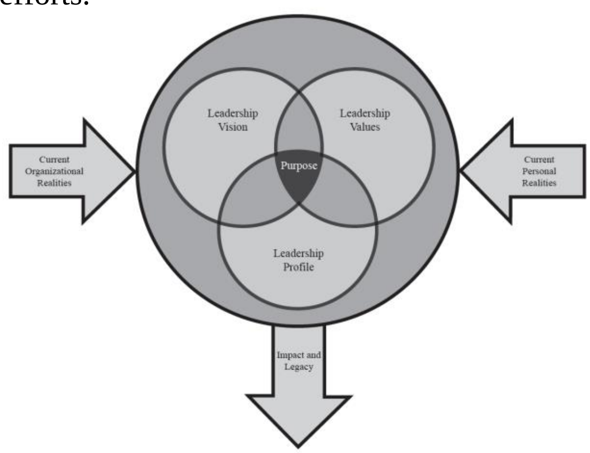

Figure 1: Discovering Leadership Framework. Adapted from *Discovering the leader in you* by S. N. King, D. G. Altman, & R. J. Lee, 2011, p. 153. Copyright 2011 by John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Our Journey to Understand

This qualitative study was accomplished through the instrumental case study approach (Stake, 1995) in which we employed document analysis of an archived course assignment to analyze the students' perceptions of their personal leadership development. The case was bounded by the undergraduate personal leadership development course. Stake (1995) explained, "[g]athering data by studying documents follows the same line of thinking as observing or interviewing" (p. 68). The archived class assignment served as the data collection tool for the study. The archived data was collected through a writing exercise generated by students enrolled in two sections of an undergraduate personal leadership development course and was taught by two different instructors in the College of Agricultural Sciences and Natural Resources at Oklahoma State University. Early in the semester, students were asked to introduce themselves and indicate any prior leadership experiences. Most students indicated some leadership experience and training in the context of youth personal development organizations such as 4-H and the National FFA Organization. However, it is assumed, as this is a foundational leadership course, that the students never had a formal personal development course at the collegiate level.

Throughout the semester, students participated in numerous discussions, experiential activities, and written reflections to help them unfold and define their values, vision, profile, and organizational and personal realities. In-class and out-of-class exercises were employed to guide students in the self-exploration process. As supported by previous research, the classroom environment was open and creative, allowing for small group interaction and discussion, as opposed to using a traditional lecture style (Williams & McClure, 2010; Wimmer et al., 2012). Both in-class and out-of-class activities allowed students to "conduct a guided self-exploration as it relates to authentic leadership concepts" (Pennington, 2006, p. 16).

The students were prompted to draw their DLF (King et al., 2011) during the second class meeting (August) of the 16-week course in the fall semester 2013. At the conclusion of the semester (December), students were provided the following written instructions in a class handout and asked to respond with at least three complete sentences for each question:

> Create a new Discovering Leadership Framework using the knowledge you obtained throughout the semester. You are to compare and contrast your two drawings and answer the following questions: 1) How has your Discovering Leadership Framework changed?; and 2) Why do you think the two images differ? If there are no notable differences, why do you think the two images remained the same? (Weeks, Brown, & Scott, 2013)

For the purpose of this study, document analysis (Stake, 1995) was utilized to determine how students' DLF changed during a personal leadership development course. Documents are demarcated as a symbolic representation that can be utilized for description and analysis (Altheide, Coyle, DeVriese, & Schneider, 2010). The documents can be used to explain and track discourse and uses terminology, interpretations, and themes over time (Altheide et al., 2010). Students were allowed roughly 30 minutes in both class meetings to complete the assignments. The first assignment, to draw their perceived DLF, was given to students during the second class meeting. Therefore, the ideas and words used in the frameworks were solely those of the students, as no prior instruction or self-exploration had taken place at that time. Upon the conclusion of the semester, the students were given the final assignment of creating a new DLF and comparing the first DLF to the final DLF and responding in writing to the two questions noted above. After the course concluded we analyzed the students' work to determine the change in their DLF.

We analyzed 92 total questions regarding the students' changes in their DLF and 92 personalized DLF drawings, totaling 46 complete data sets (Creswell, 2013) collected from 20 male and 26 female traditional-aged college students. Four incomplete data sets consisted of less than two drawings or unanswered questions. The incomplete data sets were attributed to course attrition, course addition, and absenteeism and were eliminated from analysis.

To achieve an audit trail, data sets were organized according to the instructor of record. We randomly assigned numbers to the students' documents for citation purposes and individually analyzed the students' answers to the aforementioned questions regarding the DLF. Students were assigned numbers based upon the assigned instructor. For example, instructor A's students were assigned numbers 1 through 22, and instructor B's students were assigned numbers 51 through 75. As these instructors were uniform with their curriculum and instruction, questions could arise regarding differences in language and metaphors used in class that could impact the students' DLF. Employing this number system allowed for us to better interpret the data presented in the DLF assignment if questions arose. Further, we coded the data individually. To achieve triangulation, we referenced the students' DLF drawings and compared them to their respective answers to the questions (Tracy, 2010). Hence, coding and triangulation were employed to collectively negotiate themes through a constructivist and interpretive approach (Creswell, 2013). The themes were carefully analyzed for vocabulary usage, personal development, and cognitive growth.

A good qualitative researcher is both trustworthy and credible (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Both credibility and ethical conduct were made top priority during the research process (Tracy, 2010). Quotations were used from the documents to enhance the interpretation of the case. We exercised memoing (Creswell, 2013) during the analysis of the archived class assignment that reflected thoughts, viewpoints, and past experiences grasped in coding and the reporting phases of the study. This enhanced our ability to present thick descriptions and provide concrete details (Tracy, 2010) regarding the students' DLF.

Researcher predispositions are existent in all forms of social science research (Guba & Lincoln, 1989). Three of the four researchers were instructors for the personal leadership development course. Additionally, we openly reflected upon our individual strengths to aid in mitigating biases. For example, one researcher had an extensive background in leadership education, while two other researchers had a broad background in agricultural education. Additionally, another researcher had a vast knowledge of extension education. The strengths from each researcher provided alternative viewpoints regarding the interpretation of the documents. The viewpoints were presented and negotiated to help combat biases. In addition, it is possible that unintentional biases exist apropos the expectations of the instructor rather than students' authentic perceptions.

Focus of the Case Through Issues Identification

The literature aided in identifying two important issues that guided the case study. Our professional experiences coupled with the literature brought forth these *etic issues* (Stake, 1995). Issue 1: Are undergraduate students in a personal leadership development course advancing from drift to clarity? Issue 2: Are students progressing through the emotional intelligence phases to achieve self-awareness?

Development of Issues

As the world today is rapidly changing with technological developments, economic challenges, and the expected access to leaders 24/7, many leaders are left with little or no energy to bring their best leadership to the table. The first issue is a result of these concerns. Because of these apprehensions, many leaders have started to question their abilities, the direction of their lives, and their hope for their future (King et al., 2011). Known as drift, leaders tend to go through the motions without advancing to their optimal leadership level. All leaders experience drift at some point, but problems arise when leaders stay adrift for an extended period of time. Rather than consciously choosing to make decisions, leaders simply make choices by default (King et al., 2011). Employing the DLF encourages students in the personal leadership development course to systematically assess their current leadership and life situations and move from drift to clarity, a point where they can better see the role of leadership in their lives (King et al., 2011). Clarity is the desired destination of students enrolled in the personal leadership development course at Oklahoma State University.

Developing one's authenticity through "self-awareness, self-acceptance, and authentic actions and relationships" (Gardner et al., 2005, p. 345) serves as a path to self-clarity. However, research has found that those low in self-clarity typically emulate immature defense styles and fail to acknowledge and settle negative emotions (Campbell et al., 1996; Ungerer, Waters, Barnett, & Dolby, 1997; Vaillant, 1992). College students reach maturity as they move through the vectors of identity development (Chickering, 1969; Chickering & Reisser, 1993). Authentic leaders on the other hand demonstrate self-clarity, as their values, identity, emotions, motives and goals are in alignment (Gardner et al., 2005). Since the clarity and certainty of self-knowledge are important determinants of psychological well being (Kernis, 2003), authentic leaders are therefore expected to convey increased levels of self-clarity and self-certainty (Gardner et al., 2005). The literature pivots on a definitive issue – are leaders progressing through drift to reach clarity?

The second issue arises as a result of student emotional intelligence progression during the personal leadership development course. Emotional intelligence "is a type of social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one's own and others' emotions, to discriminate among them, and to use the information to guide one's thinking and actions" (Mayer & Salovey, 1993, p. 433). Most effective leaders all have a high degree of emotional intelligence (Goleman, 1998). Those lacking emotional intelligence can have excellent training, an insightful mind, and brilliant ideas, but still won't make a great leader (Goleman, 1998). Self-awareness, "having a deep understanding of one's emotions, strengths, weaknesses, needs, and drives," is the first piece of emotional intelligence (Goleman, 1998, p. 95 – 96). Those who are self-aware understand their values and goals, making decisions that align. They are more confident about their abilities and will honestly admit times of failure (Goleman, 1998). Although people are born with a certain amount of emotional intelligence, it can be learned and increases with age. However, the leaders more commonly refer to this phenomenon as maturity. Although emotional intelligence naturally increases with age, training is still needed. Desire and a conscious effort must accompany training in order to acquire high emotional intelligence (Goleman, 1998).

Cherniss and Goleman (1998) posited four phases of emotional intelligence development among students. These phases include *preparation, training, transfer and maintenance*, and *evaluating change*. The preparation phase involves assessing personal strengths and limitations, giving careful feedback, increasing learner choice, encouraging input, connecting goals and values, modifying expectations, and determining readiness (Cherniss & Goleman, 1998). However, students must commit to a change that will take place over a period of time even before the training can begin. College students already have perceptions of themselves and their relations with others, making social and emotional learning a challenge (Cherniss & Goleman, 1998). Individuals are also typically less aware of their social and emotional weaknesses than technical deficiencies (Cherniss & Goleman, 1998; Weisinger, 1998). Students move through four stages of readiness for change (Prochaska, Norcross, & DiClemente, 1994), including: (a) deny need for change; (b) aware of the need to improve but unsure if anything can be done or delay action; (c) recognize the problem and understand there are alternatives, but have no plan; and (d) have a plan but not yet put into action (Cherniss & Goleman, 1998). In the second phase of emotional intelligence development, training phase, it is very important for the student and instructor to have a positive relationship. Experiential activities, as opposed to lectures and readings, performed in small groups can help to improve self-awareness (Cherniss & Goleman, 1998). The next phase of emotional intelligence development includes transfer and maintenance. Success in the transfer and maintenance phase largely depends on faculty and administrative support (Cherniss & Goleman, 1998). A supportive environment promotes the continued use of social and emotional skills. Continuous reflection is extremely important since self-awareness is a basis for social and emotional competence. Evaluating change promotes continuous emotional intelligence improvement (Cherniss & Goleman, 1998). Assessment of students' emotional intelligence provides an understanding of their current level and can stimulate growth. The process is clear but raises the question – are students progressing through the emotional intelligence phases to achieve self-awareness?

Emerging Theoretical Lens

Upon examining the archived assignment, Chickering's (1969) theory of identity development emerged. It has been influential in explaining how traditional-aged college students develop psychosocially. He recognized that students in higher education face unique challenges and opportunities, and that these students experience changes in more areas than just intellectual development (Chickering, 1969). To address this, he identified seven general changes that traditional-aged college students experience (Chickering, 1969).

Chickering and Reisser (1993) later revised and reordered the original seven vectors of the identity development theory. This theory can be used to address concerns of traditional-aged college students beyond the academic arena. The seven vectors in the theory include: (a) developing competence, (b) managing emotions, (c) moving through autonomy toward interdependence, (d) developing mature interpersonal relationships, (e) establishing identity, (f) developing purpose, and (g) developing integrity (Chickering & Reisser, 1993).

According to Chickering (1969), students' movement through the seven vectors, unlike stages, is not unilinear or mutually exclusive. "Movement along any one can occur at different rates and can interact with movement along the others" (Chickering & Reisser, 1993, p. 34). In fact, after movement in one vector, there can be movement in a previous vector, still indicating development of the student (Chickering & Reisser, 1993). Moreover, "each step from 'lower' to 'higher' brings more awareness, skill, confidence, complexity, stability, and integration but does not rule out an accidental or intentional return to ground already traversed" (Chickering & Reisser, 1993, p. 34).

The first developmental vector, developing competence, involves intellectual, physical and manual, and interpersonal competence. The second developmental vector is managing emotions, while the third vector involves moving though autonomy toward interdependence. This third vector includes both emotional and instrumental independence to think critically and act on ideas (Chickering & Reisser, 1993). Chickering and Reisser's (1993) fourth vector, developing mature interpersonal relationships, involves tolerating and appreciating differences among individuals and capacity for intimacy. The fifth vector, establishing identity, involves discovering "what kinds of experience[s], at what levels of intensity and frequency, we resonate in satisfying, in safe, or in self-destructive fashion" (Chickering, 2007, p. 3). The sixth vector involves developing purpose and includes formulating plans for action having a set of priorities (Chickering, 2007). The seventh and final vector, developing integrity, involves humanizing values, personalizing values, and finally, developing congruency between personalized values and behaviors (Chickering & Reisser, 1993). This theory emerged through analysis and triangulation of the archived assignment in an undergraduate personal leadership development course.

Assertions, Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations

"The most distinctive characteristic of qualitative inquiry is its emphasis on interpretation" of documents, interviews, and observations (Stake, 1995, p. 8). Based upon our understanding and previous knowledge and experience, we negotiated assertions (Stake, 1995). These assertions led to the development of conclusions (Stake, 1995). We compiled the issues, examined the issues, and negotiated themes to better report the data from the archived assignment. Four themes surfaced from the archived assignment: (a) self-evolution, (b) cognitive gain, (c) perceived self-awareness, and (d) framework confusion. Although generalized recommendations are not typical conventions of qualitative research (Creswell, 2013), we offer up suggestions for leadership educators and recommendations for further inquiry when appropriate.

Self-Evolution

Chickering and Reisser (1993) determined that students progress through seven vectors of identity development. As a result, students are enhancing their interpersonal competence, increasing their ability to manage emotions, becoming more independent, expanding their critical thinking skills, developing intrapersonal relationships, achieving self-discovery, and establishing an identity and values (Chickering & Reisser, 1993). Consistent with the theory of identity development, students reported personal growth regarding increased maturity and being more open to other viewpoints. "My [DLF assignments] differ because I have grown as a person and have learned to be more diverse and to look at life from all perspectives" [56:2]. Students consistently reported increased maturity between the time the first DLF was assigned and constructed to the final DLF assignment. Specifically, their values and attitudes toward their future matured. "After this class my values and attitude toward my career have grown" [55:1]. King et al. (2011) speculated that time is needed for individuals to venture through the DLF process. Therefore, most students reportedly progressed their "ideas, thoughts, and insights about [themselves] and [their] situation" (King et al., 2011, p. 149) as expected by the course objectives and instructors.

In addition, students consistently reported growth concerning more life and career focus. "The [DLFs] have changed because they have been tailored to be more focused towards the future" [51:2]. Students' focus on the future might be attributed to exposure to classroom situations that require reasoning and critical thinking. Ricketts (2005) suggested that the more leadership opportunities presented to a student, the more he or she has the opportunity to further develop personal cognizance and promote critical thinking. Perhaps the use of a variety of teaching methods (Raines, 2002; Rosenshine & Furst, 1971; Williams & McClure, 2010; Wimmer et al., 2012) to convey course content promoted critical thinking and reasoning skills among the students. This is turn could have led to an increase in student focus. The promotion of critical thinking and reasoning ability is further observed in the theory of identity development as students move through the vector of developing competence (Chickering & Reisser, 1993).

Students also reported an awareness of lack of maturity, organization, and grounded reality. "My framework has changed because I wasn't as organized or mature in the beginning" [53:2]. Students evolve and often achieve *self-authorship* in college, meaning that students construct an internal sense of identity, intercultural maturity, and interpersonal loyalties (Kegan, 1994; King

& Magolda, 2005). Students who are self-aware internalize their values, permitting decision-making (Goleman, 1998). This was revealed from the students in the personal leadership development course through the evolved DLF. The time elapsed between the initial assignment and the last assignment promoted maturation of personal development concepts discussed during the course. Therefore, the students' maturation stimulated an increase in emotional intelligence (Goleman, 1998).

King et al. (2011) conjectured that time and necessary interventions are required for students to evolve from drift to clarity. As a result of the course, students reported successfully attaining clarity. "In my past, I was more in drift. I realized when I completed my second [DLF], I pulled out of drift" [3:1-2]. Students felt like they were initially disconnected, dissatisfied, and uncomfortable with being in leadership positions, a finding supported by King et al. (2011). However, at the conclusion of the personal leadership development course, students recognized that they had moved from a state of drift to clarity by following a process that included personal reflection, instructor guided exercises, and class discussions. "I had more clarity in my recent one" [3:1]. Questions posed to the students at the beginning of the semester promoted a plan of action for leaders to move from drift to clarity. While not part of the data set, these questions for thought included (King et al., 2011, p. 9):

1. How much of your life today involves being a leader?
2. Are you currently in a leadership role? How did you get there?
3. Do you see yourself as a leader? Are you a leader all of the time?
4. How comfortable are you with your identity as a leader?
5. Did you choose to become a leader, or did it somehow choose you?

Students' reflections on their current leadership status and efficacy could have helped foster and guide overall personal development. Students in the personal leadership development course could have moved from drift to clarity without the use of the reflective process and action plan, however, it is uncertain as to whether or not this occurred.

Students enrolled in the personal leadership development course have the opportunity to move through the vectors of identity development (Chickering & Reisser, 1993) as they identify their leadership vision and values. In a sense, the students develop authenticity. "The more recent [DLF] evolved and is more fitting to the guideline of authenticity and is better linked to my passion" [15:2]. At the beginning of the class, students were unclear about leadership vision. "In the beginning I didn't grasp the concept of what a leadership vision even was" [62:2]. However, through open class discussions, small group work, and personal reflection assignments, students explored their personal values and leadership vision. "I know I will be able to realize more when my life doesn't have balance with my personal vision and my leadership vision and [I will] try to create congruency" [18:1]. Although authentic leadership is a life-long journey, students took the first step in this journey as they committed to their core values and examined congruence with their actions. "[I] know who I am, and know my values" [71:2]

Cognitive Gain

Students reported an increase in their cognitive gain as a result of the personal leadership development course, remaining consistent with previous literature (Bennis, 1994; Brungardt & Crawford, 1996; Williams et al., 2005; Wimmer et al., 2012). The type of information gained by the students as a result of the course according to the DLF included increasing leadership language, understanding their personal purpose, and expanding their scope. “My frameworks have changed because I have learned more throughout the semester what each [component] means, and I have discovered what I want from myself as a leader” [69:2]. Students who are capable of growing and moving toward clarity and have a better understanding of their views are more likely to become stable productive leaders (King et al., 2011). “I know now that there are things I can do to be a more effective leader” [54:1]. Synthesizing the course concepts helped the students think about their futures and develop plans to realize their leadership visions. “Throughout the semester I have gained more knowledge and have a better understanding of looking toward the future” [58:2]. As students participated in the course exercises helping them move from drift to clarity, they “learned the importance of leadership” [64:2].

In addition, students overwhelmingly reported a significant increase in cognizance regarding terminology and a more comprehensive understanding of the DLF. “The instructor implemented terminology from the textbook, therefore I learned [and understood] more terms from the books. After learning all that we did this semester, I think that my framework will continue to evolve and change as times goes by” [7:2]. Teaching proper leadership terminology facilitated a change in students’ DLF. “The notable differences are that the newer version is more straightforward and in correct and more influential terms” [56:2]

Students understood the components necessary for their journey to leadership clarity, which closely aligns with the third vector of the identity development theory, interdependence (Chickering & Reisser, 1993). “[I] learned more about leadership and how to apply it to my life. I hope that I will be able to apply this in my life” [2:1]. Furthermore, students were better at employing reasoning and critical thinking skills and understanding the intended outcome of the course. Chickering and Reisser’s (1993) competency vector encompasses three types of competence: (a) college-intellectual competence; (b) physical and manual competence; and (c) interpersonal competence. Intellectual competence requires the mastering of content, increasing intellectual sophistication, and being able to employ higher-order thinking skills (Bloom, 1956; Chickering & Reisser, 1993). Completing the final DLF assignment, “I understood the meanings of the [DLF components] and could better apply my answers to myself and the roles I play in life” [75:1 – 2]. The personal leadership development course played a major role in student development, as it provided an environment conducive for the students to develop according to Chickerings’ (1969) theory of identity development.

Perceived Self-Awareness

Several students in the personal leadership development course reported not experiencing any notable change between the two parts of the DLF assignment. “[My] framework hasn’t really changed from the beginning of the semester to now” [13:1]. It is possible that these students’ perceived self-awareness was too powerful to allow for growth and evolution of personal leadership development. Perhaps the students were not as engaged with the DLF process as their peers. The students’ perceived level of self-awareness could have had an indirect effect regarding their personal leadership development.

Other students questioned the outcome. “There really [was not] a big change between my two leadership frameworks, and I’m not sure if that’s a good thing or a bad thing” [59:2]. Perhaps these students were stagnate in their personal leadership development because they had yet to identify their *change style* (King et al., 2011). Once they have identified whether they are *conservers, pragmatists,* or *originators,* students will be better able to interact with individuals, maximize their strengths, and try new approaches (King et al., 2011). The approaches used in the course may not have been conducive to all types of individuals. Perhaps if all change styles are addressed and implemented in the personal leadership development course, more students would be able to better grow in their leadership development.

Moreover, could it be that students with a high-perceived self-awareness had already advanced through the identity development theory vectors (Chickering & Reisser, 1993) through previous informal leadership experiences as members of youth organizations such as 4-H and the National FFA Organization? Since this course was a foundational leadership course, most students enrolled had not yet taken any formal leadership development or leadership theory course. However, during the introductory portion of the course at the beginning of the semester, several students indicated some facet of previous leadership training. Since the course is offered through the agricultural leadership department and many of the students are assumed to have previous exposure to 4-H or the National FFA Organization, previous leadership exposure is plausible. Perhaps these are the students who reported no significant changes between their DLF assignments. “It was the same. There were no notable differences” [63:1 – 2]. If so, are students capable of advancing through the seven vectors (Chickering & Reisser, 1993) without formal guidance? Students with prior informal leadership experiences could have moved through the identity development vectors (Chickering & Reisser, 1993) more quickly than their peers. If these students are indeed the individuals that noted having some type of leadership training and advanced through the seven vectors of identity development (Chickering & Reisser, 1993), what is the likelihood that they could repeat the cyclical process and further enhance their personal leadership development, or is the process only effective during the first implementation? Because many students do come to the course with previous leadership training experiences from other organizations, course instructors should be mindful and prepared to address the students’ perceived self-awareness. Further research is warranted to explore the interaction between knowledge obtained via high school youth development organizations and formal collegiate leadership courses.

Framework Confusion

When examining the two parts of the DLF archived assignment, several students employed the word *goal* repetitively. “Some differences may change due to more determination to achieve my life goals” [68:2]. “The end goal has stayed the same” [18:2]. We found this to be intriguing, as goals were never addressed within the personal leadership development course. Perhaps students were unclear on the difference between *vision* and goals. “I’m more focused on my goals” [12:1]. As goals were not part of the course curriculum, perhaps students assumed that vision and goals were synonymous. The instructors operationalized vision as the students’ overall image of their future including personal direction and personal growth (Fritz, Brown, Lunde, & Banset, 2005). Goals indicate the specific means to direct one’s time and energy to achieve one’s vision (Fritz et al., 2005). Possibly, these select students did not master the content the instructors provided. Students could have learned this term through previous informal leadership experiences and trainings. Participation in 4-H or FFA leadership trainings could have triggered students to use vision and goals interchangeably. Even though goals are not a component of the DLF, instructors should differentiate between leadership vision and goals early in the semester to elucidate the difference between the two.

Furthermore, several students reported not understanding the first DLF assignment, as no prior knowledge about the framework was taught. “I didn’t know what to put” [5:1]. Banks (2008) denoted that images created by individuals without any knowledge is an acceptable method of data collection. In this case, the students' first DLF assignment was given as a pre-test of knowledge. We used the archived data to compare changes in the students' personal leadership development. The students reported a better understanding of the DLF in the second assignment. "I think the second one is more focused because by now at the end of the course I have a better understanding of my Leadership Framework" [52:2]. Instructors should guide students throughout the journey, which ultimately culminates in an understanding of the DLF.

Additionally, the DLF is relatively new to leadership curriculum. Little to no research was found implementing the concept (King et al., 2011) in a leadership course of any kind. Based upon our assertions, the framework can be used as curriculum in other leadership courses as a method of personal leadership development along the journey to authenticity. The open, creative learning environment coupled with the variety of activities and assignments elicited a change in the students' DLF. Ultimately, the framework could serve as a foundation for students as they journey toward authenticity.

In conclusion, the students enrolled in Personal Leadership Development evolved in their pursuit of authentic leadership while also experiencing cognitive gain allowing them to communicate with others in a common leadership language. Leadership educators are encouraged to recognize that students already have a perceived self-awareness that will limit their willingness to change. Finally, students' lack of comprehension can be a barrier to developing authentic leaders.

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The Effects of Affect: How Implicit Facial Expressions Impact Explicit Projections of Transformational Leadership

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Introduction

In recent decades some attention has been focused on the effect of a leader's facial appearance on external perception of the leader's quality and/or the intent of others to follow said leader (Berggren, Jordahl, & Poutvaara, 2012; Chen, Myers, Kopelman, & Garcia, 2012; Lawson, Lenz, Baker, & Myers, 2010). Other studies have focused on the content of the leader's message or emotional emphasis placed on communication of the message (e.g. Conger, 1989). While the findings of these examinations into facial appearance, content, and emotion are compelling, there is still much to explore.

In conversations and classroom experiences, it was observed that students were very attracted to the notion of Transformational Leadership (particularly as related to charisma). Reflecting on these conversations the researchers began to ask many questions. For instance, are the emotional cues a leader intends to exhibit or hide truly within his or her control? Are there uncontrollable phenotypic cues that confound a leader's' ability to share a vision? Can non-verbal cues such as facial expression contribute or detract from the transformative effect of leadership? To take the first steps toward exploring such notions, the following study was conceived to examine the effects that facial expression may have on Transformational Leadership. This study sought to explore the following questions:

1. Do a leader's facial expressions have an impact on students' opinions of the leader?

2. Is there a relationship between universally accepted human facial expressions and leadership factors within the Full Range of Leadership Model (particularly Transformational Leadership)?

Understanding how students react to facial expression may provide sophisticated, nuanced understanding of charisma and classroom presence.

A number of facial expression studies have identified six universal facial expressions that appear to remain constant across race, region, gender, and culture including: joy, surprise, fear, anger, disgust, and sadness, as well as a neutral facial expression (P. Ekman & Friesen, 1971; Schmidt & Cohn, 2001). Through analysis using advanced facial recognition software, researchers were able to quantify the magnitude of these six universal human facial expressions. By measuring these expressions precisely, we were able to explore the effects of the human face on perceptions of leadership in a new and exciting way.

Human communication is a complicated process by which ideas and vision are shared through a variety of gestural, verbal, and nonverbal cues (Schmidt & Cohn, 2001). The complexity of communication is important in leadership contexts because it relates to both the content of a leader's vision and the many nuanced ways that followers may perceive ideas as messages are shared from person to person. Facial appearance has been demonstrated to have substantial effects on perception of leaders (Chen et al., 2012; Lawson et al., 2010). Furthermore, over the last decade, many studies have been conducted examining emotions, charisma, and emotional intelligence. Most suggest that charismatic, positive leaders foster a more effective environment for progress (e.g. Clark & Greatbatch, 2011). These studies have often been limited to subjective interpretation of human participants to acknowledge the emotions conveyed by examples of leaders and scripts of communication. As such, subjective observation of all communicative actions (body language, vocal tone, speech, etc.) of a leader's charisma is insufficient to measure a singular component such as facial expression. This is because the rater is a living breathing organism who is affected by the sum complexity of nuanced human communication rather than individual specific aspects thereof. Noldus FaceReader software, however, is a purpose-built machine designed solely to quantify elements of facial expression.

Some studies have focused solely on facial features; generally suggesting that more attractive people are perceived as better leaders (i.e. Berggren et al., 2012). A limitation of only examining facial appearance is found when one considers that the element of time is left out of the mix entirely. In other words, it might be true that the manners by which one manipulates the musculature of his/her face matters more than the appearance of the face at rest or in a still image. By stepping beyond the three dimensional face and measuring facial movement across the fourth dimension of time, a new understanding of communication in leadership may be achieved. To this end, the study was designed to determine whether further research into facial expression is useful for leadership studies.

Literature Review

Content and Oration

The literature suggests a clear connection between speech content and perceptions of leader charisma. A visionary message that portrays a clear image of an idealized future for an organization is considered a prerequisite for a leader to be perceived as effective, charismatic, and therefore transformational (Conger, 1989). In addition to content, research indicates that oration and delivery are considerable factors in establishing leadership, followership, and increased perceptions of charisma.

Clark and Greatbatch (2011) state, "Oratory is viewed as a critical but elusive leadership skill which significantly influences followers' perceptions of leaders, particularly when there is little or no personal contact between them" (p. 22). Verbal and non-verbal delivery factors such as "varying pitch and exhibiting verbal fluency, maintaining eye contact with the audience, gesturing freely, adopting a relaxed posture and using facial expressions…are the key determinants of attribution of leader charisma" (Clark & Greatbatch, 2011; Holladay & Coombs, 1994). Furthermore, the effects of these delivery factors have been found to have a more pronounced impact on attribution of leader charisma than the content of visionary content (Clark & Greatbatch, 2011). Howell and Frost (1989) concluded that charismatic orators specifically engaged "a captivating, engaging voice tone… dynamism and energy… pacing... maintaining direct eye contact and… animated facial expressions" and that these behaviors more significantly impacted ratings of charisma than did content (p. 252). This is further supported by Awamleh (2011) as he concludes, "followers tend to be especially attuned to the leader's behavior... as they come to identity with the leader, [followers] will be greatly influenced by the leaders' non-verbal behaviors" (p. 34).

These results support the constructs of this study, highlighting the crucial non-verbal impact of facial expression on ratings of leader effectiveness and charisma.

Facial Expression

House (1977) suggests that charismatic leaders engage in impression management to portray competence and success. Additional support for this research was explored by Leary (1989), concluding that leaders engage non-verbal behaviors to promote the desired impression; non-verbal behaviors include “physical behavior, eye contact, touching, and facial expressions” (Awamleh, 2011). Ekman and Friesen (1974) posit that observers, or prospective followers, focus on the leader’s face, rather than the non-verbal expressions of the body as a means of interpreting emotion.

Additionally, Newcombe and Ashkanasy (2002) suggest that facial expressions have a greater influence on followers’ perceptions of a leader than message content. The authors determined that leaders who portrayed positive emotions were rated higher than leaders who displayed negative emotions (Newcombe & Ashkanasy, 2002). Furthermore, Erez, Misangyi, Johnson, LePine, and Haverson (2008) demonstrated that “leaders’ charisma was significantly and positively related to leaders’ positive expression” (p. 609).

FaceReader, a product of Noldus Information Technologies, has been used to read micro-facial expressions and “does not make a distinction whether a facial expression is acted or felt, authentic or posed” (Loijens & Krips, n.d.). Measuring the overall magnitude of six universal human facial emotions - anger, disgust, fear, joy, sadness, and surprise - as well as an expression of neutral emotions, FaceReader provides an analysis of still and video images for analysis (Loijens & Krips, n.d.). This unique technology allows researchers to compare the data generated from facial scans with other leadership constructs.

Full Range Leadership Model, Transformational Leadership, and Charisma

The Full Range of Leadership Model identifies seven factors which impact leadership and followership (Bass & Avolio, 1994). These factors represent the dependent variables in the study, and they are grouped into three categories including Transformational Leadership, Transactional Leadership, and Non-Leadership. The *Transformational Leadership* category is comprised of Idealized Influence (Charisma), Inspirational Motivation, Intellectual Stimulation, and Individualized Consideration. *Transactional Leadership* is comprised by the Contingent Reward factor and Management-by-Exception (active and Passive). Finally, the *Nonleadership* category includes Laissez-Faire practices. A more detailed explanation of each dependent variable can be found below:

1. Transformational Leadership

    a. *Idealized Influence* – This factor has been described as the emotional component of leadership (Antonakis, 2012). Idealized Influence (also known as Charisma) is characterized by leaders who clearly model high ethical and moral standards and foster a paradigm wherein followers seek to behave in a similar fashion. According to Northouse (2012), idealized influence is “measured [by] two components: an *attributional component* that refers to the attributions of leaders made by followers based on perceptions they have of leaders, and a *behavioral component* that refers to followers’ observations of leader behavior” (p. 191).

    b. *Inspirational Motivation* – This factor is recognized as motivation achieved through high expectation and well-communicated vision. Leaders who demonstrate Inspirational Motivation often appeal to followers through symbolism and emotional calls in order to achieve organizational goals (Bass & Avolio, 1994).

c. *Intellectual Stimulation* – Leaders who employ this factor encourage followers to be creative in order to push their own boundaries and well as those of the organization and the leader. A defining characteristic of the factor lies within an emphasis on followers who can solve problems autonomously (Northouse, 2012).

d. *Individualized Consideration* - This factor has to do with the type of climate the leader fosters for followers (Bass & Avolio, 1994). An environment wherein followers are encouraged to become actualized throughout their tasks and engagement with the organization is indicative of Individualized Consideration.

2. Transactional Leadership

a. *Contingent Reward* – The practice of this characteristic revolves around an exchange between a follower's effort and reciprocal compensation from the leader (Northouse, 2012). In short, the leader enters into an agreement with the follower to exchange some form of remuneration or praise for acceptable performance by the follower.

b. *Management-by-Exception* – This factor refers to critical interventions employed by leaders in order to correct inappropriate or ineffective follower behavior (Bass & Avolio, 1994). A leader who practices active Management-by-Exception is always looking for mistakes and engages in corrective action quickly and decisively. In contrast, passive Management-by-Exception is characterized by a leader who only engages in corrective measures after a systemic problem emerges (Northouse, 2012).

3. Nonleadership

a. Laissez Faire – This sole factor within Nonleadership is found when leaders practice behaviors that give responsibility for organization outcomes completely to the follower. Northouse (2012) suggests that within such practices, little to no effort is made by the leader to develop the follower.

The Full Range of Leadership Model plots each factor along a continuum represented by opposing vectors. On one side Transformational leadership behaviors - including Influence, Inspirational Motivation, Intellectual Stimulation, and Individualized Consideration (the Four I's) - represent a high magnitude of effectiveness and activity. Laissez-Faire practices represent the opposite vector wherein there is a high magnitude of passiveness and ineffectiveness. Transactional approaches fall in between Transformational Leadership and Nonleadership on the continuum as Contingent Reward behaviors and Management-by-Exception move from the effective/active end to the Ineffective/passive end respectively.

New leadership theory, which is suggested to include transformational leadership, proposes that followers' perceptions of leadership charisma and effectiveness determine leader influence, and that perception is often attributed to the creation and articulation of a vision (Bryman, 1992; Clark & Greatbatch, 2011). Transformational leaders often employ vision as a means to engage followers, and further encourage the attribution of organizational outcomes to leadership, especially when individuals appear or claim to be responsible for the outcomes of the organization (Meindl, 1990; Shamir, 1992). This is a common claim of charismatic leadership, and will be explored herein as an outcome of facial expression.

Followership

Leadership is largely dependent on the decision of followers to engage with and support a vision or common goal; Northouse (2013) suggests that followership must be understood in relation to leadership. However, leaders are not “better or above” followers (p. 6). Bono and Ilies (2006) suggest that “the relationship between charismatic leadership and the expression of positive emotions may lend insight into followers’ attraction to such leaders and their effectiveness” (p. 321). The complexity of leadership and followership is highlighted above as transformational leadership, and charisma underscores the importance of understanding, communication (verbal and non-verbal), and vision-orientation. The expression of followership is socially constructed, promoting shared control and power, as well as influence. Meindl, Ehrlich, and Dukerick (1985) further highlights leadership’s central focus on followers to include the importance of visual imagery in identifying and relating to leaders; a critical variable in the study discussed herein. Followership, therefore, is equal to, if not more important than, leadership in this complex and subtle exchange.

Methods

Participants

The study included 97 undergraduate students from a variety of interdisciplinary leadership programs and student organizations at a large Mid-Atlantic, predominantly white, land grant university. After outliers were removed, data from 83 participants were included. The nature of participant recruitment required volunteer participation and therefore must be considered a convenience sample. In order to increase participation in the study, the investigators employed a hybrid data collection strategy involving in-person and online administration of the treatments four separate treatments. A T-test was used to assess the null hypothesis that no significant variability existed between the separate treatment administration strategies. Online data collection was compared to brick and mortar administration, and the null hypothesis was unable to be disproven, suggesting that data from both types of treatment administrations were viable.

Research Design

The focus of this study was the relationship between facial expression and followership. Each treatment in the research design included an audio/visual recording of a trained actress delivering an identically worded script using different facial and vocal effects. The script itself was written in the tradition of a video resume with language meant to inspire the listener and garner support. In order to ensure phrasing was identical for each treatment, the script was kept on hand during the performance. Two separate video recordings of the actress were analyzed using Noldus FaceReader software to measure overall magnitude of six universal human facial expressions (Joy, Surprise, Fear, Anger, Disgust, Sadness) as well as a neutral facial expression (P. Ekman & Friesen, 1971; Schmidt & Cohn, 2001). Scores for each expression provided seven independent variables for this study. The independent variables associated with the various samples are outlined in the *treatments* section below.

Data was gathered from participant responses to the aforementioned samples. Participants were told to imagine they were on a committee tasked with hiring a person who would ultimately be their supervisor; and the actress was a candidate. Immediately after viewing and listening to the sample treatment, participants were asked to indicate how likely they would be to recommend the candidate for hire using a scale from 1 (very unlikely) to 6 (very likely). They were also asked how expressive they felt the candidate was (on a sliding scale where “1” was least expressive and “100” was most expressive). Participants’ appraisals of the actress’ expressiveness were used to ensure that samples were achieving the desired effect and also to compare a human response to that of the FaceReader software. After answering these initial questions, participants then completed the rater form of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) so factors associated with the Full Range of Leadership Model could be examined as dependent variables.

Treatments

The exploratory study sought to answer two research questions. First, do a leader's facial expressions have an impact on students' opinions of the leader? Second, is there a relationship between universally accepted human facial expressions and leadership factors within the Full Range of Leadership Model (particularly Transformational Leadership)? In order to further examine these questions, four treatments were administered to randomly assigned participants. Treatments were divided into two a priori affective categories; 1) an "expressive" affect and 2) a non-expressive or "flat" affect. A professional actress was asked to perform a script as expressively as possible during one filming and without expression on the next. These performances were recorded and used to construct the battery of treatments. Given that human communication is a complicated process involving a variety of verbal and nonverbal cues including not only spoken words, but also body language, gestures, vocal intonation, and nonverbal speech elements (Schmidt & Cohn, 2001), care was taken to control for a number of confounding variables inherent to the complexities associated with the manners people communicate. Several strategies were employed across the four separate treatments in order to control for verbal and nonverbal confounding variables.

- In order to control for facial appearance (as opposed to expression) a photo of the actress smiling warmly (expressive) as well as one showing a neutral facial expression (flat) were incorporated into the treatments. Additionally the use of a single actress ensured there was no variability between physical facial features.

- Confounding variables which may have resulted from minor alterations in phrasing between treatments were controlled by reviewing each treatment in conjunction with the script to ensure the phrasing was exact and identical.

- To control for body language and gestures, each treatment video only framed the actress from her shoulders up and the actress was asked to refrain from moving her body as much as possible.

- Non-verbal speech elements such as vocal inflection, stress, pitch, etc. were controlled by using the same audio tracks across treatments.

In order to avoid artificiality of competing aural and visual cues, the tone of audio treatments (expressive and flat) was matched to corresponding visual treatments. In short, the same expressive audio track was applied to both the expressive video and still expressive image. The same process was used for flat audio and video combinations.

Figure 3.1

Breakdown of Video and Audio Components in Treatments

	Video 1 - Expressive Moving Image	Video 2 – Expressive Still Image	Video 2 - Neutral Moving Image	Video 4 - Neutral Still Image
Audio 1 (Expressive)	Treatment A	Treatment B	-	-
Audio 2 (Neutral)	-	-	Treatment C	Treatment D

Dependent Variables

Dependent variables are described below and are inherent to the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) and full range leadership model on which it is based. An additional dependent variable informed by a combination of transformational leadership factors (Idealized Influence, Inspirational Motivation, Intellectual Stimulation, and Individualized Consideration) was also examined.

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire and Full Range of Leadership Model

This study employed the MLQ (5x-Short rater form) as a primary data collection instrument for secondary dependent variables. The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) was designed to capture a variety of leadership behaviors identified as part of Bass' and Avolio's (1994) Full Range of Leadership Model. The instrument is also suggested to differentiate ineffective leaders from effective leaders. The usefulness of the MLQ for this study was rooted in the questionnaire's focus on behaviors which transform and motivate followers in a given organization (Avolio & Bass, 2004).

The seven factors of the Full Range of Leadership Model (Idealized Influence, Inspirational Motivation, Intellectual Stimulation, Individualized Consideration, Contingent Reward, Management-by-Exception, and Laissez-Faire) are also the primary factors measured by the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ). Participants' scores indicating their assessment of the actress' exhibited behaviors during the audio/video treatment serve as secondary dependent variables to be analyzed in relation to facial expressions. Additionally, the MLQ measures Extra Effort, Satisfaction, and Effectiveness as constructs of leader success, defined by Avolio and Bass (2004) as "how often the raters perceive their leader to be motivating, how effective raters perceive their leader to be at interacting at different levels of the organization, and how satisfied raters are with their leader's methods of working with others" (p. 96) Extra Effort is defined by the ability or perception that a leader will "get others to do more than they expected to do... heighten others desire to succeed... [and] increase others willingness to try harder" (Avolio & Bass, 2004, p.96). Effectiveness is determined by the leader's perceived ability to address others' job-related needs, effectively lead a team or group, meet organizational expectations, and advocate for their team or group to individuals in positions of authority (Avolio & Bass, 2004). Measures of satisfaction are assessed by the utilization of "leadership that is satisfying... [and working] with others in a satisfying way," as perceived by followers or subordinates (Avolio & Bass, 2004, p. 96).

Analysis of data collected using the MLQ concludes that "transformational, transactional and non-transactional leadership factors [in decreasing order] were correlated with extra effort, effectiveness and satisfaction, with the more corrective and passive forms of leadership being negatively correlated with the outcome measures" (Avolio & Bass, 2004, p.72). Furthermore, Avolio and Bass (2004) suggest that "transformational leadership had a more positive impact on Effectiveness and Satisfaction than transactional leadership, which, in turn, had a more positive impact than passive and non-transactional leadership" (p. 6).

Independent Variables

The a priori primary independent variables were defined within treatments and were the four combinations of moving or still images and expressive or flat affects described in Figure 8.1. There were seven secondary independent variables; one for the measured magnitude of each of the seven anthropologically recognized human universal facial expressions including joy, surprise, fear, anger, disgust, sadness, and neutrality (Schmidt & Cohn, 2001). These facial expressions have been demonstrated throughout - and are universally recognized across - cultures. The total magnitude of each expression during the runtime of a given treatment was measured. Universal facial expressions were quantified using Noldus FaceReader software. This software models individual human faces using the Viola-Jones algorithm (Viola & Jones, 2001), identifies over 500 individual points on a given face every 0.2 seconds, and compares facial expressions to over 10,000 manually annotated images within the programs library (Loijens & Krips, n.d.). Using this technology the actress' expressions were measured, quantified and made able to use as data on an interval scale.

After initial analysis of the actress' facial expressions during the expressive and flat video samples, the investigators were forced to acknowledge that a deliberate attempt to avoid emotion by the actress did not result in a predominantly neutral sample. Instead, the FaceReader software identified a shift over a range of emotions. Neutrality was increased substantially when the actress attempted to avoid emotion and there were significant decreases in the magnitudes of both happiness and sadness. However, both magnitudes of fear and surprise were decidedly increased in the flat treatment. Participant responses indicated they felt the expressive treatments were, indeed, more expressive. However, the shift in affect registered in the FaceReader software was important to note with regard to the so-called "flat" treatments, especially when interpreting any relationship between the treatments and dependent variables such as participant fellowship or perceptions of transformational leadership.

-Findings

A two-tailed independent sample t-test was conducted to examine if there were differences between the brick-and-mortar and online participants in the study. Using the response to the question, "would you hire this person," no significant difference ($t = 0.30$, $p = .77$) was found between the two groups. In a second analysis, groups were compared on participants' ratings of expressiveness of the actor. Again, no significant difference was found ($t = -0.61$, $p = .54$), and it was concluded the groups were not different in responses to these variables of interest. The two groups were merged for subsequent analysis.

For each treatment group, researchers calculated mean scores of the MLQ rating of the interviewee's transformational leadership. Findings indicated that the MLQ factor effectiveness maintained the highest mean for each treatment (Figure 1).

Table 4.1
Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire

Factor	Expressive Video Mean (*SD*)	Flat Video Mean (*SD*)	Expressive Picture Mean (*SD*)	Flat Picture Mean (*SD*)
Idealized influence (attributed)	16.30 (2.25)	13.90 (3.17)	16.06 (1.51)	14.32 (3.98)
Idealized influence (behavior)	16.05 (2.09)	15.38 (3.45)	16.00 (1.53)	14.42 (2.87)
Inspirational motivation	18.25 (1.25)	14.71 (3.61)	17.00 (2.17)	15.26 (3.33)
Intellectual stimulation	14.30 (2.84)	14.05 (3.22)	13.56 (1.95)	13.31 (2.91)
Individualized consideration	14.15 (2.62)	12.52 (4.38)	14.61 (2.61)	12.53 (4.18)
Contingent reward	15.85 (2.06)	14.76 (2.76)	15.50 (2.50)	14.42 (3.40)
Management by exception (active)	11.70 (3.77)	12.71 (4.30)	12.78 (2.98)	12.31 (3.77)
Management by exception (passive)	9.60 (3.22)	9.33 (3.32)	11.39 (3.80)	8.95 (2.86)
Laissez faire	8.30 (3.29)	8.62 (3.35)	8.94 (3.42)	8.68 (2.87)
Extra effort	11.45 (2.78)	9.76 (4.06)	11.56 (2.12)	9.63 (3.32)
Effectiveness	19.20 (6.22)	17.33 (6.52)	18.22 (4.87)	16.47 (4.44)
Satisfaction	7.60 (1.46)	6.95 (2.36)	7.50 (1.65)	6.42 (1.84)
Transformational Leadership (summed)	79.05 (8.29)	70.57 (14.62)	77.22 (6.80)	69.84 (15.22)

Note. Scales ranged between 4 to 20 points except for the following: Extra effort (3 to 15 points), Satisfaction (2 to 10 points), and Transformational leadership (20 to 100 points).

Facial recognition software was used to identify seven different expressions of the interviewee in her two different video interviews. Interestingly the highest score for both performances was the expression of being scared in both videos, albeit a 2335 point difference between the two performances. See Figure 2 for scores identified for each expression exhibited in the two videos.

Table 4.2
Facial Expression Scores for Interviewee

Expression	Expressive Video	Flat Video
Neutral	1615.98	2407.42
Happy	363.37	80.76
Sad	102.55	5.57
Angry	4.55	5.74
Surprised	777.16	968.96
Scared	4126.34	6461.55
Disgusted	50.65	6.78

Note. Facial Expression score range for each expression was 0 to 9481 (measured in 0.2 second increments).

To examine if differences existed between participants perceptions of MLQ factors associated with the expressive interview and flat interview a series of two-tailed independent sample t-tests were conducted. Findings suggested significant differences of idealized influence (attributed), inspirational motivation, individualized consideration, extra effort, and transformational leadership between the two treatments with medium to large effect sizes (Cohen, 1988).

Table 4.3
Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire 360 Means for Expressive and Flat Treatments

	Treatment Mean (SD)				
MLQ Factor	Expressive	Flat	*t*	*df*	Cohen's *d*
Idealized influence (attributed)	16.19 (1.94)	14.14 (3.51)	3.13*	76	.72
Idealized influence (behavior)	16.05 (1.84)	14.92 (3.15)	1.90	76	
Inspirational motivation	17.70 (1.83)	15.00 (3.41)	4.29*	76	.98
Intellectual stimulation	14.00 (2.47)	13.66 (3.02)	0.54	76	
Individualized consideration	14.35 (2.62)	12.59 (4.20)	2.20*	76	.50
Contingent reward	15.72 (2.27)	14.59 (3.01)	1.88	76	

Management by exception (active)	12.21 (3.47)	12.51 (3.96)	-0.35	76	
Management by exception (passive)	10.49 (3.63)	9.15 (3.04)	1.78	76	
Laissez faire	8.59 (3.37)	8.66 (3.05)	-0.09	76	
Extra effort	11.54 (2.48)	9.70 (3.63)	2.57*	76	.59
Effectiveness	18.89 (5.57)	16.83 (5.54)	1.64	76	
Satisfaction	7.54 (1.56)	6.73 (2.10)	1.92	76	
Transformational leadership (summed)	78.30 (7.65)	70.32 (14.55)	2.98*	7 6	.68

Note. $*p < .05$. Standard Deviations appear in parentheses below means.

Discussion

This study was conducted to explore the following research questions:

1. Do a leader's facial expressions have an impact on students' opinions of the leader?

2. Is there a relationship between universally accepted human facial expressions and leadership factors within the Full Range of Leadership Model (particularly Transformational Leadership)?

Ultimately, there was some evidence that suggested the answer to both questions was "yes". Certain facial expressions were identified within expressive and flat treatments that suggest the difference in expression did impact followership (see section 5.1). Furthermore, exploratory analysis of descriptive and inferential statistics as well as effect size yielded five significant variables including four factors from the MLQ (idealized influence attributed, inspirational motivation, individualized consideration, and extra effort) and the aggregated transformative leadership score. By plotting treatment group means along a continuum from highest group mean to lowest, patterns in the exploratory data emerged to suggest that Idealized Influence and Inspirational Motivation were most sensitive to facial expression (see section 5.2).

Discussion of Pertinent Facial Recognition Data

Data gathered from the facial recognition analysis revealed important differences between video treatments. Before discussing such variability though, it is important to remember the human element associated with each expression. First, a skilled professional actress was asked to first perform the sample script with high expression and then without expression. Furthermore, all participants were asked to rate the expressiveness of the actress on a scale from 0 "not expressive at all" to "100" most expressive. The mean score for expressiveness as rated by participants who viewed the expressive video treatment was 74.8 whereas the mean score for those viewing the flat treatment was 43.5. These scores suggest that the "human element" within the study felt the expressive videos were far more expressive than the flat videos.

The recognition that participants and the actress believed each treatment to be representative of its intended purpose is useful; however further examination of facial recognition data and deviation among treatment groups underscores the complexity of human communication. Standard deviations between the expressive and flat video treatment groups vary greatly. The expressive group yields a tight standard deviation of 8.2 whereas the flat group shows a far higher deviation of 32.7. Some insight into increased variability in the flat sample may be better explained by a closer look at the facial recognition data.

Reviewing the analysis generated by the Noldus FaceReader software, certain emotions such as happiness and sadness were predictably raised in the expressive sample. Likewise it was not surprising that neutrality was substantially elevated in the flat sample. On the other hand, it was unexpected to find expressions like fear and surprise were notably elevated in the flat video as well. The difference between anger and disgust expressions were insignificant, and thus, disregarded. Figure 5.1 shows measured facial expressions in relation to video treatments.

Table 5.1
Substantial Elevated Facial Expressions by Video Treatment

Expressive Video	Flat Video
Happy Sad	Neutral Surprised Scared

When viewing data from the facial recognition software the simplicity of "expressive" vs. "flat" is made more complicated. Mean scores for significant dependent variables (idealized influence attributed, inspirational motivation, individualized consideration, extra effort, and transformative leadership) suggest that the flat video is often perceived as inferior. One way to explain this may be found in uncertainty reduction theory (Berger, 1986). According to uncertainty reduction theory, individuals are disinclined to accept uncertainty in interpersonal relationships. Furthermore, the theory posits that this need to reduce uncertainty from the relationship is the basis of the need for interpersonal communication. Because transformational leadership is heavily rooted in the leader's interpersonal relationship with the follower, the investigators posit that communication - including facial expression - which removes greater uncertainty would elicit greater scores on the dependent variables. It may be true that neutrality, surprise, and fear elicit uncertainly while happiness and sadness reduce uncertainty. Further research is needed to confirm or dismiss this.

Discussion Potential Relationships between Treatment Means

When viewing treatment means along the continuum from highest to lowest, four patterns emerged including: Polarized Videos, Polarized Photos, Expressive/Flat Dichotomies with a picture emphasis, and Expressive/Flat Dichotomies with a video emphasis. Expressive treatments were always more impactful on raising participant ratings of the actress; regardless of pattern. However the most powerful arguments for facial expression (vs. facial feathers or vocal intonation) were found in within the polarized video pattern Figure 10.2 and the following discussion explicate these patterns for each significant dependent variable.

Table 5.2
Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire 360 Means for significant differences

Factor	**Highest Mean** --			**Lowest Mean**	**Description of Relationship**
Idealized influence (attributed)	Exp. Video 16.30 (2.25)	Exp.Picture 16.06 (1.51)	Flat Picture 14.32 (3.98)	Flat Video 13.90 (3.17)	Polarized Videos
Inspirational motivation	Exp. Video 18.25 (1.25)	Exp. Picture 17.00 (2.17)	Flat Picture 15.26 (3.33)	Flat Video 14.71 (3.61)	Polarized Videos
Individualized consideration	Exp. Picture 14.61 (2.61)	Exp. Video 14.15 (2.62)	Flat Picture 12.53 (4.18)	Flat Video 12.52 (4.38)	Expressive/Flat Dichotomy (Picture Emphasis)
Extra effort	Exp. Picture 11.56 (2.12)	Exp. Video 11.45 (2.78)	Flat Video 9.76 (4.06)	Flat Picture 9.63 (3.32)	Polarized Photos
Transformational Leadership (summed)	Exp. Video 79.05 (8.29)	Exp. Picture 77.22 (6.80)	Flat Video 70.57 (14.62)	Flat Picture 69.84 (15.22)	Expressive/Flat Dichotomy (Video Emphasis)

5.2 Polarized videos: A case for the Impact of Facial Expression

The most compelling relationship regarding facial expression is that of polarized videos. The hallmark of this relationship is exhibited in heightened positive and negative impacts on group means by video treatments. In other words, expressive videos had the greatest effect on raising mean scores while flat videos had the greatest effect on lowering mean scores (still photos were similar in direction, but not magnitude). In the case of polarized videos pattern, facial expression seems to have a greater effect on follower perception than other communication factors such as nonverbal vocal effects and facial appearance. This was the case for both the Idealized Influence (Attributed) and Inspirational Motivation factors measured by the MLQ.

Idealized Influence is a factor in the MLQ that is derived from the Full Range of Leadership Model (Bass & Avolio, 1994). Northouse (2012) explains that Idealized Influence has two parts including an attributional and behavioral component and is the transformational leadership factor also known as Charisma. It makes sense that the attributional component was significantly affected by treatments whereas the behavioral component was not because participants were unable to view behaviors of the individual. Rather, participants could only attribute notions of Idealized Influence based on the information they could gather from the treatment. The recognition that participants attribute this factor to the actress based solely on the information gathered from the video, in conjunction with the fact that expressive video means are highest and flat video means are lowest, further substantiates the likelihood that facial expression is a powerful contributor to the attribution of Idealized Influence.

Inspirational Motivation is particularly sensitive to emotional calls from leaders (Northouse, 2012). Video treatments of this factor were also polarized wherein participants were most negatively affected by flat video treatment and most positively affected by expressive video treatments. While one might say the fact that an expressive effect corroborates higher emotional appeal is commonsensical, facial recognition suggests that it is only happiness and sadness that are substantially elevated in the more expressive treatment. As discussed before this may likely involve a higher amount of uncertainty removed from the communication that facial expressions which manifest in the flat treatment (neutrality, fear, and surprise).

Conclusion and Implications for Further Research

After using the FaceReader advanced facial imaging software to examine aspects of leader facial expression and a exploratory design, investigators discovered that a leader’s facial expression can have profound effects on student perception of said leader. Facial expressions such as happiness and sadness are suggested to have a statistically significant positive effect on factors of Transformational Leadership (i.e. Avolio & Bass, 2004); especially Idealized Influence (attributed) and Inspirational Motivation. Several suggestions for further research can be taken from these findings. First, based on the findings of this study, the investigators suggest that similar if not identical data collection strategies be employed to a larger population. Furthermore, participants should be randomly selected and assigned into groups rather than sampled through convenience strategies. By employing a more powerful experimental design based on the methods of this study, the investigators expect that findings will be not only replicated in a more significant and generalizable fashion, but strengthened.

Several evolutions of research into facial expression and leadership are also brought to light by the finding of the exploratory study. First, facial expression may be better held in contrast to facial appearance with additional actors/actresses serving as further treatments and added independent variables surrounding facial appearance. Second, aspects of the actor’s/actress’ and participants’ identity should be considered as an independent variable as well. The additional analysis of race and gender may prove telling as research into facial expression and leadership proceeds. Finally researchers could extend the methodology of the study into the realm of mixed methods. Qualitative interviewing and coding of participants before and after the treatments may yield deeper insight in the manners by which participants were affected by the treatments.

Leadership, like interpersonal communication, is very difficult to define and explain. The complexity of human communication creates a wide-open space for exploration into the way followers make meaning of a leader’s behavior and communication. By using modern technologies like Noldus’ FaceReader software, new research design can be used to break down and control for increasingly discreet portions of the cumulative effects of the manners by which leaders lead. The purpose of this study was to begin a path of research into one specific and small, yet powerful subset of communication in leadership. The *effects* of a leader’s *affect* may indeed be more powerful than anyone yet realizes.

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Mindsets of Leadership Education Undergraduates: An Approach to Program Assessment

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Abstract

Students (N=313) in undergraduate leadership degree programs at Texas A&M University were surveyed to determine their leadership mindset. This study assessed hierarchical and systemic thinking preferences. Significant differences in thinking were found between gender and academic classification. Findings indicate formal leadership coursework influences students' leadership mindsets.

Introduction

Leadership continues to be in high demand across many contexts today. Research shows that employers look for recent graduates who possess leadership and the associate skills such as communication, decision making, self-management, teamwork, professionalism, and experiences (Crawford, Lang, Fink, Dalton, & Fielitz, 2011). Annually, the National Association of Colleges and Employers (NACE) completes a job outlook survey, and "employers are looking for team players who can solve problems, organize their work, and communicate effectively" (NACE, 2013, para. 1), all companion skills to leadership. In our evolving society, leadership is critical to organizing individuals to collaboratively solve serious problems (Allen, Stelzner, & Wielkiewicz, 1998).

Defining leadership continues to be a complicated process resulting in a variety of definitions, attitudes, and perceptions. Among various populations and across industries, individuals develop a specific mindset about leadership based on their acquired knowledge and through experience. Even though the demand for leadership knowledge continues to grow, there is a lack of consensus in defining leadership and practicing leadership. Over the last several decades, leadership scholars have defined leadership in a variety of ways and have shifted their focus from just the leader to the relational process between leader and follower (Bass, 2008). Traditionalists view leadership as purely hierarchical and assigned, while progressives support a systems approach that relies on members to emerge and contribute to the organization's decisions (Northouse, 2013; Wielkiewicz, 2000).

In response to the increasing need of leadership skills and perspectives, leadership development has remained the focus in higher education. College and institutions across the nation have incorporated leadership into their mission statements, have identified leadership as a core value, and have developed a variety of leadership training opportunities (Astin & Astin, 2000). Others have developed leadership education programs and created unique leadership laboratories for students to learn leadership principles through formal settings and practice their leadership skills through supervised activities (Brungardt, 1997).

While incorporating leadership education and development is deemed important for colleges and universities, teaching leadership has its challenges. In the editors' introduction of the summer 2009 edition of the *Journal of Leadership Education*, Middlebrooks and Allen embarked on a study of leadership education professional organizations. This study identified the biggest challenge facing leadership education as being able to clarify leadership complexity. It was specifically noted that "helping students understand that leadership is not about formal authority and positions" and "conventional paradigms of leadership and 'cook-book' strategies distract us from learning the important lessons of leadership-deeper leadership" (Middlebrooks & Allen, 2009, p. xiii).

Goertzen (2009) asserted that leadership educators "must intentionally engage in conversations regarding sound student learning outcomes and measurement of student attainment" (p. 159). Haber (2012) found differences in leadership definitions by gender and age. Other studies measured student leadership learning and skill development through specific leadership courses or activity completion (Blackwell, Cummins, Townsend, & Cummings, 2007; Brungardt & Crawford, 1996). Black and Earnest (2009) developed a summative method for participants at the conclusion of a leadership development program to determine the amount of knowledge retained. Other researchers combined both formative and summative approaches to a four year leadership education program (Lindsay, Foster, Jackson, & Hassan, 2009).

Despite the focus on leadership education and development, little research exists on leadership mindsets or leadership thinking of undergraduate students as the result of leadership education programs and established curricula. Priority II of the *National Leadership Education Research Agenda* for the Association of Leadership Educators (Andenoro, Allen, Haber-Curran, Jenkins, Sowcik, Dugan, & Osteen, 2013) articulated the need to evaluate leadership programs. To develop highly effective leadership education curricula, "programmatic monitoring and evaluation are critical for leadership educators to consider as they attempt to determine if their practice is achieving the desired outcomes" (Andenoro et al., 2013, p. 10). This study provided an opportunity to expand the existing research of leadership education students and collect data measuring the impact of leadership curriculum on individual student leadership mindsets.

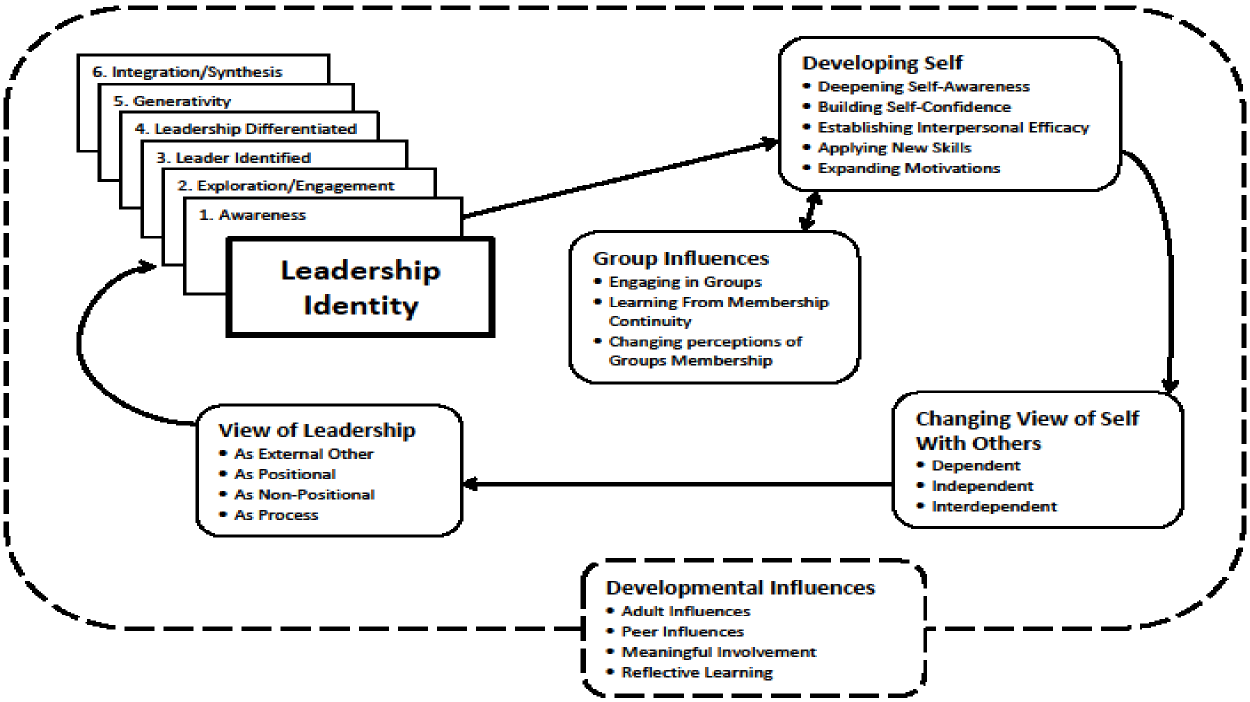
Literature Review and Conceptual Framework

Using a grounded theory approach, Komives, Owen, Longerbeam, Mainella, and Osteen (2005) developed a model for how college students develop their leadership identity. The Leadership Identity Development (LID) model includes a sequence of six stages an individual experiences as they develop their leadership identity (see Figure 1). The six stages of the developmental process were identified as leadership constructs (Komives et al., 2005):

1. Awareness
2. Exploration/Engagement
3. Leader Identified
4. Leadership Differentiated
5. Generativity
6. Integration/Synthesis

The *awareness* stage typically occurs during childhood and represents leadership as external and independent of the participant. The *exploration/engagement* stage is focused on the development of self-concept and self-confidence with influences by adults and peers. Stage three is *leader identified* suggesting that at this stage individuals identify a leader in a positional capacity responsible for group outcomes. At the *leadership differentiated* stage, individuals are moving beyond believing leadership is the responsibility of a positional leader to believing that

Figure 1. Developing a leadership identity: Illustrating the cycle



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leadership is the responsibility of all group members. *Generativity* or stage five is identified as individuals who begin accepting responsibility for the development of others into interdependent leaders. The *integration/synthesis* stage is characterized by active and continual engagement by the leader, striving for congruence and internal confidence, and value is placed on interdependent relationships.

Five organizational categories are identified as influencing the process of developing leadership identity (Komives et al., 2005):

1. Developmental influences
2. Developing self
3. Group influences
4. Changing view of self with others
5. Broadening view of leadership

A student's "growing awareness of self, increased self-confidence, establishment of personal efficacy, the application of new skills, increased motivation, and changed personal perceptions of group and individual roles" (Komives et al., 2005, p. 608) characterizes research for the LID model. Student's self-awareness and growth in leaders is a key element in their development potential as leaders. Shifts in development stages were a result of a broadening view of leadership based on students' broadening view of self with others and influenced by developmental influences, group influences, and development of self.

Stage four has been identified as a significant differentiation of the concept of leadership. A substantial subject-object shift (Komives et al., 2005) occurs between stages three and four when students' views of others change and views of self in relation to others changes. This is the period where students begin to see leadership as shared/participative even if they are in a positional role. Students also believe they can be a participant in the leadership process "without a positional title" and still be participating in leadership (Komives et al., 2005; Komives, Lucas, & McMahon, 2006). There is potential for a "key crisis" to occur in stage three of the LID model. As students experience and explore their hierarchical understanding of leadership, a crisis may lead them to see leadership as more of a collaborative process and less of a focus on the positional leader.

Research using the LID model has surfaced in regard to examining students' mindsets of leadership (Wielkiewicz, Fischer, Stelzner, Overland, & Sinner, 2012), specifically how students view leadership as hierarchical or systemic. Students with a more hierarchical view of leadership are likely to believe that outcomes of leadership are related to positional leaders. The systemic view is characterized by a belief that leadership in an organization should be the responsibility of every organizational member and open communication and adaptability correspond to greater success within the organization (Wielkiewicz et al., 2012). Komives et al. (2005) characterized students in stage three as having more hierarchical views and students in stage four identified more with systemic thinking views.

Wielkiewicz et al. (2012) examined the leadership identity of first-year college students at 22 institutions. This study evaluated students' leadership attitudes and beliefs and concluded incoming students show characteristics of stages 2 (exploration/engagement) and 3 (leader identified) of the LID model. Likewise, a qualitative study focused on the awareness stage of the LID model and found that students described their involvement in leadership differently based on position and non-positional roles (Shehane, Sturtevant, Moore, & Dooley, 2012).

The LID model was developed to aid leadership educators in facilitating student leadership development (Komives et al., 2005). Determining where students stand in their leadership identity is important for leadership educators because it may serve as a "spring board" for designing curriculum and experiences for helping students develop leaders. Thompson (2013) found coursework experiences have a strong, significant, and positive impact on student learning and growth as a leader.

Students in leadership degrees at Texas A&M University complete four leadership courses throughout their degree plan that contain concepts related to hierarchical and systemic thinking. Throughout these courses, students begin to experience and learn about leadership as a process and not just a position. Table 1 illustrates the content taught in these courses with potential to influence students' leadership thinking.

Table 1
Leadership Courses at Texas A&M University linked to Systemic vs. Hierarchical Thinking

Course Number	Title	Leadership Concepts
200 level	Intro to Leadership	Relational Leadership Model Leadership Education vs. Leadership Development
300 level	Personal Leadership	Social Change Model LID Model

300 level	Leadership Theory	Evolution of Theories: Progression from Great Man to Transformational
400 level	Change	Individual, Group, and Organizational Change

It is hypothesized that students in a formal leadership degree with experiences that facilitate their growth and development will think more systemically as they progress through their undergraduate program. As students complete more formal leadership coursework, they will think more systemically. However, research is needed to assess whether students further in their leadership coursework think systemically. Assessing where students are in relation to their leadership identity development is important for leadership educators to understand so changes to their respective degree programs can be made to influence student growth if necessary.

Purpose and Objectives

The purpose of this exploratory descriptive study was to examine the leadership mindsets of undergraduate students completing a leadership degree at Texas A&M University. Existing research suggests leadership perceptions and attitudes may be affected by gender and experience (Komives et al., 2005; Wielkiewicz, 2000). Thus, this study provides an opportunity to see how individual characteristics (gender and classification) affect leadership thinking in undergraduate leadership students. Specifically, the study addressed the following objectives:

1. Describe leadership students' leadership mindsets in terms of hierarchical and systemic thinking.
2. Determine relationships between hierarchical and systemic leadership mindsets based on student characteristics of gender and academic classification.

Methodology

Survey research was the approach used in this study. The population for this study was undergraduate students majoring in Agricultural Leadership & Development and University Studies-Leadership at Texas A&M University. There were a total of 1,034 students enrolled in leadership education courses when the data was collected. The accessible population was students enrolled in eight leadership courses in the spring 2013 semester. After removing students who were enrolled in multiple courses, the accessible population was 415 students. These students and courses represented students at various stages of their degree program. A majority of students in this study were juniors and seniors; this is characteristic of the population as a majority of students enrolled in a leadership degree at Texas A&M University are upperclassmen. Academic juniors have completed at minimum 60 college credit hours; seniors have completed 90 hours. This was a census study; however course selection was used as a slice in time (Oliver & Hinkle, 1981) due to the variability in representativeness of the target population and participant demographics. The final dataset consisted of 313 students (*N=313*) for this study resulting in a response rate of 75.4%.

A 36-item paper instrument used in this study consisted of the Leadership Attitudes and Beliefs Scale (LABS) (Wielkiewicz, 2002) and questions related to participants' personal characteristics. The LABS examines leadership thinking with two constructs: Hierarchical Thinking and Systemic Thinking. Each scale consisted of 14 items measured on a five-point summated scale: *1 (Strongly Disagree), 2(Disagree), 3(Neither Disagree nor Agree), 4 (Agree), and 5(Strongly Disagree).* The hierarchical scale is representative of beliefs about leadership being more about a position and positional leaders being responsible for the success or failure of an organization.

The systemic thinking scale is representative of beliefs that leadership is everyone's responsibility and open communication and adaptability provide a stronger chance for an organization's success (Wielkiewicz, 2000; Wielkiewicz, 2002). Convergent and discriminative validity of the scales have been established (Wielkiewicz, 2002). Other research studies have established the LABS as a valid tool for measuring college students' understanding and evaluation of leadership (Fischer, Overland, & Adams, 2010; Thompson, 2006; Wielkiewicz, 2000; Wielkiewicz, 2002).

To address objective one of the study, descriptive statistics were implemented to describe leadership students' leadership mindsets using constructs of hierarchical and systemic thinking. Descriptive statistics reveal attitudes toward distinctive factors of groups who may be dissimilar (Agresti & Finlay, 2009). The descriptive data included frequencies, percentages, mean scores, and standard deviations. Outcomes of descriptive statistics include arranging, summarizing, calculating, and describing a dataset.

The second objective of the study was to determine if significant differences existed between hierarchical and systemic thinking based on student characteristics (gender and classification). The researchers used independent sample t-tests (Field, 2005) to determine if significant differences existed among gender and hierarchical and systemic thinking. Significant differences between classification and hierarchical and systemic thinking were also assessed with t-tests due to two dominant groups of juniors and seniors.

The limitations of this study are the population as respondents were students enrolled in leadership courses at Texas A&M University. However, the results do offer those who teach college leadership courses insight into students' mindsets about their leadership attitudes and beliefs.

Findings

The first research objective of this study was to describe leadership students' leadership mindsets in terms of hierarchical and systemic thinking. Tables 2 illustrates the descriptive statistics for hierarchical thinking from largest to smallest mean score with frequencies. The item with the highest mean for hierarchical thinking was "An organization should try to remain as stable as possible" ($M=3.95, SD=0.87$). The next item was "A leader should take charge of the group" ($M=3.92, SD=0.80$). The lowest mean for hierarchical thinking was "The most important members of an organization are its leaders" ($M=2.38, SD=1.07$).

The descriptive statistics for Systemic Thinking are displayed in Table 3. "Individuals need to take initiative to help their organization accomplish its goals" was the item with the highest mean ($M=4.48, SD=0.67$). The item with the lowest mean was "Environmental preservation should be a core value of every organization" ($M=3.09, SD=1.05$). Twelve of the 14 items in the systemic thinking scale were above a mean score of four, indicating agreement.

Table 2
Descriptive Statistics for Hierarchical Thinking (N=313)

Item	Responses % (*f*)						
	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	*M*	*SD*
An organization should try to remain as stable as possible.	25.2 (79)	52.7 (165)	14.7 (46)	6.1 (19)	1.3 (4)	3.95	0.87
A leader should take charge of the group.	21.1 (66)	55.9 (175)	17.6 (55)	4.8 (15)	0.6 (2)	3.92	0.79
Leaders are responsible for the security of organization members.	16.6 (52)	53.7 (168)	26.5 (83)	2.9 (9)	0.3 (1)	3.83	0.74
The responsibility for taking risks lies with the leaders of an organization.	13.4 (42)	54.6 (171)	19.5 (61)	11.8 (37)	0.6 (2)	3.68	0.87
The main tasks of a leader are to make and then communicate decisions.	14.1 (44)	48.6 (152)	17.9 (56)	17.6 (55)	1.9 (6)	3.55	1.00
Members should be completely loyal to the designated leaders of an organization.	12.8 (40)	36.7 (115)	37.7 (118)	11.5 (36)	1.3 (4)	3.48	0.90
The main task of a leader is to make important decisions for an organization.	13.1 (41)	36.1 (113)	29.7 (93)	18.8 (59)	2.2 (7)	3.39	1.01
A leader must maintain tight control of the organization.	9.9 (31)	32.6 (102)	36.7 (115)	19.2 (60)	1.6 (5)	3.30	0.94
A leader must control the group or organization.	9.3 (29)	35.1 (110)	32.9 (103)	20.8 (65)	1.9 (6)	3.29	0.96
Positional leaders deserve credit for the success of an organization.	5.1 (16)	27.8 (87)	39.9 (125)	22.0 (69)	5.1 (16)	3.06	0.95
When an organization is in danger of failure, new leaders are needed to fix its problems.	5.8 (18)	23.4 (73)	40.3 (126)	26.2 (82)	4.5 (14)	3.00	0.95
It is important that a single leader emerges in a group.	6.1 (19)	15.7 (49)	37.4 (117)	37.1 (116)	3.8 (12)	2.83	0.95
A leader should maintain complete authority.	5.8 (18)	21.4 (67)	28.8 (90)	36.4 (114)	7.7 (24)	2.81	1.04
The most important members of an organization are its leaders.	5.8 (18)	9.6 (30)	20.4 (64)	45.4 (142)	18.8 (59)	2.38	1.07

Note: Grand Mean = 3.32, Overall SD=1.04

Table 3
Descriptive Statistics for Systemic Thinking (N=313)

Item	Responses % (*f*) Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	*M*	*SD*
Individuals need to take initiative to help their organization accomplish its goals.	53.4 (167)	43.5 (136)	1.9 (6)	0.0 (0)	1.3 (4)	4.48	0.66
An organization needs flexibility in order to adapt to a rapidly changing world.	47.1 (147)	48.6 (152)	2.9 (9)	1.0 (3)	0.6 (2)	4.41	0.65
Leadership should encourage innovation.	45.0 (141)	50.8 (159)	3.8 (12)	0.0 (0)	0.3 (1)	4.40	0.60
Organizations must be ready to adapt to changes that occur outside the organization.	44.1 (138)	52.4 (164)	2.9 (9)	0.0 (0)	0.6 (2)	4.39	0.61
Everyone in an organization is responsible for accomplishing organizational goals.	44.4 (139)	50.5 (158)	4.2 (13)	0.6 (2)	0.3 (1)	4.38	0.63
Effective leadership seeks out resources needed to adapt to a changing world.	45.4 (124)	47.3 (148)	6.7 (21)	0.3 (1)	0.3 (1)	4.38	0.65
Leadership processes involve the participation of all organization members.	40.3 (126)	45.0 (141)	10.5 (33)	3.8 (12)	0.3 (1)	4.21	0.79
An effective organization develops its human resources.	30.7 (96)	60.7 (190)	7.7 (24)	0.6 (2)	0.3 (1)	4.21	0.63
Good leadership requires that ethical issues have high priority.	35.5 (111)	51.4 (161)	11.5 (36)	1.3 (4)	0.3 (1)	4.20	0.71
Organizational actions should improve life for future generations.	33.2 (104)	51.4 (161)	13.7 (43)	1.3 (4)	0.3 (1)	4.16	0.72
Successful organizations make continuous learning their highest priority.	32.6 (102)	49.2 (154)	15.3 (48)	2.6 (8)	0.3 (1)	4.11	0.77
Leadership activities should foster discussions about the future.	24.6 (77)	60.1 (188)	14.1 (44)	1.0 (3)	0.3 (1)	4.08	0.67
Anticipating the future is one of the most important roles of leadership processes.	16.3 (51)	58.1 (182)	20.1 (63)	4.8 (15)	0.6 (2)	3.85	0.77
Environmental preservation should be a core value of every organization.	8.6 (27)	27.2 (85)	35.8 (112)	21.4 (67)	7.0 (22)	3.09	1.05

Note: Grand Mean=4.17, Overall SD=0.79

Scores were calculated for each thinking scale. Scores range from 14 (low) to 70 (high). The majority of the participants scored below the midline threshold (56) on the hierarchical scale and above the threshold on the systemic scale. Means and standard deviations were calculated for each thinking scale based on participant's gender and classification (see Table 4). Males had the highest mean score for hierarchical thinking (*M=47.81, SD=7.04*), and females had the highest mean score for systemic thinking (*M=58.83, SD=4.86*). Seniors averaged the lowest in hierarchical thinking (*M=45.58, SD=7.*19) and the highest in systemic thinking (*M=59.00, SD=4.79*).

Table 4
Descriptive Statistics for Summative Thinking Scales by Characteristic (N=313)

		Hierarchical Thinking		Systemic Thinking	
Characteristic	*n*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
Gender					
Males	183	47.81	7.04	57.98	6.10
Females	130	44.59	7.89	58.83	4.86
Classification					
Freshmen	10	46.50	8.75	57.50	6.85
Sophomores	46	47.17	8.86	57.70	5.80
Juniors	106	47.44	7.27	57.75	6.44
Seniors	151	45.58	7.19	59.00	4.79

To address the second research objective, inferential statistics were used to investigate the differences between gender and the two prominent classification groups for the two thinking scales: juniors and seniors. In Table 5, the researchers compared the means of males and females using independent samples *t*-test with alpha level set *a priori* at .05 (α = .05). There was a significant difference in gender for hierarchical thinking between males (*M = 47.81, SD = 7.04*) and females (*M = 44.59, SD = 7.89*). There was not a significant difference between males and females for systemic thinking, *t* (311) = -1.315, *p* = .190.

Table 5
Independent t-tests with Thinking Scales and Gender (N=313)

Thinking Scale	Gender	*N*	*M*	*SD*	*t*	*p*
Hierarchical	Males	183	47.81	7.04	3.792*	.001
	Females	130	44.59	7.89		
Systemic	Males	183	57.98	6.10	-1.315	.190
	Females	130	58.83	4.86		

Note: **p* < .05

The majority of the participants were juniors (*n = 106*) and seniors (*n = 151*). Table 6 displays the findings of the independent samples *t*-tests for juniors and seniors on the thinking scales. There was a significant difference, *t* (255) = 2.033, *p* = .043, between groups for hierarchical thinking. Systemic thinking scales were not significantly different between juniors and seniors.

Table 6
Independent t-tests with Thinking Scales and Upperclassmen (N=257)

Thinking Scale	Classification	*N*	*M*	*SD*	*t*	*p*
Hierarchical	Juniors	106	47.44	7.27	2.033*	.043
	Seniors	151	45.58	7.19		
Systemic	Juniors	106	57.75	6.44	-1.790	.075
	Seniors	151	59.00	4.79		

Note: *p < .05

Conclusions and Implications

In this study, males were significantly higher than females in hierarchical thinking, which congruent with past research using the LABS scale (Wielkiewicz et al., 2012). There was no significant difference in gender for systemic thinking, which is different from previous findings (Wielkiewicz et al., 2012). However, previous research was focused on students enrolled in introductory courses. For this specific study, the difference between genders may become non-significant as time progresses with the influence of leadership curriculum.

Komives et al. (2005) found students in Stage 3 of the LID Model were characterized by hierarchical thinking and students in Stage 4 were more systemic thinkers. In this study, seniors scored significantly lower in hierarchical thinking. The finding implies the more formal leadership coursework a student completes the more their mindset of leadership may evolve from a positional perspective to a comprehensive view. By the spring semester, seniors have completed three required leadership courses, which include an introductory course, a personal leadership course, and a leadership theory course. Most seniors are enrolled in their last three courses, which include ethics, leading change, and their capstone seminar. Additionally, seniors may have completed an elective leadership course focused on teams, learning organizations, volunteering, culture, or training. With the influence of these courses, senior leadership students have moved to the *leadership differentiated* stage, beginning to identify leadership as a collaborative process between organizational members, which is characteristic of systemic thinking.

Juniors, on the other hand, scored significantly higher in hierarchical thinking. Students in the junior classification may just be beginning their leadership coursework. They are more than likely to have completed the introductory course and are currently enrolled in either personal leadership or leadership theory. At this point, juniors appear to be in stage 3 of the LID Model—*leader identified*. At this stage, individuals identify leaders by position, which is congruent with the hierarchical thinking scale. And, although not significant, juniors did average lower than seniors in systemic thinking. This leads the researchers to believe formal coursework has an impact on students' leadership growth and development, as determined by Thompson (2013).

Recommendations

This study provides baseline data for examining the leadership mindsets of current students in one leadership degree program at a single university. It is recommended that this study be replicated in other leadership degree programs as a way to evaluate the curriculum being offered and determine if leadership coursework is having the effect intended by the stakeholders of that program.

Further research should examine specific leadership experiences and the relationships between them and the thinking scales. This study did not differentiate between the knowledge students gained through formal coursework and the knowledge gained from other leadership developmental experiences while in college. It is important to understand if specific experiences in courses such as high-impact experiences have an influence on students' thinking in regard to leadership.

Finally, it is recommended that a longitudinal study be conducted following one random sample of students in a leadership program throughout their undergraduate years to examine effects of their experiences and their change in thinking at different stages. This study could identify turning points that promote students' change in thinking in regard to leadership.

Based on the results of this study, the researchers recommend that college and universities who offer degree programs and formal coursework in leadership be purposeful in creating opportunities for students to grow and develop into systemic thinkers. Komives et al. (2009) offered suggestions to leadership educators to apply the LID model to leadership education practice. As leadership educators offer intentional ways for students to develop systemic views of leadership, students will be better prepared to demonstrate leadership and make a difference in their future endeavors.

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An Evaluation of Student Perceptions on the Impact of Curricular and Co-curricular Activities on Their Changes in Leader Behaviors

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Abstract

Leadership educators seek to understand how they can better develop leadership among their students. The purpose of this study was to understand how students perceive changes in their leadership practices, while taking a personal leadership education course. This study found that curricular, co-curricular, and extracurricular activities had an impact on the students' perception of their change in leadership behaviors.

Introduction

Individuals learn and develop leadership through a variety of mediums such as formal coursework, youth and college programs, educational experiences, and on-the-job experiences (Brungardt. 1997; Cress, Astin, Zimmerman-Oster, & Burkhardt, 2001; Dugan, 2006). Universities across the nation work to create meaningful coursework that allows students to not only learn about the field of leadership but develop their personal leadership skills, as well. According to Huber (2002), the goal of leadership education is to provide opportunities for people to learn skills, competencies, and knowledge necessary to become successful leaders. The National Leadership Education Research Agenda (NLERA) (2013) states the following definition of leadership education:

> Leadership Education is the pedagogical practice of facilitating leadership learning in an effort to build human capacity and is informed by leadership theory and research. It values and is inclusive of both curricular and co-curricular educational contexts. (Andenoro et al., 2013, p. 3)

This definition serves as a guide for leadership educators to develop leadership skills within college students. It is necessary to also clarify the term leadership development, as this is the umbrella under which leadership education resides. Leadership development can understandably be interpreted in numerous different contexts. However, to maintain continuity with the NLERA definition of leadership education, this study will use the leadership development definition of Allen and Roberts (2011), which states that "Leadership development is a continuous, systemic process designed to expand the capacities and aware-ness of individuals, groups, and organizations in an effort to meet shared goals and objectives" (p. 67). Understanding leadership development is essential as leadership educators attempt to expand the capacities of individual students both in the classroom through curricular activities and outside the classroom through co-curricular assignments. Posner (2004) reinforces this when he stated, "Leadership development is now an integral part of the educational program of college students, with courses and activities scattered throughout the co-curricular experience" (Posner, 2004).

The experiences and activities that Posner (2004) referenced can be considered high-impact practices, which contribute to the leadership development of students. High-impact practices both inside and outside of the classroom have been shown to increase student learning, engagement, and retention of information (Kuh, 2008). Some of the high-impact practices outlined by Kuh (2008) include: collaborative assignments and projects, common intellectual experiences, diversity/global learning, learning communities, and service learning/community-based learning. Leadership educators can and should incorporate these high-impact practices within their courses in order to enhance the education and development of the students. High impact practices, such as leading a team, can have positive implications for leadership development when paired with a leadership course. A study that examined leadership development found that, "Perhaps augmenting the leadership experience of being a team captain, with a formal course or reflection process would lead to even greater gains in leadership skills" (Grandzol, 2011, p. 67). Leadership educators should consider that there are multiple potential benefits of actually practicing leadership that enhance leadership development among students (Grandzol, 2011).

The idea of incorporating high-impact practices into leadership courses is reinforced by Robert's (2008) assertion that study alone is not sufficient for development. Additionally, a more comprehensive approach that incorporates the practice of concepts and theories learned in the classroom, is necessary for educational and leadership development. Part of this approach includes the practice of reflection. Leadership educators have the unique capability to promote and facilitate students' reflective practices. This is significant as Roberts says that the ability of students to reflect "…will indeed be crucial to their success" (p. 126). A specific reflective practice that students can practice is critical self-reflection. Mezirow (1990) identifies critical self-reflection as a means of learning, or "the process of making a new or revised interpretation of the meaning of an experience, which guides subsequent understanding, appreciation, and action" (p. 1). The learning that accompanies critical self-reflection can result in valuable insight into a student's pattern of reaction (Mezirow, 1998). A part of learning to think for oneself is critical self-reflection. Adult educators must understand the significance of self-reflective practices with regards to facilitating adult learning, and how it can be used for multiple purposes (Mezirow, 1998).

A reliable model for leadership educators to use in order to effectively measure students' leadership practices is the Student-Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) developed by Kouzes and Posner (1987). The LPI measures five leadership practices: (a) Model the Way, (b) Inspire a Shared Vision, (c) Challenge the Process, (d) Enable Others to Act, and (e) Encourage the Heart. The Student-LPI can be assigned among any context to broadly measure the leadership practices of college students (Grandzol, 2011). Observations validate this tool as it pertains to this study of a personal leadership course:

> That the more student leaders reported having both opportunities to be leaders and to develop their leadership skills the more they engaged in each of the five leadership practices supports the predictive validity of the instrument and conceptual framework. (Posner, 2012, p. 232)

As Posner (2012) stated the critical components to increasing student leadership behaviors are opportunities to be a leader and the opportunity to develop leadership skills, this study took into account both components. Posner (2012) also noted the need for studies that examine the impact of leadership development programs and classes to understanding how leadership is developed. This study revolved around students within a personal leadership course, who were exposed to opportunities to be leaders and develop their leadership skills through their service-learning projects and classroom activities. According to Jenkins (2012), “The signature pedagogies in undergraduate leadership education might be a collection of class discussion, projects and presentations, self-assessments and instruments, and critical reflection” (p. 18). The utilization of comprehensive pedagogical teaching practices allows for leadership educators to equip students to become leaders in any career opportunity (Jenkins, 2012). The leadership educators’ task to develop student leadership skills aligns with priorities found within the NLERA.

Priority Three of the NLERA tasks leadership educators to psychologically develop leaders, followers, and learners (Andenoro et al., 2013). Included in this priority are development of leaders’ self-awareness, self-esteem for leadership practice, creativity, self-agreement, self-sacrifice, and empowerment. According to the NLERA, these constructs “provide a powerful foundation for the learner” (Andenoro et al., 2013). The constructs can additionally allow the learner to develop perspective for self within a group context (Andenoro et al., 2013). However, these self-related constructs must ultimately be practiced within the context of a group. Much of leadership learning occurs through the abstract and concrete experiences of groups that are trying to complete a task or goal (Komives, 2013, p. 32).

The curricular and co-curricular activities of the personal leadership course also specifically related to Priority Four of the NLERA, as it sought to develop students’ sociological development (Andenoro et al., 2013). The curricular, group activities in the classroom correlated specifically to the development of learning organizations, which is a key component of Priority Four. This priority builds upon Priority Three as it establishes a cornerstone for the individual’s impact within group, team, and organizational contexts (Andenoro et al., 2013). The personal leadership course explored the use of creative assignments and innovative evaluation practices. The course aimed to develop sociological skills among the students, as it required they work and communicate in groups throughout the course’s duration. As Posner (2012) noted the need for studies to examine the impact of leadership development programs and classes to increase understanding of how leadership is developed, this study sought to evaluate students’ perceptions of how the course impacted their development of five exemplary leadership behaviors.

Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework for this study was based upon Kolb’s Experiential Learning Model (1984). Kolb’s (1984) experiential learning model reinforces the idea of reflective practice and observation as an integral part of students’ ability to learn. The definition of experiential learning theory notes that experiential learning creates knowledge that results from the transformation of experience and the understanding of that experience (Kolb, 1984; Kolb & Kolb, 2005). Kolb’s experiential learning model (1984) situates learning as a process linking education, work, and personal development. This model posits four points, which are key to learning through experience: concrete experience, reflective observations, abstract conceptualizations, and active experimentation. These points are cyclical and each is unique to the learner's experiences (Kolb, 1984).

In this study, students were provided a concrete experience through the class lectures, participation in a small group in class, and a service learning project. This study asked students, to reflect on their leadership behaviors (reflective observations) during and after the experiences. Students stated changes they expected to occur (abstract conceptualizations), and applied these changes to other parts of their life (active experimentation) such as their work experiences, student organizations, and course projects. This array of experience, reflection, and conceptualizations allowed for students to have a rich learning opportunity and develop a plan for continued growth in their leadership behaviors.

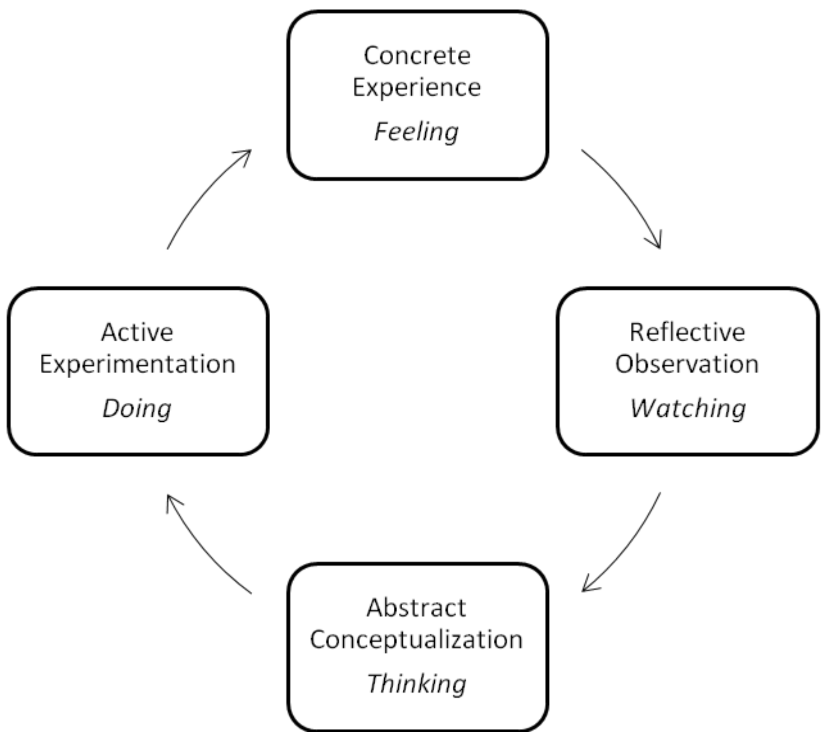

Figure 1. Kolb's Experiential Learning Model. Adapted from *Experiential learning: Experience as the source of learning and development*. Copyright 1984 by Prentice Hall.

The purpose of this study was to explore the impact of a personal leadership education course on students' personal changes in exemplary leadership behaviors. This study sought to evaluate students' perceptions of how curricular and co-curricular components of the course impacted their development of five exemplary leadership behaviors.

Context for the Study

Although this is a qualitative study, the researchers feel it is important the reader understand the quantitative instrument that the students completed as a pre/post assessment. Students in a personal leadership development course completed the online version of the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI; John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 2014) as a course requirement. The LPI "identifies specific behaviors and actions that students report using when they are at their 'personal best as leaders'" (Posner, 2012, p. 222); the identified behaviors are Model the Way, Inspire a Shared Vision, Challenge the Process, Enable Others to Act, and Encourage the Heart. The instrument contained 30 questions and asked students to respond on a five-point summated scale (1=Rarely or Seldom; 2=Once in a While; 3=Sometimes; 4=Often; 5=Very Frequently). This self-assessment was measured for reliability and validity by Posner (2012); a database of approximately 78,000 students was used to run the statistics. Internal reliability was found to be acceptable for each of the identified practices with the following Cronbach alpha coefficients: Model the Way (α=.69), Inspire a Shared Vision (α=.78), Challenge the Process (α=.73), Enable Others to Act (α=.69), and Encourage the Heart (α=.80). Validity was affirmed through normative analyses of leadership engagement and leadership behaviors, and predictive validity of the instrument was supported through analyses determining that students who engaged in leadership and leadership development opportunities were more engaged with each of the five leadership practices (Posner, 2012). Student's LPI scores were the basis of their reflections, which were analyzed for this study.

Methods

The design for this study was a basic qualitative study methodology. A basic study, according to Merriam (2009), seeks to understand how individuals make sense of their experiences. This study examined the reflections of students in a personal leadership education course during the Fall 2013 semester in the [Department] at [University] to make sense of their course experiences in conjunction with their service learning growth projects. The students represented a criterion-type purposive sample as they were all required to meet an indicated criterion (Patton, 2002). The required criterions were as follows: the students were required to be enrolled in [*Course name*], complete both Leadership Practices Inventory assessments, and respond to the two reflection prompts.

Students first completed the LPI assessment at the beginning of the semester before any content was presented. The students were sent a link via their university email to complete the online LPI assessment and reflect on their scores using the following prompt: Which of the five leadership practices or behaviors will you focus your actions on? The course content was framed around the five leadership practices of Model the Way, Inspire a Shared Vision, Challenge the Process, Enable Others to Act, and Encourage the Heart. Students were also required to complete a service learning growth project to, not only give back to the community, but to apply course content; students were encouraged to choose a project that was personal to them. At the completion of the course, students were again sent a link to complete the online LPI and asked to reflect on the change in their scores using the following prompt: (a) Look at your initial response to reflection question one. Did your new LPI report indicate an increase on this practice or behavior? If so, how do you feel you have focused your actions on that particular practice or behavior this semester? If not, why do you feel your report did not indicate an increase in this practice?

To address the purpose of the study, the data were analyzed using the constant comparative method. In accordance with Glaser and Strauss' (1967) four stage description of the constant comparative method, the data were unitized, compared and integrated units to investigate emergent themes, categorized, and reported as the students' perspective of the impact of a personal leadership education course on students' personal changes in exemplary leadership behaviors and perspectives on most important exemplary leadership.

The trustworthiness of this study was established through Lincoln and Guba's (1985) concepts of credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability. Credibility was established through peer debriefing by the researchers (Lincoln & Guba, 1985); transferability was established through the use of purposive sampling and participant quotes throughout the findings of the study (Erlandson, Harris, Skipper, & Allen, 1993); and dependability and confirmability were established through the use of audit trails, peer audits, and researcher-kept reflexive journals (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). The data were coded (S1-S162) before the analysis process began to ensure the confidentiality of the students and the respective data codes were included after the documented quotations to create an audit trail.

Results/Findings

The purpose of this study was to explore the impact of a personal leadership education course on students' personal changes in exemplary leadership behaviors. Students were asked to reflect on whether their scores on the LPI for behaviors they intended to focus on had increased from the beginning of the semester to the end of the semester and their perspectives on why this did or did not occur. Two themes emerged for students whose scores did increase which were: curricular and co-curricular activities and extracurricular activities. For student's scores who did not increase, two themes also emerged: different focus for the behaviors and scoring of assessment.

Positive change in LPI score

Curricular and co-curricular activities. Students who reported that curricular and co-curricular activities had an impact on their increase in scores reflected about purposeful experiences in the course which allowed them to focus on the behavior. Students reported on the course content and assignments as means for application of the five leadership practices. "Ever since we had our lecture on modeling the way, I have tried to embrace that in my everyday life by acting how I expect other people to act and it has truly made me a better leader" (S6). Student S49 wrote, "I started to become more open with discussing my shared vision with others due to all the class small group activities…assignments on creating solid vision for my future also helped my score in this [inspire a shared vision] category." Increases in behavioral scores were also because the course forced them "to communicate, take control, and make decisions" (S134) in projects and assignments. Similarly, the small group activities in class allowed students to "rely heavily on each other for grades, projects, and encouragement" (S86). Students were required to complete a service learning growth project as part of the course assignments; students found this experience to be a means for applying their leadership behaviors. "I was able to focus my actions on Challenging the Process this semester by my service learning growth project that I chose, as well as the organizations that I am involved in" (S25).

Extracurricular activities. Extracurricular activities also had an impact on the increase of student scores on the LPI due to "active participation" (S139) by the students in the organization and/or workplace. “I have taken on more leadership roles in organizations I’m in…I believe I set the bar by being an example for members” (S139). Student S26 described their work as a server trainer where they “tried to get every other server on board [with new systems] and inspire them to strive for the same goal…I would always show them praise.” Similarly, student S71 reflected, “At work I have made a more careful effort to create expectations for myself and I have had my students create expectations for me and vice versa. I must uphold these expectations if I expect them to uphold theirs.” The effect of leadership behavior implementation was also seen in terms of follower behavior. “I try to give other employees more freedom to do some of the jobs that I normally take care of. I have been able to trust people more and they now trust me more” (S32).

No increase in LPI score

Different focus for behaviors. Students revealed that they “may have been focused on other areas of leadership” (S162) and diverted from their initial intent, resulting in a lack of increase in their LPI scores. Student S124 stated, “I do not necessarily think I got worse at [enabling others to act], but instead put more focus on other behaviors during the semester, thus taking a little away from the behavior” (S124). Students also indicated an effect of the personal, inward nature of the course material on their scores. “Since I was in class all semester, I can see why my behavior for enabling others to act is less than at the beginning of the semester because I focused on myself” (S90). Others discovered the behavior they chose to focus on did not align with their core values.

> I think that the reason I showed change in one area but not the other comes down to a question of values. While I did not have a problem with enabling others to act (I actually find it quite useful) I have never had the encouraging mentality. I’m not easy on myself and don’t go get myself a reward for small achievements so why would I be that way with other people? (S2)

Students acknowledge their focus on strengths during the semester could have affected their scores. “S22” “S62”

> To me this means that I need to accept that I am not the best at this category and focus myself in other categories. I thought in the beginning of the semester that by working on my weaknesses it would make me a well-rounded individual. However, over the course of this semester, I have learned it is better to emphasize and grow in your strengths. (S89)

The nature of the service learning projects that students chose was also considered a factor in students’ focus on changing leadership behaviors. “My score went down two points because the service learning project I worked on involved a lot more teamwork than I expected. This focused my attentions more on inspire a shared vision.” (S125).

Students’ opportunities, life-situations, and “personal challenges” (S34) were also factors in their ability to apply the desired leadership behavior. Student S44 reflected, “I did not have very many opportunities to demonstrate challenging the process this semester.” Student S152 further described:

> As I reflect back on the class, I realize that as I learned about the different practices, I really connected and admired leaders from model the way. While I enjoyed learning about encourage the heart, and still hope to increase this practice, I ended up increasing

> model the way because of the opportunities I had this semester, as well as how I connected with the practice in class. (S152)

Student S9 described a situation in which their personal disagreement with an organization's leadership affected their ability to practice their desired behavior.

> My report did not indicate an increase in inspiring a shared vision. I believe the reason for this is because I related a lot of the answers for my survey with how I am in the Corps, and I have a hard time believing in everything the Corps is changing, so it is difficult for me to promote that vision. (S9)

Difficulty to focus on a particular leadership behavior due to an absence of a desire to change was also cited as a reason for a lack of increase in LPI scores. Student S106 reflected, "I tried to focus on enabling others to act, but my report shows a negative change which is due to being hardwired to want to be in control and…not let others be a variable in my fate." Student S64 described their difficulty, "I really struggle with thinking outside of the box and being creative. I like to take control of projects and situations…it is hard for me to take a step back and let others work with me to achieve our common goal."

Scoring of Assessment. Through the semester, students "gained a higher knowledge of the subject matter and gained a better understanding" (S10) of each of the five practices of exemplary leaders. Student S137 stated, "I believe I became a much more aware leader. I am now able to understand my actions in a new light and furthermore, understand how those actions will affect those around me." This understanding led students to change their scores based on information learned in the course content. "When I first took the assessment I may have felt like I was strong in modeling the way. After taking this course and obtaining the knowledge of what modeling the way truly means, I feel like I still have a lot to improve on and this feeling is reflected in my score" (S61). Students also reflected that after learning the course content, they were more honest or accurate when scoring themselves. "I feel the reason the score did not increase is because when answering the questions the second time, I was more honest with myself" (S80). Student S92 further reflected, "I feel my report did not indicate this change because this time I was more honest with my LPI and it shows my leadership practices more accurately."

Although many students felt their lack of increase was due to a more honest understanding of the five practices, others felt as though the LPI assessment itself was not a good measure of their leadership behaviors and "did not properly assess" (S107) them. "My LPI score did not report an increase in the practices of inspiring a shared vision and challenging the process. However, I do personally feel that I did perform better in these areas, regardless of what the report says" (S19). Some students felt as though the assessment did not capture their changes in leadership behavior. "I feel like I did not show an increase because I could not share how I know I have grown in inspiring a shared vision" (S66).

Conclusions/Implications

As Posner (2012) noted, studies are needed to examine the impact of leadership development programs and classes to increase understanding of how leadership is developed. This study explored the impact of a personal leadership education course on students' personal changes in exemplary leadership behaviors.

It can be concluded from the findings that the course content affected the students understanding of the five practices of leadership. Students were able to make “revised interpretation” (Mezirow, 1990, p. 1) of their LPI scores as a result of critical reflection on course content. Students referred to their learning in the course and understanding of the five practices as contributing to an increase or lack of increase in their scores, a manifestation of understanding and learning according to Mezirow (1998). Along with an understanding of the five practices of leadership, it can be concluded that the course content also affected the students’ application or non-application of the five practices of leadership. This study agrees with Posner’s (2012) observations that, “those student leaders, who saw themselves as most effective in comparison with their peers, consistently reported using each leadership practice more.” Some students may not have indicated an increase in their LPI score because they did not have enough time and experiences to use the practice.

The findings also indicated that course content allowed students to apply leadership behaviors through small-group activities in the classroom. This conclusion reinforces Posner’s (2012) assertion that leadership classes and education programs do influence the student leadership behaviors that they report using. This course allowed students to have opportunities to both develop leadership skills and act in leadership roles, which aligned with Posner’s (2012) critical components for student leaders. It can be concluded that leadership education and leadership development can and do occur through formal leadership coursework in college. Therefore, it is recommended that formal leadership coursework integrate more opportunities for students to practice their leadership behaviors. Because high-impact practices have been found to increase student learning, engagement, and retention of information (Kuh, 2008), leadership educators should continue to incorporate high-impact practices within courses that link education <u>and</u> development of leadership in students. These high-impact practices do take time to develop, but in this study were found to impact students’ development of leadership behaviors.

It can also be concluded from the findings of this study that extracurricular activities allowed students to apply and focus leadership behaviors. As Huber (2002) states, “In addition to learning ABOUT leadership, the students are learning FOR leadership” (p. 30). If the goal is to increase leadership abilities in people and organizations, then they must be able to practice leadership in order to gain experience (Huber, 2002). The findings indicated that students in this course were able to practice leadership in a variety of ways including: work experience and student organizations. Based on this conclusion, leadership educators should help students connect what they are learning in leadership coursework to extracurricular activities. While some students may see the link in what they are learning in a leadership course to a student organization or work experience, leadership educators should be intentional in helping them to connect the dots.

The findings of this study also indicated that students’ experiences (personal and organizational) affected their non-ability to apply leadership behaviors during the semester. In accordance with Pozner’s (2012) indication that student engagement dictates leadership behavior use, students indicated they were not able to increase in a certain behavior because they were not engaged in opportunities to practice their behaviors. Additionally, this study found that students’ values and strengths dictated where they chose to focus their leadership behaviors. If students did not view a practice as one of their strengths or did not value the practice, they noted this as a reason why they did not score high on the practice. One of the teaching points within this personal leadership education course encouraged students to focus on using their strengths rather than improving their weaknesses. The findings indicate this concept impacted the focus of some students' practice of leadership during the semester. Therefore, it is recommended that leadership educators involve students in discussion about differences between leadership assessments and the implications of only engaging in behaviors that are considered one of their strengths. Discussion has been considered a signature leadership pedagogy and can provide a medium for students to communicate their thoughts and facilitate their knowledge and understanding of leadership and their development of leadership behaviors (Jenkins, 2012).

It should be noted that in Kouzes and Posner's (1987) conceptualization of the five practices, all practices considered exemplary and fundamental for leaders to be effective. Leadership educators should make sure this fact is communicated to students. Even though students may be stronger in some practices, no practice should be disregarded if they are to be effective leaders and set out to achieve extraordinary results.

Recommendations for Research

Posner (2012) noted the need for studies to examine impacts of leadership development programs and classes to increase understanding of how leadership is developed. This study used a basic qualitative design to assess the impact of a leadership course on students' perceptions of how their leadership behaviors were developed. Future studies should incorporate quantitative designs to measure overall impacts and to draw conclusions on whether significant differences in changes in leadership behaviors occurred over a semester long leadership course and specifically what impacted these changes.

This study examined perceptions of why student scores increased during a leadership course. Perceptions were measured using students' reflections of what they experienced throughout the course. Leadership educators should use reflection to facilitate students' understanding of leadership and to assist them in identifying specific leadership behaviors they have developed. As noted by Roberts (2008), students' ability to reflect will be crucial to their success. Critical self-reflection is a skill, which can be used by students to learn by making new or revised interpretations of meaning to guide understanding, appreciation, and action (Mezirow, 1990). Learning to think for oneself is part of critical self-reflection. Leadership educators should continue to investigate the significance of self-reflective practice and how it can be used to facilitate learning for multiple purposes (Mezirow, 1998). Future studies should incorporate measures to identify components of reflective practice and critical self-reflection, which best facilitate students' ability to develop leadership behaviors.

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The Development of Leadership Identity through an Interdisciplinary Leadership Minor

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Abstract

Researchers analyzed students' experiences while enrolled in a leadership minor with the intent to explore leadership identity development. Researchers identified the development of leadership identity and the development of leadership skills among outcomes of leadership minor involvement. Implications and recommendations for leadership development programs are discussed.

Introduction and Theoretical Framework

Although leadership development is a broad term, it usually involves behaviors in which individuals change their perceived identity as a leader (Komives, Owen, Longerbeam, Mainella, & Osteen, 2005; Komives, Owen, Longerbeam, Mainella, & Osteen, 2006; Lord & Hall, 2005). Therefore, effective leadership development programs could be identified as programs that encourage the development of leadership identity among participants. This study sought to evaluate a leadership development experience at the college level, a leadership minor, by evaluating the development of participant's leadership identity. Through this study, we aimed to provide a method for assessing leadership development experiences as well as examine evidence of leadership development through an interdisciplinary leadership minor.

In 2005 and 2006, a team led by Komives set out to further understand leadership development through examining the change in leadership identity over time, which yielded the proposition of a leadership identity model (Komives et al., 2005; Komives et al., 2006). This leadership identity model expanded the previous understanding of leadership development to include a specific process in which leaders develop. The leadership identity model proposed by Komives et al. (2005, 2006) was developed using the leadership development reflections of students at the post-secondary level. Komives et al. (2005, 2006) found the college experience to be an appropriate time to evaluate students' leadership identity development. This timeframe allowed students' enough life experience to reflect on, while still engaged in the development of their own leadership identity.

The leadership identity model proposed by Komives et al. (2005, 2006) outlined six stages of identity development: awareness, exploration/engagement, leader identified, leadership differentiated, generativity and integration/synthesis. The research completed by Komives and her team acknowledge that most students enter college in the leader identified stage (stage three) and some students will work their way to the final stage of leadership identity, integration/synthesis during their college years. Although student progression through the six stages is not exactly linear, research by the Komives team suggested a "helix model," we should still be able to observe outcomes of leadership development as students navigate through the six stages of leadership identity development.

The first stage in the leadership identity model is awareness. The awareness stage involves students becoming aware that leadership happens in the world. Typically students' view leaders in this stage primarily as historic leaders. The first stage of leadership identity development also includes students' feeling completely reliant on others. The transition out of the awareness stage begins when a student starts to realize their potential to be a leader in the future. In stage two, exploration and engagement, students begin to form peer groups and seek opportunities to explore their interests. Opportunities for students to take on new responsibilities, including leadership occur during this exploration-based stage. Students' view of leadership in stage two includes recognizing leaders like teachers, ministers, and siblings. The transition out of stage two is typically marked by the recognition of the student's leadership potential by someone else (Komives et al., 2006).

Stage three, leader identified, is the stage in which the majority of students begin their college career. In the leader identified stage, students recognize positional leadership and begin moving in and out of leadership roles, exploring what it takes to be a positional leader. As students move through this stage they start to reduce their involvement in groups, focusing on those groups that have greater personal meaning. During stage three leaders pursue more complex leadership roles and recognize that quality leadership requires all group members to participate in the process of leadership. Reflection and learning are essential as students continue to transition out of stage three. This time of reflection and learning leads the student to consciously practice new ways of being a leader (Komives et al., 2006).

Students' begin to view leadership as more than just a title as they enter into stage four, leadership differentiated. During this stage students view themselves as community builders within their groups. This new view of leadership forces many students to seek guidance from adults to process their leadership experiences in search of a deeper understanding of leadership. Students also turn to their peers as role models for effective leadership practices during this stage. The transition from stage four to stage five begins as students become aware that they can make a larger difference through their leadership. Students begin to connect their leadership to a larger purpose as they move into stage five, generativity. Student's philosophies of leadership began to take shape, and a commitment to the sustainability of their groups develops as students move through stage five of leadership identity development (Komives et al., 2006).

As students transition into the final stage of leadership identity development, integration/synthesis, they begin to align their leadership skills to their future goals. As students begin stage six they realize they have the leadership skills to be effective in a variety of different contexts. In addition, stage six is marked with a commitment to life-long development and a confidence to try new leadership experiences. A hallmark of this stage is that students integrate leadership into their personal identity (Komives et al., 2006).

The leadership identity model (Komives et al., 2005, 2006) provides a suitable framework for examining potential outcomes of a successful leadership program (see Figure 1). As students develop their leadership identities they should become more efficacious towards their abilities to be successful leaders (Komives et al., 2006).

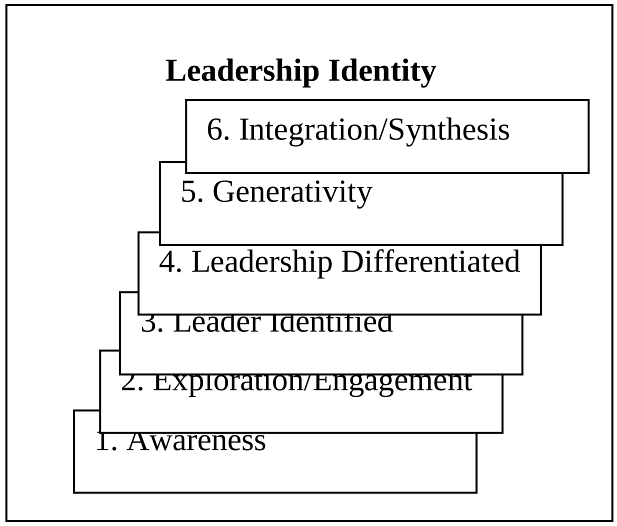

Figure 1. Six steps to leadership identity development (Komives et al., 2005, 2006).

One method for the development of leadership identity among college students is through a leadership minor. A leadership minor is designed as a place within the academic curriculum for students to engage in leadership development (Johnson White, 2006). Leadership minors offer students an opportunity to explore leadership theories, develop leadership skills and further their leadership development through a variety of in class and out of class experiences, thus providing them the opportunity for leadership identity development. This study sought to examine the leadership identity development of students as they reflected on their experiences involved in a leadership minor.

Purpose/Research Questions

As part of a larger qualitative study, this particular study sought to analyze and describe students' experiences in a leadership minor with the intent to identify and describe changes in students' leadership identity. To that end, our research question that guided this project was as follows: How does leadership identity change as a result of students' experiences in the leadership minor? This research project is intended to address Area I, Priority I of the National Leadership Education Research Agenda to "explore Curriculum Development Frameworks to Enhance the Leadership Education Transfer of Learning" (Andenoro et al., 2013, p. 5).

Methods/Procedures

In this qualitative study, we utilized a descriptive and interpretive research design, which included "description, interpretation, and understanding in the form of recurrent patterns, themes, or categories" (Merriam, 1998, p. 34). According to Creswell (2008) "The focus of qualitative research is on the participants' perceptions and experiences, and the way they make sense of their lives" (p. 195). Participants in this study shared their experiences and perceptions of the leadership minor through elicitation of written reflections, a student portfolio, a focus group interview, and a questionnaire.

Data Collection

Through the investigation and analysis of student portfolios and reflections as well as a written questionnaire, we were able to collect the participant's thoughts and experiences in raw written form. We also captured student reflections through a focus group interview in which reflections were recorded and transcribed into written form. We collected data during the last month of the capstone course when students submitted their final portfolio and reflections and were asked to complete the questionnaire and participate in the focus group interview.

Focus group interviews. We captured the interpretations of the participants' experiences and perceptions through the transcription and analysis of a semi-structured focus group interview. We used an interview guide protocol that divided the interview into topics with initial wording of broad questions carefully selected and a list of topic areas to be explored (Brenner, 2006). The focus group interview consisted of a series of questions that addressed topics about the leadership minor in the areas of leadership training, education and coursework, application and experiences, and programmatic feedback. Broad questions were asked that addressed the pre-planned topics of interest with some follow up questions to elicit more details and promote saturation. To allow participants to share their thoughts about their range of experiences in the leadership minor, we planned and designed the interview question prompts and outline for possible discussion topics ahead of time. The interviews were conducted by the two lead researchers of the study. The lead researcher was the moderator and interacted with the students during the interview while the second researcher took notes during the interview.

Student artifacts. The student portfolio consisted of the students' ideas about leadership and their leadership philosophy, information about their capstone project and experiences, an exit reflection about the leadership minor, and future leadership goals. The portfolio project was designed to allow students to share their experiences, goals, and what they learned from their time in the leadership minor and the capstone class. Students worked on their portfolios throughout the term of the capstone course.

Questionnaire. The questionnaire consisted of three close-ended questions and three open-ended questions. Two questions were demographic in nature, three related to the value and importance of the leadership minor for the students, and one related to career goals. Students completed the questionnaire during the last week of the capstone course.

Research Quality

This study followed the eight overarching criteria for research quality suggested by Tracy (2010) for "excellent qualitative work" (p. 837). Tracy (2010) suggested "Quality qualitative research is marked by worthy topic, rich rigor, sincerity, credibility, resonance, significant contribution, ethics, and meaningful coherence" (p. 839). Throughout the research process and this narrative, we have attempted to address these quality characteristics.

To insure sincerity and transparency, we acknowledged and were sensitive to the inclinations of researcher biases and tried to provide thorough accounts of the methods employed. One way we increased transparency is through an audit trail and collecting and documenting all phases of the research process. Throughout the research, the documents were coded *P* for portfolio, *F* for focus group interview, and *Q* for questionnaire. All participant data were provided with a page number to provide a link to the original data. All data were saved in original, traceable form and all transcripts were transcribed verbatim. In order to identify how our personal experiences, feelings, and beliefs may affect our research and to provide readers with a lens through which to consider the study's credibility, it is important that we share the researchers' views, backgrounds, and a statement recognizing subjectivity (Merriam, 1998). Our epistemological views are constructivist in nature. We are all currently employed in teacher education in a field of youth leadership development. Two researchers have conducted research on the topic of leadership. One researcher was very familiar with the participants as the director of the leadership minor and instructor of the capstone course. This researcher was not involved in the focus group interview. One researcher had interacted minimally with the students in the leadership minor through his role as a guest speaker on various occasions. We acknowledge these experiences and views may have influenced how we interacted with and analyzed the data.

Credibility was sought through triangulation and member reflections on our interpretations of the data. To ensure the highest level of credibility while meeting rigorous standards, we used two different types of triangulation in this study: data triangulation and triangulation through multiple analysts. Data triangulation was achieved through careful analysis of students' written reflections, student questionnaires, and focus group interview. Multiple researchers were utilized in the analysis of data and although we all analyzed the data separately, we combined each analysis to result in the findings. We also utilized constant comparisons of interview data and field notes to ensure congruence among all researchers. To further enhance credibility, we presented the data and analysis thereof to participants to allow for member checks. We provided the transcripts of the focus group interview and a draft of the analysis to two respondents for feedback, corrections and clarifications. Both agreed with our data and analysis. Furthermore, we attempted to use rich, vivid participant descriptions and concrete details in this narrative while showing the voices of all the participants in the study.

Participants

The participants for this study were purposefully selected undergraduate students enrolled in the final capstone class of the leadership minor during the Spring 2013 term. The participants represented the first cohort from Oregon State University to graduate with this new degree minor. There were seven students enrolled in the capstone class. All seven agreed to participate in this study. All but one of the participants in the capstone class had completed all of the requirements for the minor at the time we conducted the study. The participants consisted of six females and one male. We found that seven participants were sufficient for the study as data saturation occurred.

The participants were all given pseudonyms to protect their identities. Since there was only one male student, he was given a female pseudonym so that his comments were not readily identifiable. The pseudonyms which were used in the findings included Reba, Amy, Sue, Tina, Ellen, Fran, and Hana. All of the participants self-identified as white and ranged in age from 20 to 29 years old. Four of the seven participants were majoring in the College of Business, two in the College of Science, and one in the College of Public Health and Human Sciences. It is important to note that the leadership minor was just finishing its first full year of availability to students. As a result, all of the program completers, and current participants, could be described as early adopters.

Data Analysis

For this study we used an interpretive design to analyze participants' perceptions and experiences with regard to the leadership minor. We used content analysis protocols to analyze the data. The participants generated personal reflections concerning their experiences with the leadership minor through the focus group interview, written reflections, and the questionnaire. These reflections, either in the raw form or transcribed from interviews, were analyzed and coded for thematic content. We recorded and transcribed the one hour focus group interview while capturing the data from the written questionnaire and the student portfolios in its raw form. We analyzed the data to explore the development of leadership identity.

Content analysis. The data collected were analyzed and coded for thematic content. We used coding protocols outlined by Auerbach & Silverstein (2003) to perform the content analysis. We analyzed all data through a coding process which began with an initial reading of the collected data with the research concerns and the conceptual framework of Komives et al. (2005, 2006) as the lens. After the initial reading we coded the data using constructs consistent with the conceptual framework of this study. We recoded repeating ideas and grouped them into logical and coherent categories to form organized themes and abstract constructs.

Limitations

Qualitative studies are more suited for few cases with many variables (Creswell, 2008). Therefore, this research study is limited in scope because of the small number of participants we studied in greater depth, which limits the generalizability of the findings (Maxwell, 2005). While the information obtained through this study may be applicable for other leadership development programs, we make no attempt to generalize our findings beyond the participants in this study. Furthermore, the data collected from the focus group may not equally represent the views of all the participants. We acknowledge that not all of the participants were equally articulate, perceptive, or willing to share and therefore may not have contributed as much as other more dominant or articulate participants. However, through data triangulation, member checking, and through the moderator's encouragement for participation, we feel the data is representative of the perceptions and experiences of the participants of the study. Finally, we did not include students in their entry level phase of the minor as participants. We did not seek to explore leadership identity development as formed through various stages of the minor. Rather, we focused on students' identity development at the conclusion of the minor.

Findings

Leadership development program should consider the development of students' leadership identity (Komives et al., 2005, 2006). This study aimed to identify and describe changes in students' leadership identity while enrolled in an interdisciplinary leadership minor. Through this analysis we identified evidence of multiple leadership identity stage changes among students in the leadership minor.

Students reported developing a greater sense of leadership as a result of their participation in the minor. Komives et al. (2006) developed a framework for measuring leadership identity and identifying signals of transition from one stage to another. We found participants in this study showed evidence of change in their leadership identity as they transitioned to different stages of identity. Most of the students could be identified in their leadership identity at stage three through stage six with most of them at stage four and five. It is important to note that, according to Komives et al. (2006), each individual can be positioned in multiple stages of leadership identity at a single moment in time depending on the content and context of their life situation.

Evidence of Transition from Stage 2: *Exploration/Engagement* to Stage 3: *Leader Identified*

This transition stage is signaled by students beginning to identify themselves as leaders as well as the identification of leadership skills needed to become a leader (Komives et al., 2006). Students in this transition also embrace the idea of leadership as leader-centric, in which only the leader can exert leadership traits (see Table 1). We found that students in the leadership minor all identified themselves to some degree as leaders, regardless of their official leadership roles in organizations. Throughout the coding process we found no evidence of any student in the first or second stage of leadership identity.

Table 1

Evidence of Transition to Stage 3: Leader Identified

Transition categories	Participant Quotations
Identify as Leaders	"I carry myself as a leader…this is what I do as a leader" (Reba, P1-P2). "I am a leader" (Sue, P60). "Do I think I am a leader? Yes, but I have a lot of room to grow" Ellen, P39)
Identification of Skills Needed to Become a Leader	"I don't think I'm great at it yet but it was a great way to see how he [leader at her internship site] does it" (Ellen, F4).
Leader-centric view	Ellen wrote about her idea of leadership as "how to lead my peers" (P47) and "taking charge of situations" (P40). Hana talked about leadership as a "leader-follower relationship" and wrote, "I want to talk to people at the bottom and people at my level".

Evidence of Transition from Stage 3: *Leader Identified* to Stage 4: *Leadership Differentiated*

According to Komives et al. (2006), transition from stage three to stage four is signaled by learning and thinking in new ways that leads individuals to consciously practice new behaviors. Students in this transition stage also begin to embrace the idea that leadership can be practiced by more than just the leader of the group (see Table 2).

Table 2

Evidence of Transition to Stage 4: Leadership Differentiated

Transition categories	Participant Quotations
Practicing New Behaviors	"It was neat to pull into the school side of things and try to use what I learned in class for my internship" (Amy, F3). "I...changed a lot of the ways I've thought about things and the way I do things now" (Tina, F9).
Leadership Differentiated	"I have learned how I lead and when others lead how to still benefit the group" (Tina, P27). "I used to think that a majority of leaders were born…Now it seems as if everyone has the capacity to lead" (Amy, P8). "Leadership looks different to everyone" (Ellen, P39). Fran wrote, "Anyone can be a leader" (P29) and mentioned her goal to "create a family environment regardless if I am not in charge" (P51). "I would…work together in a more democratic way where there isn't a 'leader'" (Sue, P62)

Evidence of Transition from Stage 4: *Leadership Differentiated* to Stage 5: *Generativity.*

According to Komives et al. (2006), transition from stage four to stage five is signaled by a commitment to a larger purpose and a concern for individuals' core organizations, including the desire to mentor others in the leadership process (see Table 3). During this transition to stage five, students discover and develop their core values and philosophy as a leader.

Table 3

Evidence of Transition to Stage 5: Generativity

Transition categories	Participant Quotations
Commitment to a Larger Purpose	"I want to invest into something that I believe in and something that lines up with my values" (Amy, P12). Sue explained that her leadership goals include " improving my leadership skills" by "getting involved with community service and the student clubs" (P69)
Concern for Future of Organization	"I hope to share my leadership experiences with high school students, so when they come to college they have a better understanding of how to be successful" (Tina, P28). "I found myself mentoring some of the newer staff..." (Ellen, P7).

	"If students are new to the leadership minor there needs to be an encouragement to find someone to work with for the years that you're in the minor" (Amy, F10).
Leadership Philosophy	"Through the minor, I actually discovered my leadership philosophy" (Hana, F9).
	Amy wrote about how experiences in the leadership minor caused "changes that have occurred in my heart, my spirit, and my life values" (P11).

Evidence of Transition from Stage 5: *Generativity* to Stage 6: *Integration/Synthesis*.

According to Komives et al. (2006), transition into stage six is marked by students' internalization of leadership identity and an understanding of their leadership potential wherever they go. Participants in this transition also value lifelong learning, learning from others, and reflect deeply about their leadership identity (see Table 4).

Table 4

Evidence of Transition to Stage 6: Integration/Synthesis

Transition categories	Participant Quotations
Internalization of Leadership Identity	Ellen talks about her leadership strengths as being portable, with a goal to "utilize them in situations" (F1).
	"I can't say what I'm going to use but I know that my brain will make connections later in life" (Reba, F10).
Lifelong Leadership Learning	"I want to continue to learn more about my leadership over the course of my life" (Tina, P28).
Deep Reflection on Leadership	"Through reflection and observation of my personal leadership, I'm finding new ways to adapt to different styles and situations" (Ellen, P3).

Transition stages show evidence that students' leadership identities were changing through involvement in the leadership minor. The context of the data suggests this change in identity was due to leadership development through participation in the leadership minor. We found that individual students would often signal different stages of leadership identity depending on the context or the content they were communicating. For example, Ellen at one point was identified in transition of stage two to stage three when talking about leadership in a leader-centric way. However, she was also identified in transitions three to four, four to five, and five and six when talking about her personal leadership development in a different context such as her leadership philosophy and discussing her internship experiences.

In addition to changes in students' leadership identity, we found that students perceived developing leadership skills through the leadership minor. The data were rich with student statements about specific skills and traits they developed from experiences in the leadership minor. Specific skills and traits that were shared multiple times by multiple students included empathy, confidence, adaptability, delegation, communication, developing relationships, teamwork, fellowship, respect, collaboration, organization, empowerment, conflict management, commitment to self-development, awareness of self and others, and commitment to leaving a legacy.

Conclusions, Implications & Recommendations

As students reflected on their experiences, evidence emerged that students' leadership identity was changed throughout their involvement in the leadership minor. Additionally, students identified through reflection, the development of leadership skills useful in their current and future leadership endeavors. Not only has this research led us to a clearer picture of the leadership minor experience, it has also developed our understanding of applying the work of Komives et al. (2005, 2006) in the context of a leadership minor.

Our findings show evidence of students' leadership identities changing during their time in the minor. As students reflected back to before they began in the leadership minor it was evident that they viewed leadership only as a position, a clear sign of stage 3, leader identified. As students talked about their current view of leadership, what they had learned in classes and their experiences, it was evident a progression in leadership identity had occurred. Further investigation identified specific instances in which students identified a transition from one stage to the next because of a leadership minor experience. We also identified that none of the students were clearly in one stage of the leadership identity development throughout all contexts of their life. Some students would identity as stage six, integration/synthesis, when talking about their ability to develop a group or team in a class setting but would then revert back to a stage three, leader identified, when talking about the next step in their career. These findings support the view of leadership identity development as a helix model in which individuals can re-visit different stages as they develop (Komives et al., 2005, 2006). Our findings suggest that perhaps although an individual may clearly exhibit having reached one higher level stage in one concept or area of leadership development, they may still identify with characteristics of lower stages in other areas of leadership identity development.

Leadership minor programs should consider the stages of leadership identity and analyze the stage at which students enter a leadership minor and the stage at which they exit a minor. Perhaps these stages should be built into the program's learning outcomes, and students should be encouraged to provide feedback given a specific context. This would allow leadership minor programs to determine the programmatic efforts which consistently move students to higher levels of leadership identity.

In addition to leadership identity change, students perceived they developed skills and traits as a result of the leadership minor. These findings support the argument that as leadership identity progresses, so does the development of skills (Komives et al., 2005, 2006). However, is it also possible that the sole development of skills can cause a change in leadership identity? Perhaps leadership identity development involves more than just the acquisition of skills and traits but is a function of a total program effect involving individual learning experiences, self-reflection and group interactions. The nature of leadership identity development as prescribed by Komives et al. (2005, 2006) suggests the need for a sociocultural context as well as opportunities for individual reflection. Can an emphasis on skill development through various contexts yield leadership identity change? We assume that leadership identity development through a leadership minor must include opportunities for both social interactions and individual growth, but should programmatic goals be focused more on skill development or leadership identity change? We suggest more research be conducted exploring the antecedents to leadership identity development. Additionally, research exploring the relationship between skill development and leadership identity development is warranted. A better understanding of this relationship can help program administrators to focus efforts and resources in a more productive way.

This study examined student perceptions of the leadership minor in terms of leadership identity. Although we acknowledge that student leadership outcomes can be affected by programmatic inputs, we did not intend to examine that cause and effect relationship in this current study. Given the dearth of research pertaining to leadership minors, we recommend that future research continue to bridge the gap and focus on both programmatic inputs and student outcomes. This will aid our discipline in our ability to identify and transfer best practices from one program to another. Currently, most research addresses either programmatic inputs or outcomes without the connection linking the two. Without this connection one is left to wonder if the program is truly effective or what impact programmatic efforts have on leadership outcomes. We look forward to seeing future research which examines this from a holistic perspective and are optimistic that leadership education, specifically the development of minors, will continue to evolve into a structure that best meets the needs of all students.

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The Impact of Leadership Training on Emotional Intelligence: A Student Perspective

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Abstract

This qualitative phenomenological study explored the impact of leadership training on students' Emotional Intelligence, using the Emotional Skills Assessment Process model. Participants were enrolled in year-long, cohort-based leadership training programs at an urban community college in a southern state. Student leaders participated in semi-structured interviews to discuss their views on the impact of leadership training on their Emotional Intelligence development. The qualitative data suggested that the social support gained through the leadership training programs is an impactful component on student Emotional Intelligence development. The Emotional Intelligence skills of time management, stress management, and self-esteem were found to be the areas of largest growth for the students.

Introduction

Student success has been linked not only to intellectual ability and content knowledge, but also to personal development outcomes that benefit individuals and society (Kuh, Kinzie, Buckley, Bridges, & Hayek, 2007). This creates a fundamental need for the development and implementation of programs and experiences that develop both the cognitive and non-cognitive competencies of undergraduate students (Terenzini, Pascarella, & Blimling, 1996). A recent study conducted by the National Association of Colleges and Employers found that "employers are looking for team players who can solve problems, organize their work, and communicate effectively" (2014). These are typically thought of as non-cognitive or soft skills. These soft skills are encompassed by the term Emotional Intelligence (EI). Research has shown that EI is correlated to effective leadership, enhanced job satisfaction, and healthy relationships (George, 2000; Law, Wong, & Song, 2004; Palmer, Walls, Burgess, & Stough, 2001), as well as academic achievement, career advancement, and peer interactions (Lopes et al., 2004; Schutte et al., 1998).

While the majority of the research has focused on the predictive elements of EI in higher education, there is scarce research regarding the actual developmental process of EI. This qualitative phenomenological study investigated how current student leaders feel that their EI has been developed during leadership training.

Literature Review

Emotional Intelligence

Since first being popularized by Daniel Goleman (1995), Emotional Intelligence has become a common phrase in the business arena. There are many different definitions of EI. The definition that is used in this study is "a learned ability to identify, experience, understand, and express human emotions in healthy and productive ways" (Low, Lomax, Jackson, & Nelson, 2004, p. 9). There are three different types of EI models: ability, integrative, and mixed. Ability models focus on one specific emotional capacity, such as perceiving emotions. These models allow researchers to focus in-depth on one area, but fail to provide a comprehensive picture of EI.

Integrative models provide a more comprehensive approach to EI and consider EI a developmental process consisting of multiple abilities. The 4-Branch Ability Model developed by Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso (2004) focused on four competencies that when used together enhance a person's ability to maintain healthy relationships. The first competency, perceiving emotions, is an individual's ability to observe and interpret a person's verbal and non-verbal cues. This perception leads to the second branch/competency, generation of emotions. The generation of emotions competency includes the ability to sense the emotions of a group and generate personal feelings during a social situation. For example, a leader who is able to sense the sadness in the room and generate sympathy, would be expressing high competency in generating emotions. The third branch/competency, understanding emotions, requires an individual to be able to perceive and generate the emotions, and then understand how these emotions are impacting the group as a whole. Finally, the last branch, managing emotions, allows an individual to not only perceive, generate, and understand the emotions of self and others, but to use this knowledge in decision making. As an integrative model of EI, the 4-Branch Ability Model utilizes a developmental process with each competency or branch building on previous abilities.

A seminal mixed model approach to EI, was developed by Reuven Bar-On (2006) who expanded on past theories and created a comprehensive five competency model of EI development. The five social and emotional competencies included: interpersonal skills, intrapersonal skills, stress management, adaptability, and psychological well-being. Interpersonal skills consist of self-awareness and the ability to express emotions accurately. The intrapersonal competency is the ability to understand other's emotions and cooperate with a group. The third competency, stress management, allows an individual to be able to regard emotions objectively and decrease the influence of his/her emotions on decision making. A person with high adaptability, the fourth competency, is able to assess each social situation and make decisions based on group dynamics and desired outcomes. Finally, psychological well-being refers to a person's general mood including happiness, optimism, and motivation.

While integrative models focus on a specific developmental process, mixed models do not impose a developmental sequence. Rather an individual could develop strength in any competency at any time and in any order. Bar-On believed that higher levels in all competencies combine to create the most highly emotionally intelligent individuals (2006). None of these foundational models of EI are specifically focused on college students, presenting a gap in the research.

Higher Education and EI

The concept of Emotional Intelligence is relatively new to higher education. As higher education has begun to focus on holistic learning (Astin, 1993; Tinto & Goodsell-Love, 1993), it is important that institutions provide experiences that develop students both intellectually and emotionally (Love & Love, 2003). Higher education research has been mainly limited to intellectual and cognitive ability, therefore the research is lacking concerning student emotional development (Walsh-Portillo, 2011). The literature surrounding college students and EI is predominantly concerned with academic achievement (Bar-On, 2006; Feldmann, Aper, &

Meredith, 2011). Previous research has investigated the predictability of GPA based on EI scores. The current study focused on the developmental process of students EI as the main outcome.

Low, Lomax, Jackson, and Nelson (2004) developed a mixed model approach to EI specifically focused on college student development. The Emotional Skills Assessment Process (ESAP) is based on four competency areas comprising of 13 skills. The four competency areas and skills include interpersonal development (assertion), personal leadership (comfort, empathy, decision making, leadership), self-management skills (drive strength, time management, commitment ethic), and interpersonal skills (self-esteem, stress management). The model also defines three potential problem areas that may hinder a person's EI development which include aggression, deference, and change orientation. This model of EI is specifically designed for students and serves as the conceptual framework for this study.

Leadership and EI

Leadership and EI have been linked since Goleman's best-selling book, Emotional Intelligence (1995). Many researchers have focused on the correlation between EI and leadership. Goleman, Boyatzis, and McKee (2002) stated that "great leadership works through emotions" (p.1) and believed that effective leadership occurred through higher EI. This aligns with research that the ability to handle one's own emotions and encourage others' emotions, is important to effective leadership (George, 2000; Goleman, 1998; Hilliard, 2010).

Barling, Slater, and Kelloway (2000) conducted a study to investigate the association between EI and transformational leadership among 49 managers. Transformational leadership is focused on the motivation, influence, and consideration of self and others and is strongly aligned with views on EI. Participants were required to complete three instruments (Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire, Emotional Intelligence Inventory, and Seligman Attributional Style Questionnaire) and submit three subordinate reports. Three aspects of transformational leadership were positively correlated with EI including idealized influence, inspirational motivation, and individualized consideration.

Palmer, Walls, Burgess, and Stough (2001) conducted a study of 43 college students to determine the differences between transformational and transactional leadership in relation to participants' EI. The research found that leaders who considered themselves to be motivational and inspirational, reported the monitoring and management of their emotions and the emotions of their staff. The leadership trait "charisma" was significantly correlated with the ability to monitor the emotions of self and others. This is aligned with existing research concerning the positive correlation between EI and leadership, specifically transformational leadership.

With the importance employers are placing on soft skills or EI, it is imperative that colleges focus on EI development. Over the last twenty years colleges have invested in leadership development programs, seeing leadership as a desirable college outcome (Astin & Astin, 2000; Komives, Dugan, Owen, Slack, & Wagner, 2011). While leadership training programs now exist on many college campuses, research is still lacking regarding the EI developmental outcomes of such programs.

Methodology

This phenomenological study was an exploration into the topic of EI and leadership training of college students. The purpose of this qualitative research was to determine the leadership components that students feel contribute to their EI development. The problem of identifying the components of a leadership training program which develop a student's EI lends itself to a pragmatic approach. The pragmatic research paradigm does not commit to any one philosophy, but rather focuses on realistic solutions to problems (Creswell, 2009). The three research questions posed in this study were:

1. How do students rate their personal emotional intelligence skills?
2. What do students view as the impact of formal leadership training on their emotional intelligence development?
3. What components of formal leadership training do students feel contribute to their emotional intelligence development?

This research was conducted on a community college campus in a southern state. Each student participated in a semi-structured interview focused on a variety of EI skills and leadership training components. The questions were designed based upon the Emotional Skills Assessment Process (ESAP) model (Low et al., 2004). The interviews lasted between 16 and 24 minutes each and were tape recorded. The interviews were later transcribed and the tape recordings deleted.

The leadership training programs include three cohort-based options that students can apply for in the spring semester. All three cohort-based programs require a one year commitment from the students (fall and spring semester). As part of the leadership training programs all students are required to attend focus groups and one-on-one interviews every semester. For this study, the one-on-one interview data from the first three students interviewed during the spring semester of 2014 was utilized.

Program A is an on-campus employment opportunity that allows students to obtain jobs in the areas of student activities, new student orientation, tutoring, and advising. The student leaders of Program A are paid an hourly wage and can work up to 19.50 hours per week. In addition to the work requirement these students attend mandatory professional development sessions every month. These professional development sessions are used to enhance the student's leadership skills through discussion topics such as customer service, communication skills, group facilitation, diversity/inclusion, and wellness. Program A accepts 20 students per year.

Program B is a foundational leadership program directed at first and second year college students with little to no leadership experience. This program encourages students to get involved and engaged on campus through student clubs and organizations. Program B includes mandatory weekly workshops covering topics such as time management, event planning, leadership styles, creating a mission, and goal setting. Program B accepts 16 students per year.

The last cohort-based program, Program C, is a program for more advanced leadership students. The students in this program have at least one year of college experience and are preparing for a business-oriented career. This program focuses on corporate culture and the importance of business planning. The weekly workshops in this program focus on creating a great team, organizational goal setting, managing people, and interpersonal skills. In addition to attending mandatory weekly leadership workshops, these students are put into small groups and create business plans that are then shared with community members and campus administration. Program C accepts 15 students per year. Students can be enrolled in Programs A and B or Programs A and C at the same time. No student, however, can be in Programs B and C simultaneously.

In this study the researcher served as the primary data collection tool. Therefore, data integrity must be maintained through a discussion of bias. The researcher serves as the Coordinator for these leadership programs and as such, interacts with these students on a daily basis. There are strong beliefs and opinions regarding these students and their development. For this study, the personal perspectives of the researcher were not analyzed. The focus instead was on the collection of student voices and perspectives.

Data Analysis

The three students represented participation in all three leadership programs. Student 1 was a 34 year old Hispanic male who was enrolled in Programs A and C. Student 2 was a 20 year old white female who was enrolled in Program A. Finally, Student 3 was a 19 year old Hispanic female who was enrolled in Programs A and B.

Data analysis was conducted in three phases. First, structural coding was performed. Using the ESAP model as a starting point, all answers were coded for the 13 skills and 3 problem areas outlined in the model. After coding for the EI skills, an exploratory approach was taken to the data in terms of leadership training components. At first, the basic programs were identified and a summary list of components was created. The data was coded using this priori list of component codes. It became apparent after the second transcript that the priori codes were not exhaustive and more component codes were added. Finally, the codes were combined into themes to answer the research questions.

At the conclusion of coding, member checking was employed for data validity. After all transcripts had been coded, the participants were asked to review the transcript for errors and to see if they agreed with the codes and themes that had been discovered. Participants were given one week to evaluate and return the transcripts to the researcher. All three participants returned the transcripts with no edits or suggestions. Therefore, the data analysis was found to be valid and reliable.

Findings

The participants were each asked to rate themselves on specific EI skills and to justify the number given. The students were asked for a number between 1 and 10, with 10 being high ability. Table 1 below provides the ratings of the three students, along with an average score.

Table 1.

EI Skills Self-Report Rating

EI Skill	*Stu.1*	*Stu.2*	*Stu.3*
Empathy	10	7	9
Assertion	9	8	7
Time Mgmt.	7	8	5
Stress Mgmt.	10	6	8
Commitment Ethic	7	10	7
Self-Esteem	9	7	8
Average	**9**	**8**	**7**

This table demonstrates that these students all rate themselves relatively high in all EI skills. The older student rated himself higher on average than the two younger students. As data was collected in the spring, it can be suggested that these ratings are higher than they would have been in August or at the start of the program.

Several interview questions focused on how students felt that their EI development was impacted by their leadership training. Time Management was referenced in all three interviews and discussed at length. For example, Student 2 discussed the importance of balance, stating that "[through leadership training] I have learned how to balance…working on campus and school". She expressed that her time management abilities had improved greatly over the course of the year.

Student 3 felt that her time management ability had increased, while her implementation had decreased. Her first year of school, with no job or campus involvement, she focused more on studying and felt more in control of her time. She did explain that while she had not managed her time as well this year, "[leadership training] made me realize that I am doing too much and sometimes…I forget to breathe and just relax". This demonstrated an increase in self-awareness, which is another EI skill. These statements describe a few of the ways in which the students felt that leadership training impacted their EI skills in time management.

The second EI skill that was most impacted by leadership training was stress management. Student 2 spoke of her work in Program A as giving her a chance to observe how other professionals manage stress. While still struggling at stress management in her personal life she stated, "…in my work setting that is typically when I handle stress the best and maintain a professional attitude". Student 1 described the correlation between time management and stress management. "[Through leadership training] I have learned that if I can manage the stress level, I can manage the time as well. Time management is the key component and [in] direct correlation…with stress." This ability to connect two EI skills is another demonstration of increased EI. These statements underline the importance of stress management on students and the impact that leadership training had made on the students ability to manage stress.

Finally, leadership training was found to impact students' self-esteem. All three students spoke at length regarding their increased self-esteem throughout the last year. Student 1 stated that his “self-esteem builds as I am recognized”, which is a large part of the leadership training programs. Students are recognized on campus through apparel, posters, pictures, and on campus events. These recognition opportunities along with leadership awards and letters of recommendation may increase a student’s self-esteem. Student 2 described the leadership training program as “…helped me become much more confident in a more professional setting.” She went on to describe her ability to communicate effectively and have confidence in front of large groups as being areas where she had developed in the last year.

Finally, Student 3 discussed how at home her family focuses on the negative aspects or areas for improvement. She enjoyed the leadership training programs as her classmates, “see my talent. They…praise me.” She went on to describe how she now has more confidence in class, speaks louder, and asks more questions. These statements described the ways in which students felt that their self-esteem was impacted by leadership training.

The information obtained during the interviews demonstrated the leadership training impact on three EI skills. While these three areas were the most frequently mentioned other areas were discussed such as self-awareness, empathy, and commitment ethic. It can be hypothesized that all EI skills are impacted through leadership training.

The final research question regarding leadership components that impact EI development was not clear-cut. Each student commented on many different leadership components. Two components were mentioned multiple times by the students: lectures and social support. Both Student 1 and Student 3 commented on the development of EI skills through weekly leadership lectures. While these lectures cover a variety of topics, time management was specifically mentioned in these interviews by Students 1 and 3. The professional development workshop concerning diversity was mentioned by Student 2.

Another component that emerged from the data as important was the social support network that developed from the cohort-based leadership training programs. This support network was mentioned by Student 1 and Student 3 as being a component with major impact. Student 3 said, “The reassurance that I get from my peers. This is what helps me…My family focuses on the negatives…so to come to school and focus on the positives, this is real refreshing”. This statement highlights the impact that this support network had on this student. This student goes on to say,” What I like is going into all of our [weekly] meetings and just being with all the other members. I know that my team is always there for me and we hang out.”

Student 2 discussed the on-the-job training as being the most impactful leadership training component. She discussed the learning of professional skills and customer service through observing her professional colleagues and supervisor. These findings suggest that certain leadership components may be more impactful than others on students EI development.

Conclusions

The results of this study demonstrated the impact that leadership training can have on EI skill development. The students felt that leadership training impacted EI skill development. Time management, stress management and self-esteem were identified as the most discussed EI skills by all participants. The research also suggested that students felt that lectures, social support, and on-the-job training were impactful components of leadership training. Finally, the students ranked themselves with at least mid-level ability in all of the EI skills that were discussed.

The results of this study are aligned with previous research regarding the positive correlation between leadership training and EI skill development (Barling et al., 2000; George, 2000). The student voice gives a unique perspective that has not been captured through previous research. As this was an exploratory study, the data cannot be generalized to other populations. This research serves as a platform for others to continue to investigate the student perspective on EI development and leadership training programs. There are 13 skill areas and 3 problem areas in the ESAP model, however, this study only focused on a handful. Future research is needed to determine which other EI skills are impacted by leadership training.

This research used self-reported scores to rate students on their EI skill ability. This self-reporting technique is common in the field of EI research (Bar-On, 2006; Mayer, Salovey, Caruso, & Sitarenios, 2001; Schutte, Malouff, & Bhullar, 2009). Many studies have found the data to be valid and sufficient when self-reported. The use of objective measurements is difficult in the realm of EI. The use of supervisor reports and faculty comments would assist with triangulation of the self-reported measures, making them more reliable and valid.

There is very little research regarding different leadership training components; and even less regarding which components directly impact student development. With many higher education institutions focusing resources on leadership training programs it is imperative that research is conducted to determine the best practices regarding leadership training pedagogy. These students felt that the camaraderie and group-focus of the leadership training programs provided the greatest impact. This supports previous research concerning best practices such as learning communities and cohort-based learning (Goldman, 2012; Kellogg, 1999). Future research into the use of different modalities such as online learning, conferences, group activities, and self-reflection could enhance training components.

The students who participated in this study were in their spring semester and therefore, no baseline for their growth was investigated. Further research should be conducted to determine a baseline for EI skills and track growth throughout the college experience. Longitudinal, mixed methods studies would allow for a deeper understanding of leadership training impact and EI skill development in undergraduate students.

This research is limited by the qualitative methodology and limited number of participants. Future research utilizing larger samples and a variety of research methodologies will assist in the understanding of this complex topic. This study serves as the first step into exploring this phenomenon and provides data to influence future research endeavors. Overall the importance of EI skill development and leadership training cannot be dismissed. Research is needed to discover the best practices for developing EI skills in student leaders. It is an economic imperative that higher education institutions use EI skill development to properly prepare students to become successful in adulthood.

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Strategies for Effective Leadership Education in Africa and the Role of Transformational Leadership Theory

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Abstract

More than one billion people call the African continent home and many of them face a myriad of problems. Africans turn to their leaders for answers yet many of their problems are linked to the weaknesses of the leaders themselves, underscoring the need for best strategies in leadership development. This paper reflects on past leadership development approaches while focusing on incorporating transformational leadership theory into future leadership education.

Introduction

More than one billion people call the African continent home (Graphic Maps, n.d.), and many of them face a myriad of social, economic and health problems. Like others in the world, Africans turn to their leaders to find answers to pressing problems. Instead of answers, however, Africans have discovered that many of their problems are linked to the weaknesses of the leaders themselves (Kuada, 2010). As Puplampu (2010) stated, "Africa's perennial inability to build strong institutions, eradicate poverty, banish war and disease is, perhaps, related to a lack of leaders who see such institution building as key" (p. 628). This lack of leadership indicates that effective leadership development practices may be missing throughout much of the continent. To practitioners, understanding how to effectively develop leaders is critical for sustained social change. For academics, this topic represents opportunities for ground-breaking research as the current literature provides only limited insights into African leadership and even less into the specific topic of African leadership education and development strategies.

The purpose of this paper is to synthesize the literature on African leadership education and provide a theoretical foundation on which future education programs can be built. This paper addresses the question of what are the best strategies for developing leadership in Africa. It demonstrates that leadership development strategies for Africans should focus on encouraging characteristics consistent with what is known as transformational leadership. This paper first examines two leadership theories, explores empirical studies on leadership in the African context, and then reviews five models illustrating current methods of African leadership development and education. It closes with practical implications, limitations, and suggestions for future research.

Implicit vs. Transformational Leadership

Implicit leadership theory and transformational leadership theory are two important frameworks to understanding research on African leadership and leader development. Some African leadership research has focused on African views of effective leadership ("The X factor of business leadership," 2013). This approach is based on implicit leadership theory, according to which the essence of effective leadership is being seen as a leader by others (McKie, 2011). The more that leaders match their followers' perceptions of what a leader should be and do, the more the leader is considered to be effective (Hartog, House, Hanges, & Ruiz-Quintanilla, 1999). This approach of defining effective leadership based on perceptions, however, has a number of flaws.

Perception is not always reality plus perceptions change based on cultural influences (Hartog et al., 1999). African culture varies greatly, even within a country. Tanzania, for example, has 128 tribes with distinct languages, customs and differing views on leadership (Banfill, 2013; Oberlander & Elverdan, 2000). Therefore to answer the question of what is effective African leadership the implicit leadership theory is not sufficient. A better alternative is examining empirical studies which measure such things as leadership in relationship to organizational effectiveness. These studies are few but the ones that have been produced typically discuss the role of transformational leadership.

Transformational leaders seek to bring out the best in others and move everyone toward the realization of a shared vision (Bass & Bass, 2008; Nichols, 2008; Yukl, 2010). The transformational leader raises the awareness of followers to organizational or societal issues and then mobilizes them to provide the energy and resources needed for reform (Yukl, 2010). Transformational leaders set challenging expectations for their followers and push them toward higher levels of achievement as they move beyond self-interests for the betterment of the organization (Bass & Bass, 2008; Yukl, 2010). These leaders are optimistic, motivated, adventurous and highly relational (Bass & Bass, 2008). Transformational leaders "transform others and organizations through a powerful, positive vision; an intellectually stimulating idea; attention to uplifting the needs of followers individually; and having a clear sense of purpose" (Walumbwa, Avolio, Gardner, Wernsing, & Peterson, 2007, p. 104).

There are four constructs to transformational leadership: idealized influence (also referred to as attributed charisma), inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration (Bass & Bass, 2008; Walumbwa et al., 2007; Yukl, 2010). Idealized influence involves personal identification with followers, the commitment to shared principles and values with those followers, and the communication of vision (Walumbwa et al., 2007; Yukl, 2010). Intellectual stimulation occurs when leaders guide their followers to think through problems (Bass & Bass, 2008). It is when "leaders stimulate their subordinates' efforts to be innovative and creative by questioning assumptions, reframing problems, and approaching old situations in new ways" (Koech & Namusonge, 2012, pp. 5-6). Inspirational motivation is emotional influence by the leader that causes people to want to be and do more (Popper, 2004). It occurs when leaders provide meaning and challenge to their followers' work (Koech & Namusonge, 2012). Individualized consideration occurs when leaders are attuned to followers' individual needs for growth and success (Walumbwa et al., 2007). It is expressed when leaders "adopt coaching or mentoring strategies in their relationships with subordinates" (Kuada, 2010, p. 12).

There are several attributes and abilities that tie into these constructs. Self-awareness, for example, is important to the leader's ability to work effectively with others (Devitt & Borodzicz, 2008; James, Oladipo, Isoob, Mboizi, &Kusiima, 2005; Mutwiri, 2005; Muyah, 2001; Yukl, 2010). Problem solving is another aspect and it is tied closely to the construct of intellectual stimulation (Avolio & Bass, 2004; Bass & Avolio, 2011; Bass & Bass, 2008; Koech & Namusonge, 2012; Preece, 2003). The same can be said for critical thinking (Mutwiri, 2005; Walumbwa et al., 2007). Good interpersonal communication is a key element of transformational leadership and vital to both constructs of inspirational motivation and individualized consideration (Bass & Bass, 2008; Brown, 2012; Draper, Lund, & Flisher, 2011; Walumbwa et al., 2007; Yukl, 2010). A solid understanding of transformational leadership theory is important to understanding the ramifications of empirical studies conducted on African leadership.

Empirical Studies

As previously mentioned, there are few empirical studies on African leadership but what is available does cover a cross-section of the African continent. Recent studies have been conducted in Kenya, Cameroon, Nigeria, Ethiopia, South Africa, Ghana and Zambia. These are particularly insightful in understanding the importance of transformational leadership in the development of African leaders.

Kenya

Walumbwa, Orwa, Wang and Lawler (2005) conducted a parallel study of bank employees in Kenya and the United States to assess if leader actions impacted employee job satisfaction or organizational commitment levels. Walumbwa et al. (2005) surveyed tellers and clerks, asking them to rate their bank managers' behavior as well as their own job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Respondents included 158 employees from seven Kenyan banks and 189 employees from five American banks with both groups having similar education levels (80% college degree) and service years with their current organization. Walumbwa et al. (2005) found that transformational leadership was positively related to follower's job satisfaction and organizational commitment in both countries. They summarized the significance of their findings this way:

> Clearly, the results that transformational leadership has positive significant relationships with organizational commitment and two facets of job satisfaction in both countries are undoubtedly important for an organization, especially in Africa….As Africans seek ways to improve their productivity and competitiveness in the global arena, it is critical that they consider approaches and theories that have been successful in the developed world. Transformational leadership is one such leadership theory that has shown significant potential…. (Walumbwa et al., 2005, p. 249).

As Walumbwa et al. (2005) pointed out, this study is significant in two ways. First it demonstrated within the African context specific ways that leaders positively impacted their organizations. Second, in demonstrated the relevance of a Western-originated leadership theory to African leadership development.

Cameroon

Several studies examined transformational leadership theory from a societal perspective. Forka (2012), for example, studied 32 participants representing the 10 regions of Cameroon to assess the four transformational leadership constructs. Participants ranged in age from 18 to 50 years old and were all high school or university graduates recruited through Cameroon media announcements (Forka, 2012). Using semi-structured interviews, Forka (2012) found that 95% of participants indicated that there was an absence of transformational leadership in Cameroon, which he connected with the nation's various problems. The study also demonstrated that transformational leadership "could improve the current state of leadership in Cameroon" (Forka, 2012, p. 161). This Cameroon study showed that the absence of transformational leadership negatively impacted a society while the previously noted Kenyan study showed that the presence of transformational leadership positively impacted organizations.

Nigeria

While the Cameroon study looked specifically for transformational leadership constructs, Madueke (2008) took a broader approach when he examined the connection between leadership and governance in Nigeria. He utilized case-study methodology that analyzed secondary data from 1960–2007. Madueka (2008) found that "transformational leadership is regarded as new criteria for full range leadership that can be achieved through training, education, and professional development in key leadership competencies. Nigeria will significantly benefit in adopting this model of leadership" (p. 148). Although transformational leadership may be a new criteria for Nigeria, Madueka's (2008) study of data from across 47 years demonstrates the theory's relevance over time as well as its significance to this point in Nigeria's history.

Ethiopia

Another societal study took place in Ethiopia, which was the focus of Yemer's (2009) research on the applicability of transformational leadership models. He conducted semi-structured interviews with 56 Ethiopians, mostly business owners, corporate executives and managers, government and academic administrators, and nonprofit leaders. Yemer's (2009) respondents favored the constructs of transformational leadership, with the exception of the charismatic or visionary aspects, which they feared would be used to encourage authoritarian behavior. The consensus among Yemer's (2009) informants was that any Western leadership theory, including transformational leadership, would have to be substantially modified to gain acceptance in the Ethiopian culture. The real barrier to their adopting Western models, however, was political not cultural. Yemer (2009) noted that

> many participants…cited much stronger obstacles to the improvement of Ethiopian organizational leadership through the adoption of transformational leadership values and practices; in a word, dictatorship. Not only are the interests of the incumbent political regime arrayed against a transition to transformational leadership (or any paradigm shift for that matter) in public sector bodies, the government's control reaches into private corporations and non-governmental institutions as well. (p. 229).

Yemer's (2009) summation was that as good as some form of transformational leadership might be for Ethiopia, he did not believe that the country's current political leadership would ever transition to it. In Yemer's (2009) view, Ethiopia's leadership was the antithesis of transformational leadership. His study highlighted the current situation for much of Africa: People desire transformational leadership qualities in their leaders but leaders are devoid of these qualities either because they have not been taught them or because they reject them to further their own power. This is an important fact for leadership development practitioners and researches to address as they move forward with their work.

South Africa

Another important vantage point on African leadership is the economic perspective. The relationship between transformational leadership and entrepreneurship among small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) in South Africa was examined by Visser, de Coning, and Smit (2005). Six industry sectors were represented in the 668 respondents to their nationwide survey. The study showed that entrepreneurs with high scores on entrepreneurship also had high scores on transformational leadership. They found that the process used by successful entrepreneurs “implies the implementation of the concept of transformational leadership by the entrepreneur” (Visser et al., 2005, p. 60). This study has significant ramifications for the rest of Africa. The implication is that if transformational leadership is developed in potential entrepreneurs then the likelihood of their success increases, which improves the continent’s economic condition.

Ineffective Leadership

In addition to these studies focused on effective transformational leadership there are also studies that show ineffective African leadership as the antithesis of transformational leadership. An analysis of the practices of company executives in southern African countries, for example, showed that “African leaders fail to treat organizational goals with the importance that these goals deserve and are frequently engaged in the search for personal power and privileges—typically seeing their positions in their organizations as personal fiefdoms” (Kuada, 2010, p. 15). Citing a University of Pretoria study of leadership behavior in South Africa, Kenya, Ghana and Zambia, *African Business* noted that leaders were “expected to behave in a paternalistic fashion and that they ran their organizations with a culture of inertia—a decided reluctance to change their ways” that hindered organizational advancement ("The X factor of business leadership," 2013, p. 20). These leadership approaches are contrary to transformational leadership which seeks to better the organization while also bringing out the best in others (Bass & Bass, 2008).

Empirical Studies Summary

Although not exhaustive, these studies from seven African nations represent a cross-section of sub-Sahara African countries (western, eastern, and southern). We see from them that Africans respond favorably to leadership that exhibits behavior consistent with transformational leadership constructs. We also see that organizations benefit from having transformational leaders (Visser et al., 2005; Walumbwa et al., 2005). While transformational leadership theory needs to be culturally adapted, as illustrated by Yemer (2009), the theory does provide a proven framework for leadership development across Africa. These studies demonstrate to both practitioners and academics the need to focus efforts on activities that will produce transformational leaders.

Leadership Development Models

Building upon these empirical studies, African leadership educators should address the question of how best to deliver training and programming that will result in leaders who exhibit transformational behaviors. While there are many possible delivery methods, five models have emerged as illustrative of possible approaches to African leadership development.

Classroom

The first model is the traditional brick and mortar classroom approach. Students leave their home communities to attend training at a university, academy or vocational school. While the setting may be traditional, the programming does not need to be. For example, The African Leadership Academy, founded in South Africa in 2004, could be viewed as a traditional school approach to leadership development, except that their programs are anything but traditional ("The X factor of business leadership," 2013; African Leadership Network, 2012). The organization offers a two-year, pre-university program for 15-19 year olds, a one-year program for those who have finished high school but not started college, and a summer program that is open to secondary students from around the world (African Leadership Academy, n.d.). The curriculum is African focused, using African literature, case studies, and so forth, rather than the Western literature that is typically used in African classrooms (African Leadership Network, 2012). Classrooms are student rather than teacher focused, in that learning by questioning and problem solving is emphasized over lectures and rote memorization (African Leadership Network, 2012). African Leadership Academy (n.d.) describes itself this way: “Our leadership development formula is relatively simple: we believe that by identifying young leaders with immense potential, enabling them to practice leadership, and connecting them with transformative opportunities, we can develop and empower the next Nelson Mandela, the next Wangari Maathai, and Africa’s Jonas Salk and Steve Jobs” (n.p.). The African Leadership Academy demonstrates innovation in leader education by taking something traditional (the classroom) and changing it to better address modern leadership needs.

Cohorts and Coaching

A second model of African leadership development is a cohort approach that groups mid-career leaders together and then utilizes leadership coaches to facilitate development activities over an extended period of time. One example of this was a program conducted in South Africa by former U.S. Ambassador to South Africa James Joseph in cooperation with U.S. and South African higher learning institutions (Joseph, 2012). The three-year program featured occasional three to six day retreats and group service projects which were supplemented with individual coaching (Buhl, McCline, & Williams, 2012). Leader development focused on “context and culture as historic legacies and evolving realities, ethics and accountability, personal renewal, effective and ethical communications, and building supportive networks” (Buhl et al., 2012, n.p.). This approach was highly practical in that it not only had participants seeking to solve real-world problems, but they each had to assume a leadership role in an actual community improvement project (Buhl et al., 2012, n.p.). This model allowed its participants to develop transformational skills over a period of time.

Study Abroad

A third but more limited leadership development model is the practice of sending Africans to study leadership abroad in the West. The idea is that these men and women would then return to Africa and become leaders of leaders. An example of this is the Hubert H. Humphrey Fellowship Program started in 1978 by the United States Department of State which has trained more than 4,000 experienced professionals from around the world (U.S. Department of State, n.d.). It is a 10 month non-degree program hosted in cooperation with 18 major U.S. universities in which fellows are “introduced to the skills and perspectives they will need as global leaders, share approaches to common issues and problems in their regions, and learn about many aspects of U.S. culture and society” (U.S. Department of State, n.d., n.p.). Dant (2010), who spent 10 years leading the program, studied Humphrey fellows from Ethiopia, Ghana, and Madagascar to determine how they incorporated their U.S. training into their leadership practices. He found that U.S. trained Africans “a) saw great potential for the relevance of their U.S. leadership training in their home-country settings, and b) generally sought to apply it to their leadership practice” (Dant, 2010, p. 184). This model seeks individuals who have already distinguished themselves as leaders in order to equip them to expand the leadership capacities of those in their home nations.

Adventure/Outdoors

Another leadership development model is one where potential leaders are placed in a challenging environment in an effort to help them learn more about themselves and how to relate to those around them. One such program is the Leadership Project in Cape Town, South Africa offered by the non-profit organization Educo Africa (Draper et al., 2011). This program places young people in a wilderness setting as an experiential leadership development process (Draper et al., 2011). A core element of Leadership Project "is the notion of 'self' (individual identity and personal awareness) and 'others' interacting with each other and with the 'environment'. The programme activities aim to use interpersonal interaction within the physical and geographical environment to develop intra and inter-personal skills that contribute to leadership development" (Draper et al., 2011, p. 455). Outcomes of the program included increased self-awareness, changed perspectives, changes in priorities, goal setting, increased self-confidence, empowerment, and development of various interpersonal skills (Draper et al., 2011). These outcomes have been empirically demonstrated as effective leadership skills that should be considered important to any leadership development program (Bass & Bass, 2008; Yukle, Gordon & Taber, 2002).

Seminars

While not every potential leader can spend two months in the wilderness, fly to another country to study, move away to attend school, or have access to a leadership coach over an extended period of time, many are able to attend one to five day training seminars conducted in or near their home communities. This fifth model of African leadership delivery is one of the most commonly used today, especially among non-governmental and faith-based organizations (Downey, 1985; James et al., 2005;). This has been shown empirically to be effective when carefully designed and delivered in engaging manners (Davis, 1998; James et al., 2005; Kirsch, 2004). Of all five models, this model represents the best way to help develop the most number of leaders but the actual leadership outcomes may be shallow if this model is not properly designed and delivered (James, 2010). Nevertheless, it offers great potential in addressing Africa's wide-scale leadership development needs.

Emerging Themes

These five sample models all have strengths and weaknesses but have been proven effective in their own ways. The literature demonstrates that a variety of models and methods are needed for effective leadership development across Africa (James, 2010; James et al., 2005). While the method of leadership education is different with each of these models, their content had similar themes. These included self-awareness through introspection, problem solving skills, critical thinking, interpersonal communication, and experiential learning. Another consistent factor of all five models was intentionality. Each model (including effective training seminars) demonstrated that its organizers had very clear objectives in what they were seeking to accomplish through the program and that they had a thorough and deliberate process of delivering their training. The content themes of self-awareness, problem solving, critical thinking and interpersonal communication represent important aspects of the development of transformational leaders. Regardless of the delivery method, these themes should be incorporated into the content of any African leadership education program.

Conclusion

The literature demonstrates that leadership development strategies for Africans should focus on encouraging characteristics consistent with transformational leadership theory. While empirical evidence of effective leadership in Africa is sparse, the evidence that exists demonstrates the relevance of transformational leadership to improving organizations and societies. Various models of leadership education have been used across Africa and those showing the most promise for addressing Africa's needs had themes consistent with this theory.

This paper provides direction to educators and others tasked with creating African leadership development programs. It adds to the information available on transformational leadership theory and African leadership. This paper, however, is limited in scope to addressing only the development of current leaders. It does not address leadership selection processes, nor does it address African-originated theories of leadership which lack empirical studies.

Future studies are needed to address the lack of empirically-driven leadership development strategies (Forka, 2012; Puplampu, 2010). Longitudinal studies are particularly needed to evaluate the long-term effectiveness of various leadership development programs. For example, the Leadership Project study in South Africa produced in its participants characteristics important to effective leadership, but it did not address whether or not its participants actually became better leaders. Another large knowledge gap relates to leadership by and among those who have little formal education. The empirical studies noted in this paper were conducted mostly with college or high school educated individuals. Yet in places like Tanzania, for example, 44% of leaders in one study had a seventh grade education or less (Banfill, 2013). Addressing how education levels impact both leadership and followership is important to gaining a full understanding of leadership and leadership development in the African context.

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An Examination of Mentoring Relationships and Leadership Capacity in Resident Assistants

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Abstract

I examined mentoring relationships and resident assistants' (RA) leadership capacities. The type of mentor and the gender match and race match of the mentor-protégé pairs were also investigated. These findings fill gaps between research and practice and provide incentives for stakeholders of collegiate environments to mentor resident assistants.

Introduction

The researcher utilized Dr. John Dugan's Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership (MSL) 2009 data for this research. The MSL is the result of Dr. Dugan's dissertation research in 2006. The Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership is an international research database that contains national information on the role of higher education in developing leadership capacities focusing on environmental conditions that foster leadership development (J. Dugan, personal communication, October 21, 2010). Mentoring outcomes became an area researchers could study in the 2009 data. There are two mentoring outcomes measured by their respective scales; mentoring for personal development and mentoring for leadership empowerment. Mentoring for personal development includes providing psychosocial support and mentoring for leadership empowerment promotes leadership behaviors. I examined both mentoring outcomes on the type of mentor (faculty, student affairs, employer, peer) and leadership capacity. Leadership capacity is defined as leadership behaviors and the leaders' efficacy to enact those behaviors and are operationalized in the study through the Socially Responsible Leadership Scale and the Leadership Efficacy Scale. The study provides a platform for participating institutions to provide both evidence-based practice and contribute to the understanding of college student leadership development. More than 250 institutions and over 300,000 college students have participated in this study. This study is unique for a few reasons I would like to share.

To date, no other researcher has studied resident assistants (RAs) as a sub-sample of the MSL. RAs tend to have relatively similar roles or job functions regardless of institutional type or size (Upcraft and Pilato, 1982). In addition, the time and efforts their supervisors and other student affairs professionals devote to their leadership development, interpersonal growth, and job-related competencies provide justification why they are a sub-group worthy of study. This was also a highly engaged and visible group of student leaders who may have sought mentorship from a variety of institutional stakeholders (e.g., faculty, student affairs, employers, other students) and those relationships warranted further exploration as they related to RAs' leadership capacities. They are one of the most influential groups of student leaders on most college campuses because they live with, support, and retain students through meaningful interactions on a daily basis (Winston & Fitch, 1993).

Studies have been conducted on mentoring relationships, but none have included demographics of the mentor-protégé pairings as they relate to mentoring outcomes including the type of mentor and race and gender match as they relate to leadership capacity. The purpose of this study was to examine how resident assistants' leadership capacities (socially responsible leadership and leadership efficacy) were influenced by being involved in mentoring relationships (e.g., mentoring for personal development and/or mentoring for leadership empowerment). Leadership efficacy has been included in addition to socially responsible leadership for a more holistic view of leadership capacity including the resident assistants' confidence in their leadership abilities. Research on leadership capacity is centered on examining "students' enacted leadership belief, style, and approach" (Dugan, 2011, p. 61) as opposed to their beliefs in their leader or leadership capabilities. "Efficacy is a primary predictor of capacity and moderates whether or not an individual enacts leadership behaviors" (Dugan, et al., 2012, p. 175). As mentioned earlier, I examined if there was a link between the mentoring relationship and most significant type of mentor and the resident assistants' leadership capacity. I also investigated whether the race and/or gender of the mentor-protégé match was significant.

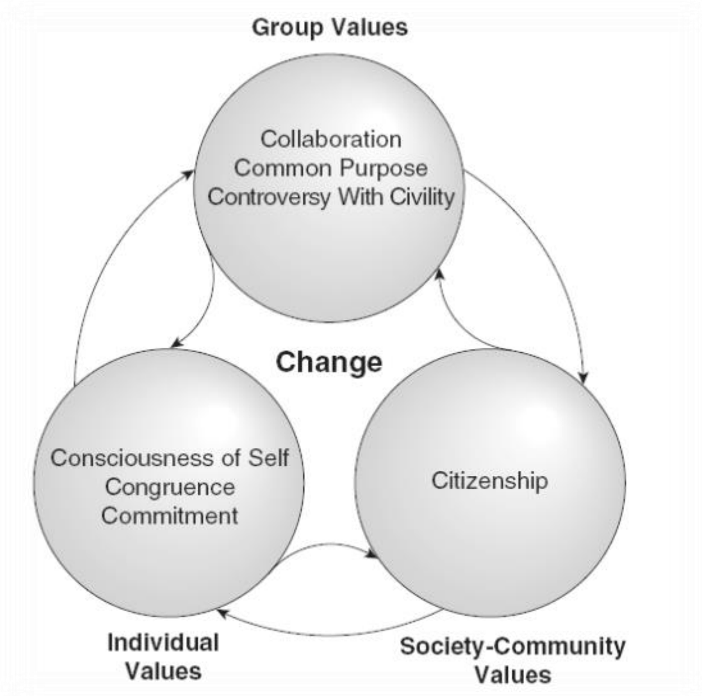
The Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership's theoretical framework is the Social Change Model of Leadership (SCM). The SCM is a representation of leadership as a process as opposed to a position; it promotes values of "equity, social justice, self-knowledge, personal empowerment, collaboration, citizenship, and service" (HERI, 1996, p. 18). The SCM has two core principles and underscores personal and interpersonal dimensions of leadership (HERI, 1996; Tyree, 1998). First, it is predicated on increasing students' levels of self-knowledge and capacity to collaborate with others. Second, leadership is tied to societal responsibility and demonstrated by creating positive change for the common good (Dugan & Komives, 2011a; HERI, 1996). The SCM has six assumptions:

1. Leadership is socially responsible and impacts change on behalf of others.
2. Leadership is collaborative.
3. Leadership is a process, not a position.
4. Leadership is inclusive and accessible to all people.
5. Leadership is values-based.
6. Community involvement/service is a powerful vehicle for leadership.

(Cilente, 2009; HERI, 1996; Skendall, 2012; Tyree, 1998).

The Social Change Model has three interrelated perspectives—the individual, the group, and society/community; see below for a schematic illustration.

The Social Change Model of Leadership Development



Source: Komives, S. R., & Dugan, J. P. (2011a). Contemporary leadership theories. In S. R. Komives, J. P. Dugan, J. E. Owen, C. Slack, W. Wagner, & Associates (Eds.), *The handbook for student leadership development (2nd ed.).* San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

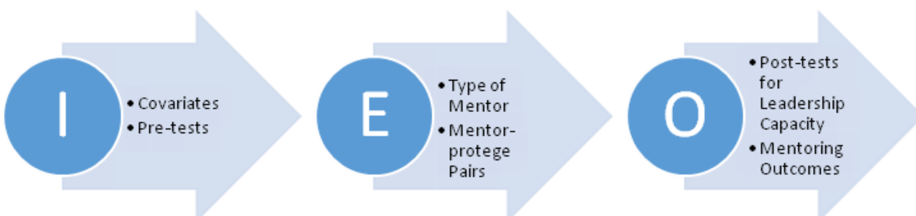
These SCM values interact dynamically across the three domains. "Use of the Model will cause people to evaluate their individual values as well as incorporate related group values in their interaction with others (Tyree, 1998, pp. 19-20). There are seven critical values each beginning with the letter "C" (i.e., consciousness of self, congruence, commitment, collaboration, common purpose, controversy with civility, and citizenship) which contribute to an eighth value, change. These values are sometimes called the "Seven C's" or the "Seven C's for Change" and can be found in Table 2 (Cilente, 2009; HERI, 1996; Wagner, 2007).

The values are not prescriptive in nature and there is no designated starting or ending point because development is ongoing; growth in one value increases the capacity for growth in other values (Cilente, 2009). The values incorporated in the SCM do not exist independently (Tyree, 1998). The values and definitions in the SCM measure educational outcomes in college students by focusing on group values and interdependent relationships while remaining process-oriented (Dugan, 2006b).

Methods

The methodology is directly connected to the conceptual framework; the design of the study is based on Astin's Input-Environment-Outcome (I-E-O) model. The Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership features a cross-sectional design requiring student participants to reflect on pre-college or high school experiences and respond to a set of questions to capture input data. The cross-sectional design also requires students to answer questions about their during-college experiences and respond to another set of questions to capture environmental data. The within-college effects and conditional analyses of resident assistants are key in this study. The conceptual framework allows researchers to control for pre-college characteristics and experiences or input data (I) when examining the collegiate environment's (E) impact on educational outcomes (O). This study is significant because it offers unique contributions to leadership scholarship through examining mentoring outcomes and demographics of mentor-protégé pairings on resident assistants' leadership capacities.

Researchers may use covariates to control for pre-college characteristics and other confounding factors to accurately assess the role the college environment has on educational outcomes (e.g., leadership capacity, leadership efficacy, mentoring outcomes). In the MSL, *inputs* are defined as students' pre-college characteristics (e.g., pre-college activities, pre-test for socially responsible leadership, pre-test for leadership efficacy); *environments* are defined as factors in the collegiate environment (e.g., type of mentor, gender or race match of the mentor-protégé pairings); and *outcomes* are defined as students' characteristics across the SCM theoretical measures (constructs) after being exposed to the college environment (e.g., socially responsible leadership, leadership efficacy, post-tests) ("Brief Overview of Scales in the 2009 Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership," personal communication, J. Dugan, October 21, 2010).



There were three research questions associated with the study:

1. Do resident assistants who participate in mentoring relationships exhibit significantly higher leadership capacities than resident assistants who do not, after accounting for control measures such as pre-college activities, race, gender, sexual orientation, and grade point average?
2. Is there a significant relationship between type of mentor and resident assistant leadership capacity, after accounting for the aforementioned control measures?
3. Does the relationship between mentoring relationships and leadership capacity differ based on the race and gender match of the mentor-protégé pairing, after accounting for the aforementioned control measures?

The Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership's overall 2009 sample consists of 34% (n = 118,733) of the 337,482 students invited to participate from January to April of 2009. The resident assistant sub-sample size is 6,006. The sub-sample includes the total number of respondents who indicated they were resident assistants (n = 6,455) and who completed 90% of the survey. When the 90% threshold was met, the variable sample size was reduced to 6,006. Resident assistants were asked if they have ever been mentored and 95.6% indicated they had been mentored at least once (n = 5,741) while 4.4% indicated they had never been mentored (n = 265).

Results

The overarching goal of the study was to explore resident assistants' leadership capacities; these influential students have the potential to serve as transformational change agents. Transformational change agents leave a lasting impact long after they have graduated. These former students have the potential to transform their communities and society by strategically creating positive, purposeful, and sustainable change, the outcome of the Social Change Model. Bainton (2006) shared a useful analogy on transformational leadership by discussing the impact of boiling water on a carrot, an egg, and a coffee bean. When a carrot is boiled, it becomes soft. When an egg is boiled, the shell becomes hard. However, when a coffee bean is boiled, the bean transforms the water. When an RA engages in a mentoring relationship, he or she has an increased aptitude to serve as a change agent and transform their environments and communities for the better.

Through independent sample *t*-tests and regression I compared group mean scores of mentored and non-mentored resident assistants on Social Change Model constructs to better understand socially responsible leadership. A better understanding of socially responsible leadership and leadership efficacy provides a more thorough understanding of the study's dependent variable, leadership capacity. Each research question had one model including covariates (pre-college activities, major, gender, sexual orientation, citizenship/generational status, race, parents' education level, parents' income, grade point average) and the socially responsible leadership and leadership efficacy pre-tests along with a research-question specific key predictor. The key predictor for research question one was the mentoring variable. Mentoring emerged as a strong positive predictor for all constructs of the Social Change Model (SCM) and leadership capacity. Independent samples *t*-tests revealed mentored resident assistants (RAs) reported higher leadership capacity scores than non-mentored resident assistants. Regression analysis results determined mentoring significantly predicted all SCM constructs and socially responsible leadership. The significant finding for socially responsible leadership (SRL) and leadership efficacy suggests a mentored resident assistant is predicted to demonstrate significantly higher leadership capacity than a non-mentored resident assistant.

Research question two examined mentoring outcomes as an environmental predictor of leadership capacity (socially responsible leadership and leadership capacity) through an ANOVA and regression analyses. The most significant types of mentor included: faculty, student affairs, employer, and other student. It was hypothesized student affairs professionals would serve as positive predictors of RAs' mentoring outcomes and leadership capacity scores. Resident assistants with student affairs mentors reported higher group mean scores on both mentoring outcomes than any other type of most significant mentor. ANOVA findings revealed a main effect of most significant type of mentor and mentoring for personal development and mentoring for leadership empowerment. Regression analyses included student affairs mentors significantly predicted mentoring for personal development and mentoring for leadership empowerment. Post-hoc analyses on mentoring outcomes revealed RAs with student affairs mentors reported significantly higher scores on both mentoring outcomes than RAs who identified faculty, employer, or other student. Therefore, student affairs mentors significantly differed from faculty, employers, and other students on both mentoring outcomes.

With respect to leadership capacity (socially responsible leadership and leadership efficacy), the type of mentor is not a predictor of socially responsible leadership. Therefore, having a faculty member, an employer, or another student does not differ from having a student affairs mentor on socially responsible leadership competencies. With regard to leadership efficacy, significant findings suggest other students emerged as negative predictors of leadership efficacy in comparison to student affairs mentors. Therefore, RAs with student affairs mentors are predicted to exhibit higher leadership efficacy capacities. These results suggest student affairs administrators have the potential to impact protégés' confidence levels and encourage them to create positive purposeful transformational change in their communities.

To address research question three, I examined the Social Change Model (SCM) constructs. A comparison of independent sample *t*-tests and regression analyses were conducted. Ragins (1997) identified an important research conundrum; he argued research on race and mentoring relationships have inconsistent findings because confounding variables have not been used as a measure of control. I used covariates for all research questions including pre-college activities, major, sexual orientation, citizenship/generational status, parents' education level, and grade point average in the model; race and gender as a measure of control were removed due to the nature of the question. The pre-tests for socially responsible leadership and leadership efficacy and the gender match and race match variables were also included in the model. It was hypothesized same-gender pairs would score significantly higher on socially responsible leadership based on MSL 2006 findings. Through regression analysis, I found the race match and gender match for mentor-protégé pairings does not predict leadership capacity (socially responsible leadership and leadership efficacy). Therefore, gender match and race match mentor-protégé pairs do not differ from cross-gender and cross-race mentor-protégé pairs.

This study not only offers a unique contribution to the MSL research agenda but also offers insights to a new constituent audience, housing and residential administrators. Since student success and collaboration with academic affairs are a priority at many institutions of higher education, this research could be helpful to hall directors, faculty associated with living-learning communities, and advisors of residential organizations (e.g., RHA, NRHH, hall government) who may serve as mentors to resident assistants. Although there are some benefits to the type of mentor and/or the gender and race match mentor-protégé pairings, the main finding suggests any type of mentoring relationship is crucial in the development of resident assistants' leadership capacities.

Discussion

The findings from this study equip educators and potential mentors with evidence-based information on the benefits of cultivating the leadership capacities of resident assistants (RAs). These findings also address both practical and scholarly implications often missing in research findings. The student affairs practitioners (e.g., hall directors, student organization advisors, leadership coordinators, fraternity and sorority advisors) resident assistants learn from outside of the classroom and the faculty they learn from inside the classroom can have a direct, positive influence on RAs' leadership capacities.

Student affairs practitioners should strive to frequently interact in both informal and formal capacities with resident assistants because there is a measurable benefit. Findings from this study support that gender match and race match mentor-protégé pairs do not significantly differ from cross-race and cross-gender mentor-protégé pairs on leadership capacity. This finding is very useful because there may be a limited number of potential mentors of racially diverse or non-binary gender backgrounds. Therefore, being mentored by someone of a different race or gender is not disadvantageous; what is most important is that the resident assistant has been mentored. Therefore, any type of mentor on a college campus can impact a resident assistant's leadership capacity (socially responsible leadership and leadership efficacy).

Institutions of higher education can also benefit from mentoring relationships with resident assistants. Stakeholders in higher education acknowledge matriculation, retention and graduation of students as a priority; students who aid in the aforementioned are valuable and how they are developed and mentored is worthy of study. Therefore, those who mentor resident assistants are not only benefitting the protégé and who they encounter, but may increase retention efforts and student satisfaction with their collegiate experiences. This is particularly salient for certain types of institution. For public state institutions, a residency requirement may be in place. Resident assistants (RAs) can play a very important role in retaining first-year students who live on campus, particularly at large institutions where students may feel like a "number". In contrast, RAs can play an essential role at residential, liberal arts campuses. Many students choose to live on campus all four years and having an RA may be the only consistent aspect of their collegiate experiences as majors change and co-curricular activity interests are modified. Therefore, institutions of higher education should recognize the contributions of RAs and the mutual benefits associated with mentoring these student leaders.

Through a bigger picture student affairs lens, student affairs and faculty could assume mentoring roles for promising undergraduate resident assistants and master's students who want to be in the field as professionals. Therefore, socialization into the profession by way of mentoring through both psychosocial and career orientations has the potential to be mutually beneficial for the protégé. Professional associations should continue to offer or develop opportunities for mentoring encounters. For example, this very Knowledge Community, Student Leadership Programs has a mentor-mentee program for first-time NASPA national conference attendees. The intent is for the protégés to spend time with seasoned professionals to learn about navigating the conference, the profession, and the mentors' career path. This mentoring program has be extended to the IV-East regional level in 2013-2014 to offer mentoring encounters at a regional conference. There is also a larger mentoring effort, the NASPA Undergraduate Fellows Program (NUFP), a mentoring program designed specifically for undergraduate students who want to pursue careers in student affairs administration. College Student Educators International (ACPA) annually hosts the Convention Colleagues program which pairs first-time attendees, new professionals, and graduate students are seated at tables for an event to mingle, network, and explore career options. The National Association for Campus Activities (NACA) has a leadership fellow and mentor program for underrepresented ethnicities to become familiarity with the association and profession. These are examples that student affairs as a profession is aware of the benefits of mentoring encounters and offer formal and informal mentoring opportunities.

Future research has the ability to validate previous findings and lessen the gap between theory to practice. With respect to mentoring outcomes, research could be conducted on the mentor and protégé pairs. The MSL provides somewhat limited insights from the protégé (type, race, gender) and we hear nothing from the mentor. To be able to fully understand the relationship, the researcher should hear from both mentor and protégé. Same-race mentor-protégé pairs have higher group means on leadership capacity than cross-race pairs. Cross-gender pairs have higher group means on leadership capacity than same-gender pairs. However, as mentioned earlier, gender match and race match are not predictors of leadership capacity. Perhaps a qualitative approach (e.g. mentor-protégé interviews or focus groups) could further explain the dynamics associated with race and gender mentor-protégé pairings.

This study was designed to be replicated for different sub-samples or student group types (e.g., orientation leaders, fraternity/sorority members, student organization members) from the Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership (MSL) data. Many researchers have utilized the entire MSL sample, yet few have sought to seek replication of findings within sub-samples. This study utilized researcher-selected covariates of interest to me. Other researchers may want to explore the most significant type of mentor or mentor-protégé race and gender pairings and students' major as opposed to using major as a measure of control (e.g., Science, Technology, Engineering, and Math (STEM) majors). This would be particularly interesting for majors with a predominance of one gender (e.g., Engineering) or race (African American Studies). In addition, other researchers may choose different covariates for predictive purposes.

With respect to the MSL survey design, I offer some recommendations for those who plan to use the data in the future. First, grade point average should be reverse coded for accuracy of the interpretation of findings; if the grade point average is not recoded the standardized coefficient appears to be negatively related when that is not the case. In addition, the CORE90 variable is very important and can be overlooked with the large number of variables in the MSL codebook. As mentioned in Chapter 3, that variable will assist researchers with cleaning up missing data because it will only include cases where respondents completed at least 90% of the survey. Finally, there were two sub-studies that participants were randomly selected to complete (mentoring outcomes/spiritual or collective racial efficacy). It is not explicitly stated in the MSL Codebook that roughly half of a sample will complete one sub-study; this is important because the sample size will decrease significantly. For instance, of roughly 6,000 RAs less than 3,000 completed the mentoring outcomes sub-study. However, the participants who were not selected in the sub-study will still appear in analysis, but will dramatically decrease the mentoring outcome means; they will need to be treated as missing data for accurate mentoring outcome means, and standard deviations.

Select members of the Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership team presented at College Student Educators International (ACPA) Convention in March of 2013 on recent Social Change Model findings. They found self-awareness and individual values predicate the group and societal values. They suggested a revision for the model to make it more linear and reflect the aforementioned finding. The proposed change would require the model to begin with individual values to understand self then move to group values. The group values promote being in relationship, collaborating, and developing social perspective taking. Social perspective taking was implemented in the 2009 study and the 2012 study. It involves the ability to see things from another's perspective while remaining true to oneself. In essence, once one is self-aware and other-aware they are able to move into the societal arena and engage in citizenship for positive, purposeful change. At this same presentation, the importance of resiliency as an outcome was discussed. Resiliency is the determination to complete a task regardless of obstacles or circumstances. "Neither life, nor leadership, is a linear path free of stress or setbacks" (Whitney, 2007, p. 4). Because of leader persistence, I argued leadership efficacy should be included in addition to socially responsible leadership for a more comprehensive view of leadership capacity. Based on this presentation and emerging leadership research, I argue for a third persistence-based inclusion, resiliency for a more holistic depiction of leadership capacity (socially responsible leadership and leadership efficacy).

This study examined mentoring encounters on college campuses including most significant type of mentor and gender match and race match of mentor-protégé pairings for resident assistants while controlling for confounding factors. However, there is much more to be learned about mentoring and leadership capacity. It is my hope that by bringing the subject to light, more educators will conduct further research and more college students will engage in mentoring encounters. As noted many times, mentoring is a positive predictor of leadership capacity and through mentorship resident assistants are equipped with the abilities and confidence levels to create positive, purposeful transformational change.

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Supplemental Information

Sub-Sample Characteristics

Variable	n	%
Race		
African American/Black	496	8.3
American Indian/Alaska Native	19	.3
Asian American/Asian	528	8.8
Caucasian/White	3,931	65.5
Latino/Hispanic	223	3.7
Middle Eastern	44	.7
Multiracial	490	8.2
Race not included above	148	2.5
Grade Point Average		
3.50 – 4.00	2,371	39.5
3.00 – 3.49	2,269	37.8
2.50 – 2.99	968	16.1
2.00 – 2.49	202	3.4
1.99 or less	33	.5
No college GPA	16	.3
Pre-College Activities (Very Involved)		
Student Council/Government	1,201	20.0
Pep/Spirit Club, Cheer	816	13.6
Performing Arts	2,313	38.5
Academic Clubs	1,754	29.2
Organized Sports	2,745	45.7
Leadership Positions	2,807	46.7
Major		
Science, Technology, Engineering, and Mathematics	1,217	20.7
Professional and Pre-Professional	352	6.0
Humanities	947	16.1
Business Administration	980	15.4
Communication	343	16.7
Education	469	8.0
Health-Related Fields	380	6.5
Multi/Interdisciplinary Studies	88	1.5
Social Sciences	982	16.7
Undecided	111	1.9

(Table continues)

(Table continued)

Variable	n	%
Gender		
Women	3,438	57.2
Men	2,411	40.1
Transgender	26	.4
Sexual Orientation		
Heterosexual	5,291	88.1
Bisexual	161	2.7
Gay/Lesbian	162	2.7
Questioning	83	1.4
Rather Not Say	174	2.9
Citizenship/Generation Status		
Grandparents, parents, and you were born in the U.S.	3,720	61.9
Both parents and you were born in the U.S.	699	11.6
You were born in the U.S.	649	10.8
You are a foreign-born, naturalized citizen	251	4.2
You are a foreign-born, resident alien/permanent resident	172	2.9
International student	381	6.3
Parents' Education		
Less than high school/GED	118	2.0
High school/GED	715	11.9
Some college	732	12.2
Associate's degree	497	8.3
Bachelor's degree	1,653	27.5
Master's degree	1,326	22.1
Doctorate/professional degree	753	12.5
I do not know	66	1.1

Research Questions and Corresponding Analyses

Research Question	Analyses
Do resident assistants who participate in mentoring relationships exhibit significantly higher leadership capacities than resident assistants who do not, after accounting for control measures such as pre-college activities, race, gender, sexual orientation, grade point average?	I ran descriptive statistics across all constructs of the Social Change Model, socially responsible leadership, and leadership efficacy. I conducted independent sample *t*-tests to compare group means. Subsequently, I conducted multiple regression. The model included covariates, pre-tests, and the variable whether the resident assistant had been mentored on the dependent variables.
Is there a significant relationship between type of mentor and resident assistant leadership capacity, after accounting for the aforementioned control measures?	I ran descriptive statistics on all dependent variables. I conducted an ANOVA to examine group means of resident assistants by type of mentor. Subsequently, multiple regression was utilized. The model included covariates, pre-tests, and the most significant type of mentors on the dependent variables.

(Table continues)

(Table continued)

Research Question	Analyses
Does the relationship between leadership capacity and mentoring relationships differ based on the race and gender match of the mentor-protégé pairing, after accounting for the aforementioned control measures?	I ran descriptive statistics on all dependent variables. I conducted independent sample *t*-tests to examine group means of gender match and race match mentor-protégé pairs. Subsequently, I conducted multiple regression. The model included covariates, pre-tests, and the computed variables for gender match and race match mentor-protégé pairs.

Overview of 2009 Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership Sub-Study Scales

Socially Responsible Leadership Pre-Test and Scale Items

Number of items: 71

Constructs of the Social Change Model (n=8)

- Individual Values
  - Consciousness of Self Scale
  - Congruence Scale
  - Commitment Scale
    - Range for each construct: Low=1, High=5
    - Range for individual values: 1=Low, High=15
- Group Values
  - Collaboration Scale
  - Common Purpose Scale
  - Controversy with Civility Scale
    - Range for each construct: Low=1, High=5
    - Range for group values: 1=Low, High=15
- Societal Value
  - Citizenship Scale
    - Range for societal value: 1=Low, High=5
- Outcome Value
  - Change
    - Range for outcome value: 1=Low, High=5

Leadership Efficacy Pre-Test and Scale

Range: Low=1, High=4
Number of items: 4

Items:

- Leading others
- Organizing a group's tasks to accomplish a goal
- Taking initiative to improve something
- Working with a team on a group project.

Mentoring for Leadership Empowerment Scale

Range: Low=1, High=5

Number of items: 3

Scale Items

- Empower myself to engage in leadership
- Empower others to engage in leadership
- Engage in ethical leadership

Mentoring for Personal Development Scale

Range: Low=1, High=5

Number of items: 7

Scale Items:

- Live up to my potential
- Be a positive role model
- Mentor others
- Value working with others from diverse backgrounds
- Be open to new experiences
- Develop problem-solving skills
- Identify areas for self-improvement

Mentor Profile Frequencies including Type, Race, and Gender

Demographic	n	%
Most Significant Mentors		
Faculty	2,426	40.4
Student Affairs	1,106	18.4
Employer	426	7.1
Other Student	1,576	26.2
Gender		
Women	2,898	48.3
Transgender	62	1.0
Men	2,580	43.0
Race		
Caucasian/White	4,356	72.5
Middle Eastern	134	2.2
African American/Black	600	10.0
Native American	85	1.4
Asian American/Pacific Islander	371	6.2
Latino/Hispanic	268	4.5
Multiracial	210	3.5
Unsure	190	3.2
Race not indicated above	77	1.3

Note: Reported race and gender protégé and mentor frequencies differ slightly from the sub-sample and mentoring profile crosstab frequencies.

Research Question 1

Means, Standard Deviations, Standard Error, and t Values for Mentored and Non-Mentored RAs on Educational Outcomes

	Mentored RAs (n=5,741)			Non-mentored RAs (n=265)				
Leadership Constructs	*M*	*SD*	*SE*	*M*	*SD*	*SE*	*t* Values	Cohen's d
Individual Values								
Consciousness of Self	4.03	.55	.009	3.77	.64	.013	-6.53	.44
Congruence	4.19	.57	.008	3.92	.72	.044	-6.13	.42
Commitment	4.32	.55	.007	4.03	.69	.042	-6.70	.42
Group Values								
Collaboration	4.09	.52	.007	3.83	.65	.039	-6.71***	.44
Common Purpose	4.07	.51	.006	3.81	.67	.041	-6.29***	.43
Controversy with Civility	3.86	.46	.008	3.65	.54	.033	-6.35***	.42
Citizenship	4.02	.59	.008	3.67	.69	.043	-8.15***	.56
Change	3.85	.51	.007	3.71	.55	.034	-4.49***	.26
Leadership Capacity								
Socially Responsible Leadership	4.03	.45	.006	3.77	.57	.035	-7.27***	.51
Leadership Efficacy	3.27	.60	.008	3.06	.72	.040	-5.58***	.32

***$p < .0001$

Standardized Coefficients on Leadership Capacity

Independent Variables	Socially Responsible Leadership	Leadership Efficacy
Caucasian/White	.027*	.028*
Grade Point Average	.071***	.059***
Pre-College Activities		
Student Council/Government	.013	.027
Pep/Spirit Club, Cheer	-.043***	-.005
Performing Arts	.062***	.029*
Academic Clubs	.013	-.001
Organized Sports	.009	.017
Leadership Positions	.033**	.074***
Major		
Professional and Pre-Professional	.009	.004
Humanities	.058***	.020
Business Administration	.032*	.047**
Communication	.025*	.039**
Education	.029*	.030*
Health-Related Fields	.019	-.003
Multi/Interdisciplinary Studies	.014	.003
Social Sciences	-.075***	.052***
Undecided	-.033**	-.058***
Women	-.030**	.028*
Heterosexual	.008	.004
Domestic Student	-.070***	-.059***
Parents' Education (Bachelor's)	.002	.009
Socially Responsible Leadership Pre-test	.450***	.184***
Leadership Efficacy Pre-test	.108***	.302***
Mentored	.074***	.049***
R^2	.330	.243
Adjusted R^2	.328	.240

*p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.0001

Research Question 2

Standardized Coefficients on Leadership Capacity

Independent Variables	Socially Responsible Leadership	Leadership Efficacy
Caucasian/White	.030*	.030*
Grade Point Average	-.068***	.056***
Pre-College Activities		
Student Council/Government	.013	.024
Pep/Spirit Club, Cheer	-.043***	-.005
Performing Arts	.065***	.033**
Academic Clubs	.015	-.001
Organized Sports	.011	.021
Leadership Positions	.035*	.076***
Major		
Professional and Pre-Professional	.010	.005
Humanities	.057***	.019
Business Administration	.033*	.048**
Communication	.027*	.041**
Education	.030*	.028*
Health-Related Fields	.020	.000
Multi/Interdisciplinary Studies	.015	.004
Social Sciences	.075***	.051***
Undecided	-.034**	-.054***
Women	-.034**	.026*
Heterosexual	.011	.007
Domestic Students	-.070***	-.058***
Parents' Education (Bachelor's)	.003	.010
Socially Responsible Leadership Pre-test	.453***	.188***
Leadership Efficacy Pre-test	.105***	.299***
Type of Mentor		
Faculty	.021	.010
Employer	-.010	.004
Other Student	-.018	-.063***
R^2	.326	.245
Adjusted R^2	.323	.242

*p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.0001

Research Question 3

Mentor-Protégé Race Match and Gender Match Comparison of Means, Standard Deviations, and t-Values on Leadership Capacity

Outcome	Race	*M*	*SD*	*t-Value*	Gender	*M*	*SD*	*t-Value*
Socially Responsible	Race Match	4.04	.42		Gender Match	4.04	.43	
Leadership	Cross Race	4.04	.46	-0.437	Cross Gender	4.06	.42	1.557
Leadership	Race Match	3.29	.59		Gender Match	3.28	.59	
Efficacy	Cross Race	3.27	.62	-1.223	Cross Gender	3.29	.61	.621

**p<.05

Standardized Coefficients on Leadership Capacity Gender Findings

Independent Variables	Socially Responsible Leadership	Leadership Efficacy
Grade Point Average	-.072***	-.054***
Pre-College Activities		
Student Council/Government	.021	.036*
Pep/Spirit Club, Cheer	-.040**	-.005
Performing Arts	.063***	.019
Academic Clubs	.011	-.007
Organized Sports	.000	.014
Leadership Positions	.030*	.066***
Major		
Professional and Pre-Professional	.011	-.004
Humanities	.066***	.024
Business Administration	.035*	.048**
Communication	.026*	.036**
Education	.032*	.028*
Health-Related Fields	.025	-.010
Multi/Interdisciplinary Studies	.016	-.004
Social Sciences	.078***	.042**
Undecided	-.027*	
Heterosexual	.005	-.007
Domestic Students	-.088***	-.075***
Parents' Education (Bachelor's)	.006	.016
Socially Responsible Leadership Pre-test	.432***	.167***
Leadership Efficacy Pre-test	.113**	.312***
Gender Match	-.019	-.008
R^2	.296	.226
Adjusted R^2	.293	.223

*p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.0001

Standardized Coefficients on Leadership Capacity Race Findings

Independent Variables	Socially Responsible Leadership	Leadership Efficacy
Grade Point Average	-.074***	-.054***
Pre-College Activities		
Student Council/Government	.020	.037*
Pep/Spirit Club, Cheer	-.039**	-.005
Performing Arts	.064***	.019
Academic Clubs	-.011	-.008
Organized Sports	-.001	.014
Leadership Positions	.031*	.065***
Major		
Professional and Pre-Professional	.010	-.005*
Humanities	.067***	.024
Business Administration	.035*	.047**
Communication	.027*	.038**
Education	.032*	.028*
Health-Related Fields	.025	-.011
Multi/Interdisciplinary Studies	.016	-.004
Social Sciences	.078***	.042**
Undecided	-.028*	-.058***
Heterosexual	-.004	-.009
Domestic Students	-.090***	-.075***
Parents' Education (Bachelor's)	.008	.016
Socially Responsible Leadership Pre-test	.431***	.167***
Leadership Efficacy Pre-test	.113***	.311***
Race Match	-.015	.000
R^2	.295	.225
Adjusted R^2	.292	.222

*p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.0001

Generational Differences in Perceptions of Leadership: A Look at Leadership Educators in Higher Education

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Abstract

In this study, an online survey was sent to 320 members of the Association of Leadership Educators asking respondents to rank-order ten leadership traits based on importance in an effective leader as well as rank-order the same leadership traits for prevalence in their students. The study found that Baby Boomers value honest (2.43), competent (3.90), and inspiring (4.15) as most important in an effective leader. Xers were found to value competent (3.55), honest (3.70), and inspiring (4.50) as the most important leadership traits. It was also found that the same leadership educators believed their students, who represent the Millennial generation, embody the leadership traits of determined (4.07), ambitious (4.16), and honest (4.35) most often.

Introduction

Within higher education, diversity continues to grow and drastically change demographics, including ethnicity, religion, and age. This change of demographics extends to both faculty members and student populations. Though universities emphasize the understanding and acceptance of diversity, generational diversity is a factor that does not receive as much attention. With the Millennial generation's coming of age, it is possible for up to four different generations to be present in the realm of academia. Faculty must not only deal with generational diversity among their colleagues, but also among their students. "The changing demographics of the U.S. population (and of other nations) has quietly but profoundly begun to pull higher education in different directions and to cause the introduction of new academic programs, practices, and personnel policies" (Keller, 2001, p. 234). This changing of demographics among educators and student populations creates uncharted territory for educators to maneuver in both a professional and personal manner to both collaborate with colleagues of different generations as well as engage students of a younger generation.

The Pew Research Center (2010) found that in 2011, there were 55.4 million Millennials in the United States population and 39% of those Millennials were still in college, high school, or a trade school. "So far only about one-in-five Millennials (19%) are college graduates. An additional 26% are currently in school and plan to graduate from college, while an additional 30% are not in school but expect to someday earn a college degree" (Pew Research Center, 2010, p. 41). It is evident that faculty have several years left with the Millennial generation, which means understanding this generation and their behaviors is of utmost importance. Leadership educators must understand both the differences in opinions of effective leaders among the Baby Boomer and X generations and how the Millennial generation fits in.

This study will identify common preferred leadership traits of leadership educators belonging to the Baby Boomer and X generations and determine if a relationship between their preferences and their generation exists. The study will also identify leadership traits educators believe their undergraduate students possess. The study will answer the following research questions:

1. Utilizing the Generational Differences in Leadership Questionnaire (GDLQ), how do Baby Boomer and X generations of leadership educators rank characteristics of effective leaders?
2. Utilizing the GDLQ, what leadership characteristics do leadership educators identify in their undergraduate students?

Literature Review

Generations

A generation is defined as a group of the same age in similar social location experience similar social events (Mannheim, 1972; Sessa, Kabacoff, Deal & Brown, 2007). People of the same age group tend to experience similar social and historical processes, "predisposing them for a certain characteristic mode of thought and experience and a characteristic type of historically relevant action" (Sessa, et al., 2007, p. 49). These life experiences tend to distinguish one cohort from another, hence Generational Cohort Theory.

There is a debate between researchers on how to best divide and name the generations in our country. For the purpose of this study, Zemke, Raines, and Filipczak (2000)'s generation break-down will be used. The eldest generation still living is the Veterans, or the Silent Generation, born from 1922-1943. Their core values include dedication, hard work, respect for authority and their defining moments are the Great Depression, WW II, and FDR (Arsenault, 2004; Zemke et al., 2000). The next generation is the Baby Boomers born from 1944-1960. Their core values include optimism, personal gratification, growth and their defining moments are JFK, civil rights, and women's movements. Then there is Generation X born from 1961-1980 who value diversity, technoliteracy, fun, and informality. Their defining moments are the Challenger incident, AIDS, and Rodney King. The youngest generation in higher education is the Millennials, also known as the Nexters or Gen Y, born from 1981-2000. This generation values optimism, civic duty, confidence, achievement and their defining moments include 9/11, Oklahoma City bombing, and computers.

Research has found that the cusp effect and the crossover effect to be major reasons for the lack of mutual exclusivity between generations. The cusp effect refers to the lack of mutual exclusivity between generations, meaning people are born at the beginning and end of generations and can relate to more than one generation (Arsenault, 2004). Schewe and Evans (2000) defined the crossover effect as very significant events that effect every generation, such as John F. Kennedy's assassination, the Challenger incident, and the movie Gone with the Wind. Though some may say that the cusp and crossover effects take away from generational differences, Arsenault (2004) states "instead the effects can be used positively for example to show that there is common ground and a feeling of connectedness among generations, especially in seminars or training sessions" (p. 136). The cusp and crossover effects can unify generations by emphasizing commonalities that span every generation.

Leadership Behaviors

It comes as no surprise that different generations value different leadership characteristics. Sessa et al. (2007) found the Millennial generation ranked dedicated as the most important attribute and credible as less important, which differed from all other generations. The study also found the attribute of delegating most clearly differentiated the Millennials from other cohorts, whereas Gen-Xers valued attributes that suggested an optimistic leader with experience. Xers also prefer flexibility, money and benefits, harmonious work environments, and fulfillment (Joyner, 2000). In a study comparing Baby Boomers and Xers, it was found that Xers differed from the Baby Boomers in that they prefer challenging tasks accomplished within a workday versus several workdays; surfing and buying using the internet versus the telephone; flexible work hours versus regularly scheduled hours; and a portable 401K with lump sum distribution versus a retirement plan with benefits (Rodriguez, Green, & Ree, 2003).

As with leadership characteristics, generations differ in their preferred leadership style. Leadership styles are shaped by differences in attitudes, values, and beliefs (Zemke et al., 2000). Veterans prefer a directive leadership style that is simple and clear (Arsenault, 2004; Conger, 2001; and Zemke et al., 2000). Baby Boomers prefer a collegial and consensual style, while Xers tend to be fair, competent, and straightforward. Millennials prefer a polite relationship with authority.

Though leadership behaviors and preferences differ among generations, there are also similarities. In a study by Arsenault (2004), each generation was found to believe honesty is the most important characteristic for leaders to possess. This result means all generations value leaders who tell the truth and do not mislead their employees. In the same study, an additional finding was each generation ranked competence and loyalty high on the list of admired leadership traits, meaning each “felt that a successful leader must be capable, effective and know what he or she is doing and promote high levels of loyalty” (p. 136).

Leadership in Higher Education

The culture of higher education is shifting due to changing student demographics (Hurtado & Dey, 1997), focus on student-centered learning (Barr & Tagg, 1995), and an increasing impact of technology on faculty roles (Baldwin, 1998). With these changes in higher education, the leadership paradigm is also in a state of change. “Universities are moving from being stable environments where management is sufficient to be efficient, to dynamic ‘businesses’ where leadership will be needed to survive” (Davies, Hides, & Casey, 2001, p. 1028). In a study by Murry and Stauffacher (2001) of perceptions of what makes for effectiveness in heads of departments in higher education, trust and integrity issues were found to be important. Bryman (2008) found that “there is evidence that effective departmental leaders form role models for members of their staff, so that it is important for them to have credibility as academics as well as in terms of being leaders” (p.701). It involved being seen and respected as a member of the academic community. In a study by Spendlove (2007), who interviewed 12 Pro-Vice-Chancellors, those who are second in command, it was found that “for most of the respondents, leadership equated to academic leadership. It was a most particular type of leadership, and one in which outsiders might struggle to understand” (p. 414).

After a comprehensive exploration of the leadership theories and models within higher education, Bensimon, Neumann, and Birnbaum (1989) classified the theories into the following six categories: trait theories, power and influence theories, behavioral theories, contingency theories, cultural and symbolic theories, and cognitive theories. Although, the literature suggests "alternative leadership styles are replacing the traditionally held definitions of leadership and provide new and different (and possibly superior) ways to understand leadership" (Eddy & VanDerLinden, 2006, p. 6), the changing of leadership styles is relevant to the impact that different generations have on higher education.

Millennials in the Classroom

The youngest generation in higher education is the Millennials, also known as the Nexters or Gen Y, born from 1981-2000. This generation values optimism, civic duty, confidence, achievement and their defining moments include 9/11, Oklahoma City bombing, and computers (Arsenault, 2004). At this point in time, Millennials make up the traditional undergraduate students in higher education and are the most educationally ambitious generation ever (Sax, 2003). With one in five Millennials having at least one immigrant parent, this generation is both racially and ethnically the most diverse generation (McGlynn, 2005). Ambitious and achieving are two of the primary characteristics associated with Millennials (DeBard, 2004).

Coomes and DeBard (2004) noted "like their GI generational grandparents, members of the Millennial generation may have what Frank D. Roosevelt called a 'rendezvous with destiny.'" As the next "Great Generation," Millennials are often compared to the GI Generation in that they will have an important impact on society. In the Strauss and Howe generational theory (1991), Millennials are labeled as a dominant "civic" generation. Members of such a generation:

> Grow up as increasingly protected youth [who] will come of age during a secular crisis [for example, the War on Terrorism], will unite into a heroic and achieving cadre of rising adults, will build institutions as powerful as midlifers and emerge as busy elders attacked by the next spiritual awakening (Strauss & Howe, 1991, p. 74).

In describing Millennials, Strauss and Howe (2000) identified seven key traits of this generation– special, sheltered, confident, team-oriented, achieving, pressured and conventional. Millennial students feel the pressure to succeed within the classroom and in the workforce more than any other generation (DeBard, 2004). Baby Boomer and Xer parents, looking for validation for good parenting, have pushed their Millennial children to "perform at least, and excel at best" (DeBard, 2004, p. 38). These contemporary young adults are optimistic about their future prospects and have big plans for their careers (Wilson & Gerber, 2008). Thus far, Millennials have not considered social responsibility to the be the driving force in their life, but "this is the generation willing to pay more for a product if they know the investment is going to a good cause" (Ng, Schweitzer, & Lyons, 2010, p. 289).Millennials desire meaningful work, therefore are expected to be the first generation to be socially active since the 1960s (Sessa et al., 2007). Millennials were raised in structured environments with life direction, resulting in both a trust and reliance on authority (DeBard, 2004).

Theoretical and Conceptual Framework

Generational Cohort Theory is based on people of the same age group experiencing similar social and historical events that bring them together over time, distinguishing one cohort from another (Jurkiewicz & Brown, 1998). Generational Cohort Theory is defined by social change, rather than biological, and there are six characteristics that help determine the scope of a generation:

> (a) a traumatic or formative event such as a war, (b) a dramatic shift in demography that influences the distribution of resources in a society, (c) an interval that connects a generation to success or failure (e.g., the Great Depression), (d) the creation of a 'sacred space' that sustains a collective memory (e.g., Woodstock), (e) mentors or heroes that give impetus and voice by their work (e.g., Martin Luther King), and (f) the work of people who know and support each other (e.g., Bill Gates, Steven Jobs)" (Sessa et al., 2007, p. 49).

Judge, Piccolo, and Kosalka (2009) state that "the leader trait perspective is perhaps the most venerable intellectual tradition in leadership research" (p. 855). In this study, Kouzes and Posner's (2002) Checklist of Admired Leaders was utilized to gauge leadership educators' perceptions of the leadership traits demonstrated by their students. They have developed a list of the ten most popular leadership traits by administering questionnaires to over 75,000 people around the globe. "The results of these surveys have been striking in their regularity over the years…Only four [characteristics] have continuously received over 50% of the votes" (Kouzes & Posner, 2002, p. 24). These four traits include honest, forward-looking, competent, and inspiring. For this study, the checklist with the ten traits most popular leadership traits is used (Kouzes & Posner, 2002). The Checklist of Admired Leaders contains the following traits – ambitious, caring, competent, determined, forward-looking, honest, imaginative, inspiring, loyal, and self-controlled. These ten leadership traits are recognized as the characteristics that people "most for look for and admire in a leader, someone whose direction they would willingly follow" (Kouzes & Posner, 2002, p. 24).

Methods

The study was descriptive in nature in that "determined specific characteristics of a group…by asking the same sets of questions to a large number of individuals" (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2009, p. 12). Specifically, the researcher utilized an online survey to collect the data. The population for this study was faculty members from across in the country in leadership education. Members of the Association of Leadership Educators (ALE) were used as the sample to represent the population of leadership educators in higher education.

An online survey was created using Qualtrics, an online survey builder and data collector. A link to the survey was then emailed to the ALE listserv of 320 member email addresses. The first round of emails was sent on May 2, 2013. To ensure a higher response rate, Dillman's (2000) Suggested Design Methods was used for data collection. After the initial contact, nonrespondents were contacted three subsequent times asking for participation in this study. The reminder emails were sent on May 10, May 20, and again on September 9.

The Generational Differences in Leadership Questionnaire is a modified version of Kouzes and Posner's Checklist of Admired Leaders. Respondents rank ordered from 1 to 10 the leadership characteristics that are most to least important in an effective leader. For the purpose of this study, an effective leader is defined as someone that has the ability to influence a group of individuals towards the achievement of a particular goal (Drouillard & Kleiner, 1996; Kotter, 1990; Montgomery, 1961; Tannenbaum & Schmidt, 1961). Respondents then rank ordered from 1 to 10 the leadership characteristics most often perceived in their undergraduate students. The leadership characteristics were developed based on Kouzes and Posner's empirical work of over 2,500 profit and nonprofit executives and managers by asking them what personal characteristics they looked for or admired in their superiors (Pierce & Newstrom, 2000).

This work has been validated for over 20 years in the United States and abroad and is the foundation of the Five Practices of Exemplary Leadership (Kouzes & Posner, 2002). The ten most mentioned characteristics serve as the basis for this instrument. The characteristics are: ambitious, caring, competence, determination, forward-looking, honesty, imagination, inspiration, loyalty, and self-control. In addition to, respondents were asked the following basic demographic questions – year of birth, gender, rank (professor, assistant professor, etc.), and department. No personally identifying information was collected. The validity of this instrument is based on face-value by having experts in the field of study examine the leadership traits used in the questionnaire (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2009).
The data were collected and stored on the password-protected Qualtrics website. One week after the final reminder email was sent out, the data were downloaded from Qualtrics into SPSS Statistics for analysis. Of the 320 possible respondents, 91 responses were recorded for a response rate of 28.44%. Incomplete responses and those not in the Baby Boomer and X generation were then eliminated from the data set, leaving 57 responses. This decreased the response rate to 17.81%.

To test for nonresponse error, respondents were grouped as early or late respondents. Miller and Smith (1983) state that "late respondents are statically compared to early respondents using the evaluation data to justify generalizing from the respondents to the sample" (p. 48). The two groups were compared on their responses using t-tests. No differences were found between the late respondents so the results are generalizable to the target population. The researcher then separated those responses into Baby Boomers and Xers, with 21 and 36 responses respectively.

Due to the low response rate, the data were replicated to ensure a sound study of at least 30 responses per generational data set. The Bootstrap Method was used on both sets of data to replicate responses and bring the numbers to 40 each. Bootstrapping is described as "an alternative way to estimate standard errors by repeated resampling from a sample" (Vogt, 1999). The name is derived from the phrase, "pull yourself up by your own bootstraps," meaning to rely on your own resources. In this study, the researcher numbered the responses in each data set. Then a random number generator for research and students, randomizer.org, was used to generate a list of numbers. The corresponding responses that matched the list of random numbers were then replicated. To get a total of 40 responses for each data set, 21 responses were replicated for the Baby Boomers and four responses for the Xers.

Once the replication was finished, the researcher ran descriptive statistics and frequencies on both sets of data. The data was then analyzed to determine if a relationship existed between generations and perceived leadership traits. The data was also analyzed to determine if a relationship exists between generations and perceived leadership traits of undergraduate students.

Results

Of the 57 initial responses, 35 respondents were female and 22 were male. The rank of respondents are as follows – graduate student (7); lecturer (8); associate professor (11); assistant professor (12); professor (6); assistant/associate dean (4); dean/director (8).

To answer the first research question, Baby Boomers and Xers were asked to rank leadership traits based on their preference in an effective leader. The top three preferred leadership traits selected by Baby Boomers include honest (2.42), competent (3.9), and inspiring (4.15). The top three traits selected by Xers include competent (3.55), honest (3.7), and inspiring (4.5). Though both generations agree on the top three leadership traits, it is interesting to note the Baby Boomers agreed on honesty much more soundly. Tables 1 and 2 list the complete trait rankings by mean for Baby Boomers and Xers.

Table 1

Baby Boomers Preferred Leadership Traits in Effective Leaders (n=40)

Rank	**Leadership Trait**	**M**	**SD**
1	Honest	2.43	2.32
2	Competent	3.90	2.18
3	Inspiring	4.15	2.19
4	Forward-looking	4.83	2.72
5	Caring	5.20	2.52
6	Determined	6.18	2.30
7	Self-controlled	6.33	2.79
8	Imaginative	6.70	2.04
9	Loyal	6.78	1.94
10	Ambitious	8.53	2.55

Note: 1 = Most important, 10 = Least Important

Table 2

Xers Preferred Leadership Traits in Effective Leaders (n=40)			
Rank	**Leadership Trait**	**M**	**SD**
1	Competent	3.55	2.15
2	Honest	3.70	2.94
3	Inspiring	4.50	2.42
4	Forward-looking	4.55	2.61
5	Caring	4.98	2.69
6	Determined	6.00	1.99
7	Imaginative	6.58	2.52
8	Ambitious	6.75	3.19
9	Self-controlled	7.18	2.57
10	Loyal	7.23	2.43

Note: 1 = Most Important, 10 = Least Important

To answer the second research question, respondents were asked to rank the leadership traits most identified in their students. Overall, leadership educators recognize that their students are determined (4.07), ambitious (4.16), and honest (4.35). The least prevalent leadership traits leadership educators acknowledged in their students was self-controlled (7.91), inspiring (6.89), and forward-looking (6.65). Table 3 lists the complete rankings of the perceptions of students' leadership traits.

Table 3

Leadership Educators' Perceptions of Students' Leadership Traits n=57			
Rank	**Leadership Trait**	**M**	**SD**
1	Determined	4.07	2.41
2	Ambitious	4.16	3.00
3	Honest	4.35	2.68
4	Caring	4.48	2.56
5	Competent	4.90	2.34
6	Loyal	5.58	2.88

7	Imaginative	6.02	2.73
8	Forward-Looking	6.65	2.67
9	Inspiring	6.89	2.49
10	Self-controlled	7.91	2.21

Note: 1 = Most Prevalent, 10 = Least Prevalent

Conclusions

Several conclusions can be drawn from the results of this study that will add to the overall understanding of generational differences in perceptions of effective leaders. The first interesting result to note is that the X generation did not select honest as the most important leadership trait. This result differs from all previous research where honesty was found to be the most important leadership trait across all generations (Arsenault, 2004; Sessa, et al., 2007; Kouzes & Posner, 2002; Zemke et al, 2000). This is especially interesting since the respondents are leadership educators. These respondents are experts in the field of leadership studies, therefore have experience in leadership behaviors and theories. As a leadership educator with a background in theory, does that change perspectives on the importance of honesty? Xers placing honesty second may also stem from the cynical and untrusting nature of the generation. Research shows that there is a declining level of trust in the X generation and that trust is an essential component of honesty (Kouzes & Posner, 2002). This could explain why Xers in this study ranked honesty as second the most important trait.

Research has also found that Xers prefer a straightforward and competent style of leadership (Arsenault, 2004; Conger, 2001; & Zemke et al., 2000), which matches this study's results in that competent was the most preferred leadership trait on average by Xers. Past studies have also found that loyalty usually ranks high in priority among all generations (Arsenault, 2004), but in this study loyal ranked ninth with Baby Boomers and tenth with Xers.

Smola and Sutton (2002) found that compared to Baby Boomers, Xers wanted to be promoted more quickly. Xers also felt that working hard is an indication of one's worth. In another study, Arsenault (2004) found that Xers ranked ambition as more important than Baby Boomers. Similarly, this study found that Xers weighted ambitiousness more than their older counterparts, which matches past research.

It should be noted that most of the past generational research has been conducted on for-profit executive level leadership, such as CEOs, managers, and supervisors. In this study, the population was leadership educators. This study proves that there may be a major difference in leadership preference between private industry professionals and faculty in academia. In this study, leadership educators find loyalty and ambitiousness less important than the executive level leadership of previous studies (Arsenault, 2004).

The leadership educators in this study view their students, most of which are Millennials, as determined and ambitious. These leadership traits match what research has described as a generation focused on achieving a solid and rewarding career (Wilson & Gerber, 2008). The Millennial students in today's classroom feel the pressure to succeed more than any other generation of the past (DeBard, 2004). This could explain the determination and ambitiousness educators see in their students. However, respondents only ranked their students' competency as the fifth most prevalent trait. Although Millennials are seen as determined and ambitious, if this generation lacks competency, it could be they expect more than they are prepared for. Research shows that work attitudes, values, and satisfaction can change as workers pass through career stages (Rhodes, 1983; Smola & Sutton, 2002). Competency is a trait that the Millennial generation could further develop as it matures.

Millennials have been labeled as entitled and expectant of rapid career advancement, yet research shows they have realistic expectations about their future (Ng et al., 2010). While some educators may see the determination and ambition of this generation as power-hungry and entitled, it is their Baby Boomer and Xer parents that have pushed this generation "to perform at least, and excel at best" (Debard, 2004, p. 38). Research has found Millennials want their leaders to exhibit dedication (Arsenault, 2004; Sess et al. 2007). Millennials are displaying the same leadership traits in themselves as they respect in their leaders.

Another noteworthy result is the ranking of caring as a leadership trait. As the next great generation with an emphasis on social work, it would be expected that these students would be perceived as more caring by their educators. Past studies indicate that although Millennials do not consider social responsibility as the most important lifestyle component, they do believe in supporting good causes and have expressed a genuine interest in social issues, such as the environment (Ng et al., 2010). Because this generation has shown at least some interest in social responsibility and are seen as caring by their educators, it could be that it is still too early for this generation to have definable social contributions.

One should also remember that the students in this study are likely to have a connection to leadership coursework, considering the respondents are leadership educators. This brings to question whether there is a difference in students directly educated in leadership theory and the overall Millennial generation.

When categorizing students as the Millennial generation, it is important to remember Strauss and Howe (2002) developed their theory based on big-picture historical and cultural events. As Coomes and DeBard (2004) point out, "the big picture seldom contains images of marginalized groups. It is uncertain how effectively the generational perspective can be applied to students of color, LGBT students, and students of specific ethnic and cultural groups" (p. 14).

Time does not stand still. The Millennials that are in today's classroom will be tomorrow's leaders. Some Millennials are already hold leadership positions. It is important for Baby Boomers and Xers to understand the Millennial generation's leadership values, because Millennials can be both followers and a bosses in the workforce. In working with Millennials, remember that they want to be valued as a member of the organization. This is also applicable to the Millennials in the classroom. Baby Boomers and Xers must recognize that Millennials are a crucial part of the workforce and learning how to lead them as well as follow them will be critical to the success of both businesses and higher education.

Discussion

In comparing the results of both research questions, an interesting result was the Baby Boomer and Xer emphasis on honesty, competency, and the ability to inspire as the most important leadership traits for effective leaders, yet the same respondents did not recognize these leadership traits as the most prevalent in their students. In fact, leadership educators ranked their students' leadership traits as third for honest, fifth for competent, and ninth for inspiring. In this study, it appears that Baby Boomer and X generations do not view the Millennial generation of students to have the leadership traits of effective leaders.

Though Baby Boomers and Xers rank loyal as ninth and tenth respectively in terms of importance, they ranked loyalty in their students as sixth. This is surprising because research has branded the Millennial generation as less loyal, especially to their jobs (Sessa et al., 2007). If this study would have followed past research trends, Millennial students would have had a lower ranking in loyalty.

Recommendations

It is recommended to that further research examine the "why" behind the rankings. With this study, leadership educators ranked the traits based on preference of importance, but knowing why the respondents ranked the traits the way they did would add value to the argument for generational differences. A future study could also utilize a Likert Scale to measure importance of leadership traits. Measuring how important respondents believe each leadership trait to be would add another dimension to the findings of this study. Adding open-ended questions, such as "what other traits should be on the list?" would also give researchers further data about what leadership traits are important to each generation.

It is also recommended that further research focus on generational leadership preferences in the field of academia, especially leadership education. Leadership educators study leadership as a profession and are responsible for teaching leadership theories and behaviors to students, yet there is little research that examines these educators' personal opinions on effective leaders. It is important for research to shed light onto these personal opinions, because the results of this study indicate that leadership educators may not place value on the same leadership traits that those in the private industry do. This research should include an in-depth look at why respondents rate leadership traits in a particular order. This would help clarify differences in ranking.

With discrepancies in the Xers ranking of honesty, it is also suggested that further research be conducted to investigate the value this generation places on honesty. Past research (Arsenault, 2004) has found that honesty is the most important leadership trait across all generations, yet this study found that it is the second most important trait to generation X. Loyalty is another trait that research has found Baby Boomers and Xers believe to be highly important. However, in this study loyalty ranked ninth and tenth for Baby Boomers and Xers respectively. This is a major inconsistency with what research has shown, therefore should be further researched to better understand if loyalty is indeed a trait that is no longer regarded as important in an effective leader.

Another area of focus for future research is the Millennial generation's perceived leadership traits, such as determination and ambition, and the impact on actual output, such as competency. Research should investigate if a connection exists between the perception of determination and ambition and the perception of entitlement among Millennials. In the future, research should investigate if the low ranking of competency is based on the youngness of this generation and if competency increases as a function of maturation.

Future research should also include the actual civic tendencies of Millennials and their impact on social change. It has been said that has the next "Great Generation," Millennials are committed to social responsibility, but the research supporting this civic-mindedness is lacking. Lastly, further research should include the effect LGBT, ethnic, and culturally diverse students have on generational theory. As student population demographics are rapidly evolving, it is important that our generational research evolve too so.

It is recommended that another study compare leadership educators' perceptions of their students to students of previous generations. It would be interesting to note the differences between the Millennial generation of students compared to the Xer or Baby Boomer generation of students. Further research should also include the "why" behind the ranking of leadership traits. This study ranked the prevalence of leadership traits exhibited by their student, but did not gauge why leadership educators ranked the traits the way they did. Open-ended questions or a Likert Scale would help gather data to support the perceptions of leadership educators.

Beyond generational differences in leadership preferences, this study indicates that further research should include finding out why members of the Association of Leadership Educators did not respond to the survey. Is a low response consistent among other agricultural leadership, education, and communications associations? Leadership education is relatively new area of study with very little research its faculty members. Though leadership education wants research in the field, leadership educators must first participate in research. Leadership educators must refrain from only being consumers of research, but also be providers of researchers too.

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Examining Agricultural Leadership Students' Followership and Self-Directed Learning Style

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Abstract

The leader has typically been the myopic center of studies involving leadership on the collegiate level. However, that does not give a holistic picture of leadership as a phenomenon. Understanding the relationship between followership and learning will aid the leader (educator) in creating effective followers. Followership styles indicated students were more engaged, but less likely to be critical thinkers and the less self-directed students were more likely to be dependent followers with less critical thinking capacity.

Introduction

Leadership educators have the potential to positively impact students every time they engage them inside and outside the classroom. While most instructors do not see themselves as leaders, leadership educators understand they are influencing students toward a common goal (learning, and becoming an engaged citizen), and by definition, this makes them a leader (Northouse, 2013). This aspect of leadership for educators would make their students followers. Research has primarily focused on the leadership aspect of both instructor and student (Collinson, 2006; Cummins, 1995; Foreman & Retallick, 2012; Greiman, 2009; Strong, Wynn, Irby, & Lindner, 2013) and has neglected the verity that followership is an important aspect of the leadership phenomenon. In fact, there has been recent literature (Crossman & Crossman, 2011; Raffo, 2013), which challenges the leader-centric research that tends to negate the issue of followership. Brown and Thornborrow (2008) stated, "followership is the natural complement of leadership, and if an organization is to be successful then it must pay attention to the nature and quality of its followers as well as its leaders" (p. 5).

Higher education is a unique environment that poses its own set of challenges in leadership and followership. Leading in academia has been seen as a challenge on all levels, specifically with the professor battling the "sage on the stage" leadership notion (Rosovsky, 1990; Williams, Blackwell, & Bailey, 2010). Studying leadership and followership in the context of veterinary medicine, Osborne (2011) concluded less emphasis must be placed on the impact factors of leaders in higher education, and more research emphasis needs to rest on the idea of identifying followership levels among faculty and students then training leaders how to work with different types of followers. Collinson (2006) found self-preoccupations of leaders cloud faculty's ability to actively engage with different types of followers.

Followership is a complex phenomenon, which has multiple definitions and differing opinions. Often, the definition of followership is constructed in terms relating to the leader in the study or the organization as a whole. The term "follower" is often accompanied by negative connotations.

“Our society incorrectly stereotypes followers in a condescending manner as docile, passive, obedient, conformists, indifferent, weak, dependent, unthinking, failures, and helpless” (Raffo, 2013, p. 263). When in fact, effective followership is a large part of successful organizations and successful leaders (Kellerman, 2008). To place this into an educational context, for learning objectives to be reached, the students must be actively engaged in the process, not just receptacles of knowledge.

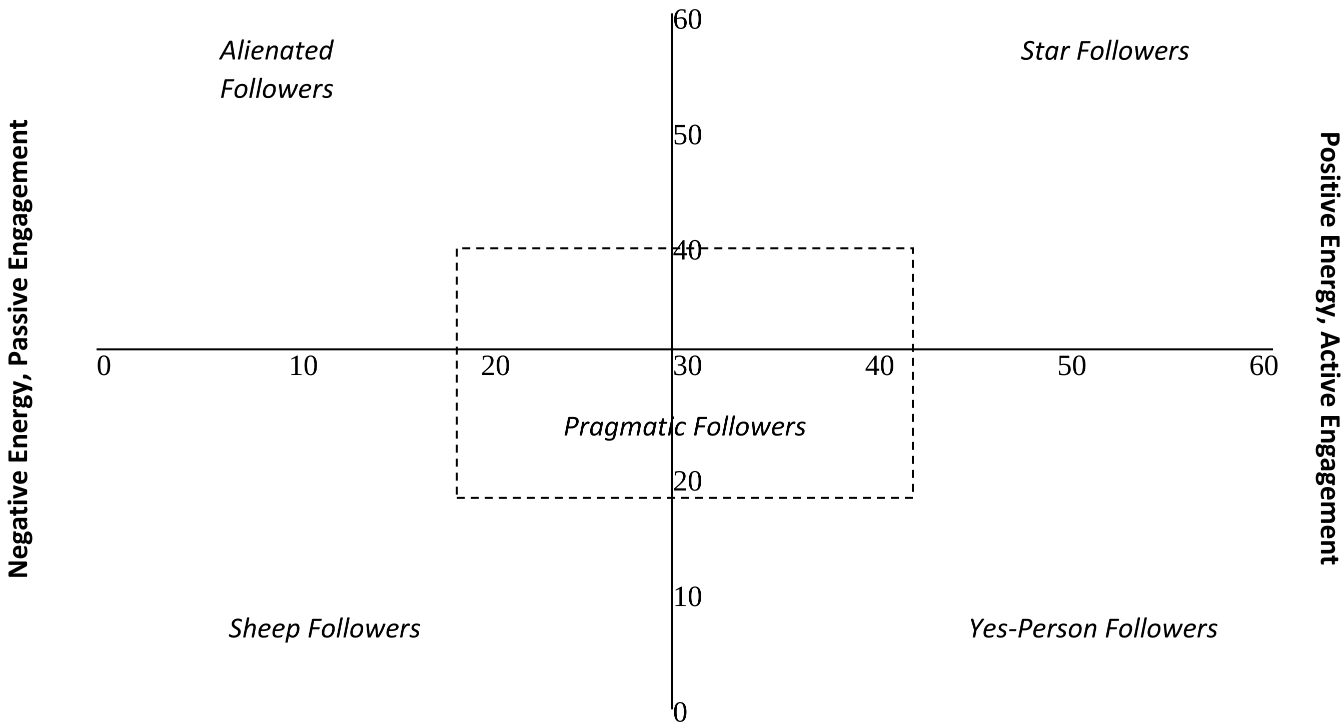
How followers self-identify their role in a leader/follower situation was studied by Carsten, Uhl-Bien, West, Patera, & McGregor (2010). They found context, specifically organizational climate, has the greatest influence on their ability to gauge their passive vs. active role as a follower. The more bureaucratic the organization, the less likely they will self-identify as an active follower. What this means for the organization is as the bureaucratic layers of an organization increase, followers are less likely to engage in critical thinking and active participation with the leader; thus leading to less effective organizations. Hoption, Christie, and Barling (2012) found leaders actions towards followers also have an impact on follower engagement. By giving followers challenging tasks and providing support for the followers while they are performing the task, self-identified engagement increased.

Two key elements of active and engaged followers are self-motivation and critical thinking. Stedman (2009) recommended instituting the role of critical thinking in the classroom is important in order for students to be best prepared for future leadership opportunities. “The goal of every teacher is to develop their students’ understanding of the content being taught in the class, as well as to assist them in their development to become independent and thoughtful problem solvers” (Myers & Dyer, 2006, p. 43). Critical thinking is an integral part of both followership and self-directed learning. Burbach, Matkin, Quinn, and Searle (2012) studied the effect agricultural faculty can have on students’ critical thinking development. They found faculty who utilized teaching methods, which engaged students in higher-order thinking, had students who significantly increased their critical thinking dispositions. Self directed learning includes critical thinking as well as active engagement on the part of the learner (Strong et al., 2013). Numerous studies have also shown the influence of a faculty member on a students’ self-directed learning style as well as the learning transition between stages that occurs (Grow, 1991; Shokar, Shokar, Romero, & Bulik, 2002; Stafford et al., 2003; Strong et al., 2013).

Theoretical Framework

Kelly's (2008) model of followership and Grow's (1991) model of self-directed learning were used to frame this study. Kelly (2008) postulated there are two dimensions that describe how people follow: critical thinking and engagement. A follower can be anywhere on a continuum of dependent, uncritical thinking to independent, critical thinking and passive organizational engagement to active organizational engagement (see Figure 1).

Independent, Critical Thinking



Dependent, Uncritical Thinking

Figure 1. Kelly's (2008) model of followership

Kelly (2008) described five types of followership styles based on their position in each dimension. The "sheep" follower types are classified as dependent, uncritical and passively engaged in the organization. Sheep "look to the leader to do the thinking for them and to motivate them" (Kelly, 2008, p. 7). The "yes-person" followers are dependent and uncritical thinkers but are actively engaged in the organization. These followers look to the leader to come up with the ideas, but are very positive about carrying out whatever the leader decides. The "alienated" followers are independent and critical in their thinking but are passive in the organization. These followers tend to see the negative aspects of every organizational decision and sometimes "see themselves as the mavericks, the only people in the organization who have the guts to stand up to the boss" (Kelly, 2008, p. 7). The "pragmatics" fall into the middle of the model. They are moderate on both critical thinking and organizational engagement. They are never the first to initiate a new idea, but when the leader has a new direction, they are likely to follow. This sometimes makes them appear to be unapologetically neutral. The last category is the "star" follower. Being both independent, critical thinkers who are actively engaged in the organization, these followers are often seen as the 'go-to-person.' They are the followers who work with the leader to make an organization better. Star followers “do not accept the leader’s decision without their own independent evaluation of its soundness” (Kelly, 2008, p. 8).

The more leaders know and understand about their followers, the stronger the organization (Crossman & Crossman, 2011). Empirical research on followership, specifically studies utilizing Kelly’s (2008) model of followership, is in its infancy. Two research studies have tried to validate Kelly’s (2008) followership model, but have had mixed findings (Blanchard, Welbourne, Gilmore, & Bullock, 2009; Thompson & Vecchio, 2009). The empirical studies conducted on followership have focused on for-profit business or high-level leaders and the reciprocal relationship with followers and their specific attributes. This study will add to the empirical knowledge of followership and how it connects to learning.

The second theory used to scaffold this study was Grow’s (1991) self-directed learning. Grow (1991) developed the staged self-directed learning model (SSDL) to explain the extent learners progress through stages of self-direction. The fundamental concept of SSDL model is focused on students contrasting aptitudes to respond to teaching that requires self-direction. An instructor can assist or hamper a student’s development regarding enhanced self-direction (Grow, 1991). The SSDL delineated methods for teachers to actively groom students to progress into a self-directed learner. Teachers work to meet numerous responsibilities because students inherently are in different stages of self-direction (Grow, 1991).

SSDL uses four stages to explain a student’s level of self-direction. S1 students are dependent on the teacher throughout the learning process and prefer a teacher that is an authority (Grow, 1991). Grow (1991) found those students in the S2 category to be interested in the learning process and prefer an instructor that is a motivator. Students in the S3 category are involved in the learning process and prefer a teacher that is a facilitator. S4 students have reached the highest level of self-direction and prefer an instructor that is a delegator. The fundamental aspect of the SSDL is for students and teachers to be at equivalent stages in the model in order for self-directed learning to develop (Grow, 1991).

Self-directed learning has been examined in previous agricultural education studies. Louisiana agriscience teachers’ level of self-directedness was investigated by Kotrlik, Redmann, Harrison, and Handley (2000). Texas 4-H members’ level of self-directed learning was studied by Stafford, Boyd, and Lindner (2003). Understanding students’ followership style and self-directed learning tendencies is another way for academics to increase their effectiveness inside and outside of the classroom. Understanding the correlation between the two variables will give academics a more holistic picture of their students. There is a lack of studies in the literature involving followership styles and self-directedness of agricultural leadership students in academic departments.

Purpose of Study

The purpose of this study was to assess undergraduate agricultural leadership students’ levels of followership and self-directed learning at [university]. The study sought to:

1. Describe students’ levels of critical thinking, engagement, and self-directedness;
2. Examine the relationship between followership styles, personal characteristics and students’ level of self-directedness; and
3. Examine the effects of followership styles, and personal characteristics on students’ level of self-directedness.

Methodology

Fraenkel, Wallen, and Hyun (2012) indicated quantitative research utilizes deductive reasoning to examine theories, numerical data, cause, and effect. The population of this study was (N = 573) undergraduate students enrolled in agricultural leadership courses at [university]. The independent variables in this study were gender, grade classification, grade point average, employment status, and followership styles. Students' level of self-directed learning was the dependent variable in this study.

A combined 37 item instrument including Kelly's (1992) Followership Style Questionnaire, Richards' (2005) self-directed learning instrument, and questions related to personal characteristics was used to collect data in order to answer the study's research objectives. Content validity of the combined instrument was assessed by leadership and adult learning researchers at [university].

The Followership Styles Questionnaire used a seven-point summated scale for each item with anchors: 7 = *Almost Always*, 5 = *Occasionally*, and 1 = *Rarely* (Kelly, 1992). The critical thinking construct related to items 1, 5, 11, 12, 14, 16, 17, 18, 19, and 20 in the scale. The engagement construct related to items 2, 3, 4, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 13, and 15 in the scale. Constructs of the Followership Styles Questionnaire were calculated *ex post facto*. Critical thinking earned a reliability coefficient of .87 and engagement= .84. Sheep followers score 0-18 on critical thinking and 0-18 on engagement. Yes people followers score 0-18 on critical thinking and 42-60 on engagement. Alienated followers score 42-60 on critical thinking and 0-18 on engagement. Pragmatic followers score 19-41 on critical thinking and 19-41 on engagement. Star followers score 42-60 on critical thinking and 42-60 on engagement (Kelly, 1992).

Richards (2005) developed a self-directed learning instrument aligned with Grow's (1991) Staged Self-Directed Learning Model to examine students' level of self-directedness. The self-directed learning instrument included 24 items and included anchors: 1 = *Strongly Disagree*, 2 = *Disagree*, 3 = *Agree*, and 4 = *Strongly Agree*. Richards' (2005) self-directed learning instrument produced a reliability coefficient of α = .91 for this study.

Survey methodology was utilized to collect data, and the researchers used Qualtrics to construct a web-based questionnaire. The Tailored Design Method for developing and distributing an electronic questionnaire was employed for this study (Dillman, Smyth, & Christian, 2009). A random sample (n = 286) of the targeted population (N = 573) was created using random number generator in Excel. The benefit of a random sample is the capability to generate a sample that is representative of the targeted population to assist in generalizing the results to the population (Fraenkel et al., 2012).

The sample received an email notification and two days later received an email that included a link to the questionnaire in Qualtrics. Two separate emails, both a week apart, were sent to non-respondents. One hundred seventy-two (n = 172) participants responded yielding a response rate of 60.10%. Lindner, Murphy, and Briers' (2001) approach to compare early and late respondents to assess nonresponse error was implemented. There were no significant differences between early and late respondents, and therefore, the results can be generalized to undergraduate agricultural leadership students in the [department] at [university]. Six responses were deleted due to incomplete information, and the resulting one hundred sixty-six (*n* = 166) responses were utilized in the data analysis.

The data were analyzed through the use of descriptive statistics, correlation coefficients, and multiple regression analysis. Descriptive statistics were utilized to analyze the level of students', level of self-directedness, Fraenkel et al. (2012) indicated descriptive statistics enable researchers to describe the data in numerical form.

Correlation coefficients were used to analyze the relationship between followership styles and students' level of self-directedness. Correlations signify the direction and magnitude of variable relationships between -1.00 and +1.00 (Davis, 1971). Correlational research uses data to determine the degree of a relationship between two or more variables (Fraenkel et al., 2012).

Fraenkel et al. (2012) indicated multiple regression assists researchers in determining a link among a criterion variable and two or more independent variables. Multiple regression analysis was used to understand the effects of followership styles, and personal characteristics, on students' level of self-directed learning.

All participants were undergraduates (*N* = 166, 100%). Most of participants were male (*n* = 102, 61.45%), one hundred nine students (65.27%) worked part-time, and *n* = 88 (52.69%) had a GPA (grade point average) between 2.99 and 2.50. The majority of participants were yes-person followers (*n* = 87, 52.41%). Though the findings were not generalizable beyond the target population, the results do offer researchers and practitioners insights on factors that influenced agricultural leadership students' level of followership and self-directed learning levels.

Findings

The first objective of the study was to describe students' critical thinking, engagement, and level of self-directedness. "Do you act on your own ethical standards rather than the professor's or the group's standards?" (*M* = 6.51, *SD* = .74) and "Would your future or current work situation help you fulfill some societal goal or personal dream that is important to you?" (*M* = 6.36, *SD* = .81) earned the highest scores for critical thinking (see Table 1).

Table 1

Descriptive Statistics for Critical Thinking

Items	*N*	*M*	*SD*
Do you act on your own ethical standards rather than the professor's or the group's standards?	166	6.51	.74
Would your future or current work situation help you fulfill some societal goal or personal dream that is important to you?	166	6.36	.81
Do you try to solve the tough problems (technical or organizational), rather than look to the professor to do it for you?	166	4.90	.59
Do you make a habit of internally questioning the wisdom of the professor's decision rather than just doing what you were told?	166	4.89	.66
Instead of waiting for or merely accepting what the professor tells you, do you personally identify which course activities are most critical for achieving the course's priority goals?	166	4.23	.88

Do you help the professor or group see both the upside potential and downside risks of ideas or plans, playing the devil's advocate if need be?	166	3.94	.64
When the professor asks you to do something that runs contrary to your professional or personal preferences, do you say "no" rather than "yes"?	166	3.46	.77
Do you actively and honestly own up to your strengths and weaknesses rather than put off evaluation?	166	2.67	.59
Do you assert your views on important issues, even though it might mean conflict with your group or reprisals from the professor?	166	1.89	.63
Do you independently think up and champion new ideas that will contribute significantly to the professor's or the universities' goals?	166	1.36	.47

Note. Overall *M* = 4.02, *SD* = .68. *Scale:* 7 =*Almost Always*, 4 = *Occasionally*, 1 =*Rarely*.

As a part of the study's first objective, students' engagement was examined (see Table 2). The highest scoring items were "Do you understand the professor's needs, goals, and constraints, and work hard to help meet them?" (*M* = 6.45, *SD* = .73) and "When starting a new job or assignment, do you promptly build a record of successes in tasks that are important to the professor?" (*M* = 6.09, *SD* = .89). The item with the lowest scores was "When you are not the leader of a group project, do you still contribute at a high level, often doing more than your share?" (*M* = 1.98, *SD* = .90).

Table 2

Descriptive Statistics for Engagement

Items	*N*	*M*	*SD*
Do you understand the professor's needs, goals, and constraints, and work hard to help meet them?	166	6.45	.73
When starting a new job or assignment, do you promptly build a record of successes in tasks that are important to the professor?	166	6.09	.89
Do you believe your current personal educational goals are aligned with your university's organizational goals?	166	5.51	.72
Do you think your enthusiasm will spread to and energize your current peers?	166	5.44	1.04
Can the professor give you a difficult assignment without the benefit of much supervision, knowing that you will meet your deadline with highest-quality work and that you will "fill in the cracks" if need be?	166	5.34	1.06
Do you actively develop a distinctive competence in those critical activities so that you become more valuable to the professor and the course?	166	5.32	.96
Do you take the initiative to seek out and successfully complete assignments that go above and beyond minimum expectations?	166	5.13	.97
Do you feel you are highly committed and energized by your university giving them your best ideas and performance?	166	5.04	1.12
Do you help out other students, making them look good, even when you don't get any credit?	166	4.84	.87
When you are not the leader of a group project, do you still contribute at a high level, often doing more than your share?	166	1.98	.90

Note. Overall *M* = 5.11, *SD* = .93. *Scale:* 7 = *Almost Always*, 5=*Occasionally*, 1 = *Rarely*.

Describing students' level of self-directedness was a part of the first objective (see Table 3). The item that earned the highest score (*M* = 2.69, *SD* = .74) was "I set my own goals for learning without the help of the instructor." The item that earned the lowest score (*M* = 2.12, *SD* = .95) was "I learn best when I set my own goals."

The results suggested the majority of the leadership students were engaged, yet uncritical followers. As the majority of this sample was yes-person followers, it can be concluded while eager to please their professor, students are not willing challenge the established rules or doctrine of the professor and the discipline. The lack of star and pragmatic followers to analyze suggested that the population would not independently assess the dependability of a decision and were not quick to follow.

Table 3

Descriptive Statistics for Students' Level of Self-directedness (*N* = 166)

	N	*M*	*SD*
I set my own goals for learning without the help of the instructor.	166	2.69	.74
I am capable of assessing the quality of assignments that I submit.	166	2.31	.89
I am willing to take responsibility for my own learning.	166	2.29	.88
I prefer that the instructor provide direction only when requested.	166	2.24	.96
I use resources outside of class to meet my goals.	166	2.22	.91
I have prior knowledge and skills in this subject area.	166	2.18	.93
I prefer individual work or a self-directed study group as the teaching delivery method.	166	2.15	.89
I learn best when I set my own goals.	166	2.12	.95

Note. Overall *M* = 2.28, *SD* = .89. *Scale:* 4 = *Strongly Agree,* 3 = *Agree,* 2= *Disagree,* 1 = *Strongly Disagree.*

The second objective of the study was to examine the relationship between followership styles, and students' level of self-directedness (see Table 4). There were *n* = 87 yes-person, *n* = 42 sheep, *n* = 31 alienated, *n* = 6 star, and *n* = 0 pragmatic followers in the study.

Table 4

The Relationship between Followership Styles and Level of Self-directedness (N = 166)

		Level of Self-directedness	
Followership Styles	*N*	*r*	*p*
Yes-person	87	.51	.00*
Sheep	42	.44	.00*
Alienated	31	.18	.04*

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

*$p < .05$.

The third objective of the study was to examine the effects of followership styles, and personal characteristics on students' level of self-directedness. The regression model was significant and indicated a good fit, with $F = 6.13$, $p < .05$. Yes-person, sheep, and alienated followership styles, and student's GPA was significant $p < .05$ on level of self-directedness. GPA was the lone personal characteristic that was significant on students' level of self-directedness.

As the yes-person followership style increased one unit, level of self-directedness increased .24 (see Table 5). As the sheep followership style increased one unit, level of self-directedness increased .20. As GPA increased one unit, level of self-directedness increased .15. As the alienated followership style increased one unit, level of self-directedness increased .10. The regression model for this study was illustrated as: self-directedness = .21 + .24 yes-person + .20 sheep + .15 GPA + .10 Alienated. The model accounted for (29%) variance in undergraduate agricultural leadership students' level of self-directedness.

Table 5

Summary of Multiple Regression Analysis of Followership Styles and Students' Level of Self-directedness (N = 166)

	B	*SE B*	*p*
Intercept	.21	.26	
Yes-person	.24	.04	.00
Sheep	.20	.06	.00
GPA	.15	.08	.00
Alienated	.10	.17	.02

Note. $R^2 = .31$; Adjusted $R^2 = .29$.

Participants in the study were S2 students as it relates to self-directed learning. There was a relationship with specific followership styles and level of self-directedness. The regression analysis showed that as the unit for followership of yes-person, sheep, and alienated students increased, self-directed learning increased how much?. This can be explained by the increase of critical thinking with each increase of followership score. It can be concluded those followers who are more critical thinkers are more likely to be self-directed learners. The plausibility that less self-directed students are more likely to be dependent followers with less critical thinking capacity exists. Students with higher GPA's are more self-directed learners.

Discussion

Classroom dynamics are an influential factor in the learning process (Cummins, 1995). Faculty may not self-identify as leaders, but students look to faculty to help them navigate the learning process (Osborne, 2011). The small proportion of star and pragmatic followers suggested agricultural leadership students are not independent, critical thinking followers. According to Kelly (2008), followers who are more independent do not believe the leaders have all of the correct answers all of the time. For many students, professors are seen as "all-knowing" entities whose job is to impart knowledge upon them (Rosovsky, 1990). It can be implied the perceived role of professor "sage on the stage" may inherently inhibit students' desire to question the authority of the professor in a critical way.

The high engagement level of the majority of students surveyed is a positive implication for this study. This implies agricultural leadership faculty at [university] create a climate where there is not a bureaucratic air. This supports Carsten et al's (2010) finding that organizational climate affects engagement levels of followers, and the flatter the organizational structure, the more likely followers are to be engaged. This brings to bear the interesting dichotomy of organizational climate and critical thinking. The findings of this study lead one to believe that by flattening the leadership hierarchy, the leaders' ability to engage the follower in self-directed critical thinking decreases. Leaders in the classroom must find a way to incorporate both practices if they want to produce effective followers who are self-directed learners.

S2 students want instructors who are more of a motivator than a facilitator or a consultant (Grow, 1991). This leadership, and potential teaching style, would engage S2 students as well as those who are not as independent as followers. Leadership educators should want to move students from the S2 status to eventually becoming a more independent student in the S4 domain (Grow, 1991). Understanding followership styles could assist leadership educators move students from S2 learners to more independent learners.

A larger sample of star and pragmatic followers is necessary in order to examine the potential relationship with those leadership styles and students' level of self-directed learning. A national study of leadership students would provide a large enough sample to determine if star and pragmatic followership is associated with students' level of self-directed learning. The data could also provide a broader generalization to leadership students nationally instead of a single university. The data presented here provided an insight to the influence of yes-person, sheep, and alienated followers on students' level of self-directedness. A national study may provide similar or dissimilar findings, but broaden our literature on followership and level of self-directedness.

Maturation has been found as a developmental factor in critical thinking (Burbach et al., 2012). Future research could look at the age or class year of the student and see if there is a difference between independent, critical thinking competencies of younger, less experienced students verses older, more experienced students. A longitudinal study following students' self-perceived followership style and self-directed learning from freshman through senior year would also yield more empirical research for the field.

Leadership faculty should replicate this study with agricultural education, leadership, and communications students to measure the differences between and among each discipline. Another potential study could examine leadership students and bench science students by assessing any differences between each population's followership style and level of self-directedness. A comparison study among leadership students and students from other social science disciplines would be beneficial. Each of these proposed studies would add to the literature, and give our profession a better understanding of how our student's followership styles and level of self-directedness compare to their peers. Investigating students in dissimilar academic disciplines would add empirical literature to the arenas of followership and self-directed learning in collegiate environments.

Leadership faculty should develop a better understanding of students' followership styles in order to best prepare and deliver topical courses. Knowing where students lie on Kelly's (2008) model of followership will allow faculty to be better leaders as teachers (Greiman, 2009). Understanding the self-directed level of the students can aid faculty in the development of progressive course assignments, which would result in students becoming more self-directed learners (Grow, 1991) with the capacity for critical thinking (Stedman, 2009). This enhanced capacity of diverse perspectives will enhance the National Leadership Research Agenda (Andenoro, Allen, Haber-Curran, Jenkins, Sowcick, Dugan, & Osteen, 2013).

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Examining the Relationship between Role Models and Leadership Growth during the Transition to Adulthood

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Adolescents and emerging adults are the future leaders of our communities and organizations, and longstanding concerns about the availability and efficacy of good leadership among youth and adults in the United States have continued seemingly unabated (Ashford & DeRue, 2012; Rosenthal, Pittinsky, Purvin, & Montoya, 2007; Schwab, 2007). Indeed, a recent national study revealed that 80% of U.S. citizens feel that our society needs more effective leadership to avoid a national decline (Rosenthal, 2012). Contemporary society calls almost all individuals to take on the responsibilities of leadership in some context (Northouse, 2009). At the same time, research indicates that youth across nations lack leadership skills that are required of many contemporary jobs (Larson, Wilson, & Mortimer, 2002). For example, some adults critique adolescents and emerging adults for appearing selfish, lazy, unambitious, and entitled (Arnett, 2007; Sacred Heart University, 2006). As such, both developmental and leadership scholars have emphasized the need to improve educational systems to include leadership initiatives for adolescents and emerging adults (Ashford & DeRue, 2012; Larson et al., 2002; Riggio, Ciulla, & Sorensen, 2003).

Adolescence is a period marked by identity development (Erikson, 1968), and many are deciphering who they are and who they want to be, separate from the identity of their parents and in response to judgments from or interactions with parents, peers, teachers, and other adults in their life. As individuals transition to adulthood, they often experience increased autonomy, instability, and change (Arnett, 2000; 2005). Many engage in identity exploration (Arnett, 2000), and according to Arnett, work and career paths is one of the primary areas of identity exploration for many emerging adults. As such, this is a time period, where there are many opportunities for leadership development. For clarity, we use the term, *youth*, when referring to both adolescents and emerging adults in this study.

Despite numerous educational attempts, however, contemporary youth appear to be falling short of meeting adults' expectations for good leadership. There are several possible reasons for this. First, *leadership* has not been clearly defined. It has been argued that "there are almost as many different definitions of leadership as there are persons who have attempted to define it" (Bass, 1990, p. 11). Many observers admit that they cannot clearly articulate a definition of leadership (Rosch & Kuzel, 2010), but nonetheless know it when they see it (Shushok & Moore, 2010). As such, it is difficult to teach leadership and measure the effectiveness of youth leadership development when such consensus is lacking. Second, although adults may be quick note the lack of leadership skills among youth, scholars have highlighted the critical role of relationships with role models in leadership development (Astin, 1993; Dugan & Komives, 2010; Campbell, Smith, Dugan, & Komives, 2012; McNeill, 2010). As such, it is possible that how they have been mentored, who their role models are, and the characteristics of the role models contribute to youths' leadership deficiencies as highlighted by adults. At the same time, research which helps us to understand the process by which the role model-youth relationship influences leadership development among youth is limited. Finally, the vast majority of the leadership literature focuses on adults' perspectives of the need or why leadership development is important to youth futures. Less is known about youths' perspectives of the leadership growth process when, in fact, youths' voices may provide considerable insight into the ways in which adults can define, teach, and mentor youth to grow as outstanding leaders in their field. To address these gaps, we interviewed emerging adults about their perceptions of their own leadership development between adolescence and emerging adulthood, and how their role models aided their development. The purpose of this paper was to gain a better understanding of how emerging adults describe their own leadership growth and the processes by which role models facilitate or constrain their leadership development.

Leadership Development during the Transition to Adulthood

Research has shown that the development of leadership and team-oriented competencies can help adolescents and emerging adults to succeed in college, work, and professional work settings (Astin & Astin, 2000). At the same time, contemporary youth may not be receiving adequate training to help them in such roles. For example, research has shown rising rates of unemployment among this age group (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2010) and lower retention rates among first-generation college students (United States Department of Education, 2010). Moreover, employers wish universities spent more time educating their students on issues of problem-solving, relationship development, communication skills for teams, and ethical behavior (National Association of Colleges and Employers, 2013). In apparent response to the need for leadership education, more than 1,000 colleges and universities offer leadership education in some form (Riggio, Ciulla, & Sorensen, 2003), which is an increase of almost 50% compared to the mid-1990s (Schwartz, Axtman, & Freeman, 1998).

Leadership may not always be explicitly taught, yet the underlying purpose of educational systems (i.e., in high school and college) is to teach and train students for success in adult roles. *Success* in adolescence is often measured by academic achievements and school performances, and later in occupational attainment and earnings. As such, it is not surprising that, following a life course perspective, students in late adolescence (approximately 17-18 years old) and emerging adulthood adulthood (18-25 years old) are often the target population for leadership training programs as they are at pivotal points for establishing their own income and occupational trajectories. Yet, teaching adolescents and emerging adults to grow as leaders and become successful in adult roles requires an understanding of the developmental context.

Although post-industrial leadership facilitates collaboration, most formalized youth leadership development programs are developed based on adults' perspectives of what contemporary youth need. It is possible that adults or developers of leadership training programs are missing opportunities by not listening to youths' voices or analyzing discrepancies between youth and adults' perspectives. In fact, there is some preliminary evidence that college students do not think about leadership in post-industrial ways (Caza & Rosch, 2013). Many youth do not even recognize their own potential to employ leadership behaviors (Shertzer & Schuh, 2004). This potential discrepancy between popular models and youths' thought processes about leadership may be undermining the effects of leadership training. Given the gap between educational intent and student belief, it is not surprising that there have been many calls for institutions of higher education to re-think how they educate future leaders; current methods do not seem to be working (Astin & Astin, 2000; Caza & Rosch, 2013; Zimmerman-Oster & Burkhardt, 1999).

The leadership goals of youth and adults appear to be similar. Adults believe that youth need leadership skills to help them to be successful on work and career trajectories, and research indicates that individuals search for guidance during the transition to adulthood. At the same time, the fact that many adolescents and emerging adults fall short of adults' expectations for leadership or income and occupational achievements highlights a disconnect between what adults believe youth need and how youth *learn* leadership.

Teaching and Learning Leadership

Recent research strongly suggests that leadership behaviors can be learned (Avolio, Reichard, Hannah, Walumbwa, & Chan, 2009), indicating that individuals of all ages have the potential to listen, observe, and develop as leaders. Yet, such growth is often dependent on how individuals engage with learning opportunities within their environment over time (Komives, Longerbeam, Owen, Mainella, & Osteen, 2006). Komives and colleagues (2006), in developing a model of leadership identity development in college students, assert that individuals develop as leaders when they are in empowering environments, where adults and more experienced leaders allow space for youth to mature and practice new skills. They describe a six-stage model summarized as: 1) awareness (recognizing that leadership is happening), 2) exploration/engagement (seeking opportunities and exploring interests), 3) leader identified (viewing people in certain positions as leaders), 4) leadership differentiated (identifying the ways in which individuals' actions make him/her a leader), 5) generativity (looking beyond personal gain and wanting to make a difference), 6) integration/synthesis (defining themselves as leaders and having confidence in their own abilities). At each of these stages, Komives and colleagues highlighted the importance of role models in helping youth advance to the next stage. For example, in stage two (exploration/engagement), youths' reports of lessons, expectations, and affirmations by adult role models were highlighted as critical components in developing a personal identity that included a view of self as a potential leader of peers. Given these findings, youths' role models may play a significant role in whether or not the environments in which they live, work, or engage in leisure activities are empowering.

Leadership role models are individuals who might provide guidance and mentoring to adolescents and youth adults in the leadership growth process. Two types of role modeling that have been central in the leadership literature include psychosocial (instilling a sense of competence, fostering a healthy identity development, or providing guidance towards achievement in some capacity) and career (e.g., vocational coaching or job skills) (Daloz, 1999; Kram, 1985). Researchers have found significant relationships between students' leadership capacity and their ability to engage in a mentorship process with professionals on their campus (Campbell et al., 2012). At the same time, less is known about the qualities of role models that facilitate leadership development or the processes by which the relationship with the role model facilitates leadership development between adolescence and emerging adulthood.

Goals of the Present Study

The purpose of this study was to gain a better understanding of how and when relationships between youth and their role models influence the ways in which they grow as leaders between adolescence and emerging adulthood. Emerging adults can speak on their experiences as adolescents and discuss their leadership growth and the conditions which facilitated it between adolescence and emerging adulthood. To address the gaps in the literature, we employed qualitative, grounded theory research to address the following questions:

1) What are the processes by which the relationship between youth and their role models influence leadership development between adolescence and emerging adulthood?
2) What are the conditions which facilitate either the relationship, or the leadership growth process?

Method

To address these questions, data were collected through qualitative research, and the overall aim was to contribute to a comprehensive, grounded theory about role models, youth, and leadership development. The present research design was based on the work of Strauss and Corbin (1990), who assert that theory evolves from the data, research questions largely focus on process, and the research design becomes more focused throughout the data collection process. Grounded theorists believe that coding involves the proposition of categories and the various links between them, and a validation of the information through constant comparisons, thus "moving between inductive and deductive thinking" (Strauss & Corbin, 1990, p. 111). Through this process, researchers highlight concepts and group them into common categories and subcategories, or properties of the categories. Each of these stages of analysis are described in detail in this section.

Data Collection and Analysis

Data were collected from a diverse sample of emerging adults who were enrolled at a large, research-intensive university in the Midwestern United States. We chose to interview emerging adults who were in college so they could speak about leadership growth experiences during adolescence and the years in college that followed. Participants were involved by participating in interviews ($N = 23$) and completing member checks ($N = 11$) where they reviewed a four-paragraph summary of the results. Initial, open coding began immediately after the first interviews. Following Strauss and Corbin's (1998) grounded theory model, we used axial coding and selective coding to analyze each category further. Saturation occurred when we were confident that more interviews or information from the participants would not provide additional insights into the results of this study. This study involved simultaneous data collection and analysis.

Participant Recruitment. Participants were matriculated students at a research-extensive, large, public university in the Midwestern United States, and recruited through identifying classroom professors who hosted large class sessions that included a spread of students across all undergraduate class standings (freshman through senior). Invitation presentations were conducted within these classrooms. In addition, participants were recruited through a sign-up table located within the suite of offices at the university that housed registered student organizations. We conducted interviews with all students who volunteered to participate.

Data Management. All interviews were audio-taped and transcribed by a transcription company. The third author cross-checked the transcriptions and assigned each participant a pseudonym (that they chose); these pseudonyms were used in transcripts, memos, and written reports. All other identifying information was removed. All transcriptions were uploaded into NVivo, a software tool for managing qualitative data.

Sample Description

The college students ($N = 23$) who initially agreed to participate in initial interviews included freshman ($n = 3$), sophomores ($n = 6$), juniors ($n = 9$), and seniors ($n = 5$) from a variety of disciplines (i.e., biology, economics, engineering, business, psychology, food science, health, queer studies, secondary education, and environmental sustainability). The study consisted of young women ($n = 11$) and men ($n = 12$) who were largely U.S. citizens ($n = 18$), but also included five who identified as international students. Of those that were U.S. citizens, the majority identified as Caucasian (*n* = 13), but also included students who identified as Asian American (*n* = 4) and African-American (*n* = 1).

Stages of Analysis. The 60-120 minute interviews were appropriate for the grounded theory methodology proposed here as they allow for rich insight, discovery, and flexibility at the same time. In general, it is recommended that 20-30 participants are required for interviews in a grounded theory study (Creswell, 2005; Onweugbuzie & Leech, 2007) although the sample in this study relied on theoretical saturation.

Questions that we asked participants focused on how they grew as leaders (e.g., Describe the role that others have had in your own leadership growth), their motivation to lead (e.g., How are you motivated to lead compared to your friends or others you know?), and the qualities of good or bad leaders that influenced them (e.g., Identify someone who you believe is a good leader and describe why you believe that individual is a good leader). Initial, open coding began immediately after the first interviews. In addition, the interviewer wrote memos after each interview that included observations, potential bias, and ideas about the interview and interviewee.

Data collection, memo writing, and coding occurred simultaneously. The first and third authors were involved in the flexible open coding that occurred during initial analysis of interviews. The second author provided feedback and assisted coders with coming to agreements on categories and definitions when there were discrepancies. Then, the categories that emerged and their definitions, allowed for *axial coding*, which began after we had completed ten interviews. Axial coding is a detailed form of coding, which allows researchers to analyze phenomena that arise from open coding and provide a conceptual explanation for some process surrounding the phenomena; with axial coding, "the grounded theorist selects one open coding category, positions it at the center of the process being explored (as the core phenomenon, and then relates other categories to it" (Creswell, 2005, p. 298). Following Strauss and Corbin's (1990) model, we used axial coding to link multiple categories and subcategories that were identified during open coding, labeling possible causal conditions (events that lead to the development of the phenomenon), context (set of properties that pertain to the phenomenon), intervening conditions (condition that facilitate or constrain action strategies), action/interaction strategies (devised to respond to a phenomenon), and consequences (outcomes) that surrounded each phenomenon. The axial coding stage is where the researcher begins to analyze the process, discovering a paradigm model. In this study, we identified links between emerging adults' backgrounds, experiences with role models, and how they grew (or do not) as leaders. For an example of our initial categories, see Table 2.

Table 2
Example of an Initial Axial Coding Table during Coding for this Study

Term	Leadership Study
Causal Conditions	**Youths' role models define success and leadership** and the opportunities that will help emerging adults to achieve success and leadership
Phenomenon	**Youth are influenced by *relational* and or *positional* role models**
Context	The number of role models emerging adults are influenced by; **opportunities for involvement**; number of people they are competing with; **college status** (e.g., freshman, sophomore, junior, senior), **knowledge and experience of role models**—what their role models know (or knowledge of role models) and the experiences of their role models, who their role models are and what they stand for
Intervening Conditions	Role models define leadership and success, and they display **good or bad interpersonal skills, character traits, work ethic, risk-taking behaviors, control, or ethics, and youth find them credible or not based on these characteristics**
Action/Interaction	Youth are **motivated by role models they believe are credible** and or they **experience barriers because of their role models' actions, characteristics, interpersonal skills, work ethic, risk taking behaviors, control, or ethics**
Consequences	Youth **grow as leaders;** those that had leaders who inspired them with good characteristics experience the most positive changes in thoughts and actions related to leadership or gain confidence in their own leadership skills and recognize leadership as a process; those that experienced the most **barriers** with role models were not motivated to change or did not understand how

Then, we continued open and axial coding, but also began selective coding, including more details and validating or discounting cases. Finally, we conducted formal member checks, at which time participants who responded to the third authors' emails (n = 11) clicked on the link to review a four-paragraph summary of our analysis. Researchers believe that the quality of the data improves through member checking process; even if participants disagree with the initial report of research findings, it "can enhance your understanding of their perspectives (Taylor & Bogdan, 1998, p. 159).

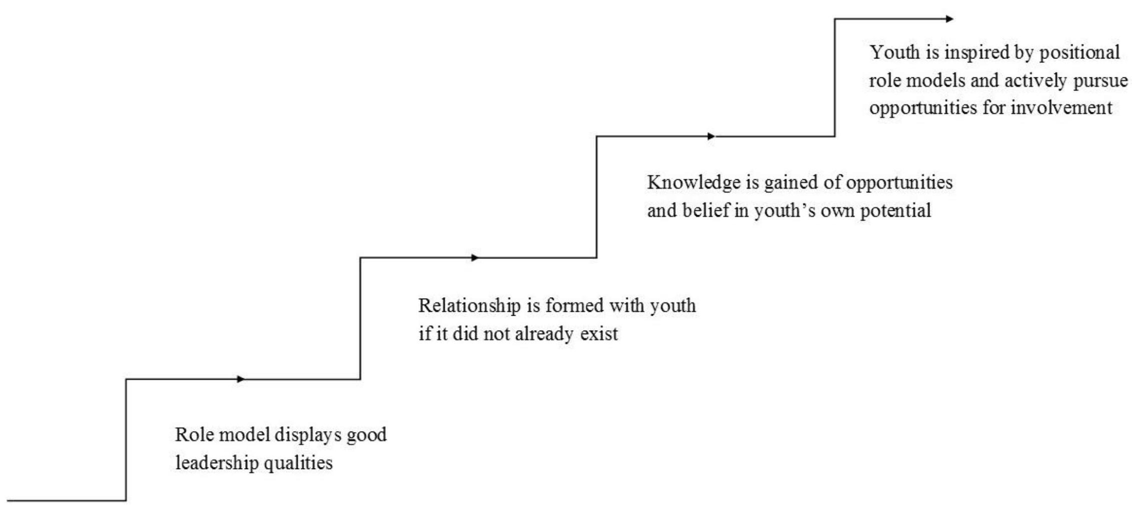
Results

Our central research questions were designed for us to gain a better understanding of the processes by which the relationship between youth and their role models influenced their leadership development, specifically that which occurred between adolescence and emerging adulthood. Further, we wanted to explore the conditions which facilitated either the relationship itself or the leadership growth process. We include participants' quotes from the interviews and member checks in this section to provide examples of how the categories and subcategories were derived through the analysis. First, we present a conceptual model which emerged from the data that depicts the ways in which role models influenced leadership development between adolescence and emerging adulthood.

A Role Model Contingent Framework for Youth Leadership Development

The data revealed that their role models influenced how participants defined leadership and success, their knowledge of growth opportunities, their individual awareness of their potential to become leaders, how they are inspired to become leaders, their pursuit of opportunities, and their levels of involvement. The analysis provided insight into the ways in which relational role models (i.e., parents, friends, family, or high schools teachers, coaches, professors, or other mentors with which they have a personal relationship) provided the foundation for their leadership development by displaying good leadership qualities. Once the relationship was formed, relational role models helped youth by providing them with knowledge of opportunities for leadership development, as well as a belief in their own potential as leaders. As participants became knowledgeable and believed in their own potential, they got involved in leadership roles and were often inspired by positional role models (i.e., college professors; institutional, organizational, community, and world leaders that they learn from but do not necessarily have a relationship with). See Figure 1 for a graphic representation of the nature of participants' leadership growth.

Figure 1
A Role Model Contingent Framework for Youth Leadership Development



Role model displays good leadership qualities. According to participants, they trusted, respected, learned and listened most to role models who displayed professional work ethic (e.g., initiative, drive, persistence), good interpersonal skills (e.g., communicating with confidence, listening), and positive character traits (e.g., respectful, responsible, positive attitude, tolerant). Although some participants viewed role models' "weaknesses as a learning opportunity" (Britney), many acknowledged getting frustrated and discouraged by role models who did not exhibit qualities that youth perceive to be those representative of good leadership. Ben said that he and others his age often "struggle with role models who lack certain characteristics [because] we want someone who can influence us to be better than who we already are." Thus, the personal qualities that the role model employs are critical to the formation of the influence relationship. These qualities are, in essence, what makes role models credible and thus, trustworthy leaders through the eyes of youth. Eve said it best when she stated, "if role models want successful young adults, they must realize their success is a reflection of their guidance." Successful guidance, from the perspective of these emerging adults, was most often felt through the display of professional work ethic, strong interpersonal skills, and positive character traits.

Professional work ethic. Professional work ethic was the most commonly coded subcategory within relational role models' qualities. Many participants' echoed Ingrid who stated, "Nobody will be inspired by someone who has no work ethic or professional skills, so I don't think these types of people will be role models in the first place." Hana said, "Anyone can be complacent, not showing any initiative, working hard, etc…no one admires this because it's often in the natural state. However, when we see what can be accomplished with good work ethic, […] people want to work equally hard." Many participants viewed hard work and initiative as minimal requirements of a good leader. Participants said, "as a leader you have to take on…you're willing to take on more responsibilities" (Allison), "show more involvement" (Britney), "take initiative" (Cassie), and "take on more than the rest, have your workload be a little bit more" (Peter).

Interpersonal skills. Participants in this study also discussed interpersonal skills when asked to think about someone they know and what makes them a good leader. For example, Cassie stated that individuals trust leaders who are empathetic, such as those who are able to problem solve, as well as "read a group and know how they work" and listen to their ideas. She emphasized the importance of knowing your audience and being able to adapt. Similarly, Abe said that "being charismatic…and working well with people" in addition to "being empathetic and seeing [things] through your subordinates eyes" is important. Listening skills played a key role for participants. For example, Peter stated that one of his role models was "always trying to listen to people, not just say what's on his mind. He'll listen first, absorb what they're trying to say, and then say something back." And apparently, if they were willing to listen, role models were more likely to be listened to. Having good interpersonal skills helped youth to trust their role models and others whom they viewed as leaders.

Positive character traits. There were several character traits that participants discussed as important to the formation of the relationship between youth and role models. For example, good leaders "have positive personalities" (Gail), "have respect for us" (Ben), "consider themselves equal to the people they're leading, but just have to take more responsibility" (Cassie), and "cover everyone equally" (Ben). Some of the character traits were mentioned because they were motivated by a role model who displayed such traits. For example, Gail was inspired by a high school teacher who influenced her students to do their best. She said this teacher was confident and listened, but she was also positive and respectful to all people and subsequently, people turned to her when they had a problem. Youth may fear rejection and thus, a role model with a positive attitude may help increase comfort and confidence when deciding to approach them. Ingrid said, "It is important to have a mentor who you can go to for help when you are feeling discouraged, and that person should be someone who has a positive attitude and will help you get back on track."

Eve said,

> if students receive positive feedback from someone they trust, they'll thrive. And if you work very hard with a role model, but they're negative or don't acknowledge your work, you feel very dejected and are probably less likely to perform at your full aptitude from that point forward."

Again, many participants also respected mentors who lead by example. If their role models, for example, considered it a sign of disrespect to be late for a class, they expected the teacher or professor to give them the same respect. For example, Ben said that if a class started at 8:30 and the professor expects everyone to be there by 8:30 (if not before), then, he/she should not come walking in at 8:35.

Such focus on respect was evident in each discussion with participants who mentioned this as an important leadership quality. Sometimes, respect was earned by giving it and other times, participants discussed the respect they had for role models who displayed other positive character traits, such as positivity and tolerance. Regardless, being respectful and earning it enabled an influence relationship to be created between youth and their role models.

The foundations that the relational role models provided for participants' leadership development were often indirect, such that they did not say, "here's how to be a leader." Instead, they modeled characteristics that, combined with a foundation of positive influence, led youth to incorporate learned values and behaviors. For example, Hanamailto:eunison824@gmail.com said, "While they [my parents] did not directly inspire me to be a leader, they did teach me to behave positively and to work hard."

Relationship is formed. As the role model displayed good leadership qualities, a relationship between the role model and the participants in this study was formed. Indeed, this data revealed the significance of a personal relationship between youth and their role models in boosting their leadership development. For example, Ingridmailto:aggattone8@gmail.com said, "I don't personally learn well from people who I am not closely connected to…mentors who I have close relationships with have shaped me and influenced my motivation and goals." Many other participants in this study echoed Britney's comments. She stated,

> I would not have grown as a leader if I wasn't encouraged by my own teachers, friends' parents, and my own parents. Their belief in me as a leader also helped them provide me with more opportunities to develop as a leader.

The data revealed that like, Britney, youth had developed close relationships with parents, family members, teachers, or other adults that they considered role models who had provided the foundation for their leadership abilities. For example, Jakemailto:jredding90@gmail.com talked about his dad and said, "my father was by far the biggest influence on my leadership development." Others, such as Britney, Abe, and Cassie described high school teachers or coaches as role models who they had an influential relationship with. Some participants mentioned relational role models they had had in college (e. g., professors or those who were officers of a student organization they were involved in). For example, Curt discussed being influenced by a friend, who had more leadership experience as the leadership chair for a University service fraternity for which he was involved. The relationship with the role model(s) facilitated youths' knowledge of leadership qualities, opportunities, and their belief in their own abilities to follow suit.

Knowledge is gained of opportunities and belief in their own potential. For participants to learn about opportunities and believe in their own potential as leaders, they had at least one (and sometimes many) relational role models who facilitated such knowledge and beliefs. For example, Hana said, "my greatest time of growth was when I surrounded myself with people whom I considered to be good leaders. These people motivated me, helped me find my intrinsic motivation, and encouraged me to keep up with them." As such, participants' knowledge of opportunities and belief in their own potential flourished or was constrained by a variety of individual and contextual factors (e.g., ethnicity, gender, where they grew up, their college status). For example, Mike said, "If one is a minority, then he has the stigma engrained into him from birth that he must work harder than others to prove himself. That is how it was for me." Although some participants considered themselves advantaged because they were a part of a dominant group, they acknowledged stereotypes that might make it difficult for others. For example, Ben who grew up in a rural area said most of his role models were men. He said, "When I was younger, I can remember thinking about who would be considered 'in charge' and it was always a male." As such, Ben's capacity for leadership may have been influenced by social policies which encouraged him as a young man, and it is possible that his female peers may not have been encouraged in the same manner.

Although some participants had opportunities to be influenced by a number of relational role models, others persevered because they had just one relational role model who inspired their knowledge of opportunities and belief in their own potential. For example, Gail was raised by a single mother or immigrated to the United States and did not have a college education and thus, experienced barriers to leadership development surrounding class and family structure. She was a first generation college student and although she viewed her mother as a role model, the knowledge that her mother could provide about leadership opportunities was limited. Yet, she went on to pursue college and leadership opportunities at college because she had a cousin who went to optometry school. Her career path modeled that of her cousin's and she said he gave her hope that she was capable and she was "impressed and motivated by his success and hard work."

Indeed, the data revealed that participant's awareness of leadership opportunities and their own potential were often dependent on the intersection between their relational role models and individual and contextual factors. It was often the case that the knowledge and beliefs of the role models in a given culture or area influenced participants own knowledge and beliefs. Even those that did not discuss their own advantages or disadvantages with respect to knowledge of opportunities and belief in their own potential, they described their perceptions of how such differences influenced others' leadership growth. For example, Eve said,

> Everyone likes to hear a good success story because it makes them feel less guilty about the huge gap in educational quality and opportunities for those of less privileged genders, races, and socio-economic backgrounds. I don't think less privileged kids are any less inspired by their own personal leadership role models. But, the quality of that role model greatly varies from demographic to demographic.

Youth is inspired by positional role models and actively pursue opportunities. Although the relational role models with good leadership qualities facilitated participants' knowledge and beliefs, the data in this study revealed that to grow, youth become inspired by positional role models as they actively pursue opportunities for involvement. Jakemailto:Jredding90@gmail.com articulated this when asked specifically about differences between his relational and positional role models. He said,

> I think that relational role models have the greater impact on our willingness and ability to serve as a leader, but positional role models provide the inspiration for us to strive for higher levels of leadership and greater levels of success within our positions."

Some participants believed that their transition from learning from relational models to closely observing positional role models occurs over time and possibly, with age. In essence, their relational models were still considered important influences, but less so as they "grow out" of them or observe positional role models more closely aligned with their aspirations in life. For example, Evemailto:pdhillo2@illinois.edu said,

> Growing up, I always idolized my teachers and parents. But when you get older, you realize that they're a little out of touch and their magic fades. By the time I was 18, I think all of my major sources of inspiration were people that I had never met. While I do look up to my parents , teachers, and professors for advice and guidance, I don't look to them for leadership inspiration. They will always be a great tool in getting leadership advice, but in terms of the people that I would want to mold my personal leadership trajectory off of, I would look up more to Barack Obama, Hillary Clinton, and other people that were once normal and unimportant like me. That's way more inspiring than my parents telling me that I'm great."

In summary, the data revealed that the relationship between youth and their relational role models provided the foundation for their growth. The relationship development and its influence on participants' leadership growth was facilitated by the qualities that the role models exhibited (i.e., professional work ethic, interpersonal skills, and positive character traits). Once participants learned of opportunities to get involved and believed in their own potential, they actively pursued opportunities to get involved. As they got more involved, many participants were also inspired by positional role models, who had qualities, behaviors, or outcomes that they believed extended the capabilities of their relational role models. As such, the relationships that youth have with role models helped to define leadership and success and set the stage for further development. From there, leadership skills are "continuously evolving" (Britney).

Discussion

Our study focused on youth leadership growth processes and the relationship between youth and their role models in facilitating leadership development between adolescence and emerging adulthood. We interviewed emerging adults who described their leadership growth between adolescence and emerging adulthood. A role-model contingent framework for youth leadership development emerged from data that distinguishes between the influence of role models with whom the youth have developed a relationship and the role models that youth learn from by observation or through positions which they hold. According to the emerging adult participants, relational role models seem to provide a foundation of confidence within the youth, and aid in recognizing the potential for engagement in student or service organizations. Once such a foundation is created, inspiration from positional role models may then provide energy and momentum towards increased engagement and growth beyond what relational role models often provide. Perhaps most critical to the youth-role model relationship is the positive leadership behaviors and traits possessed by relational role models. Indeed, these findings indicate that youth learn best from and listen to role models who display positive characteristics (i.e., professional work ethic, interpersonal skills, and positive character traits), and the positive leadership qualities exhibited by these role models provide the foundation for the youth-role model relationship.

Implications

The findings from this study possess several important implications for those involved in youth development programs, including how staff, faculty, interns, coaches, or volunteers are trained, guided, and evaluated by the organizations in which they work and volunteer. The positive leadership qualities displayed by individuals who are in positions to lead youth are a key to the youth-role model relationship and subsequently, youth leadership development. Our findings indicate that adults in positions of influence who lack initiative, interpersonal skills, and positive character traits may impede youth's knowledge of opportunities, or their confidence to try out various leadership positions. Many adults have mistakenly characterized the majority of adolescents and or emerging adults as "suffering, selfish, slackers" with a sense of entitlement (Arnett, 2007; Sacred Heart University, 2006). Yet, the interviews with youth indicate that youth are critical of adults who display some of these very characteristics. As such, it is important for adults to display positive leadership qualities that that wish to see in youth before youth will learn to develop as leaders with those qualities. Developmental scholars have found that the development of initiative plays a critical role in positive youth development, and opportunities for such growth often occur in the context of organized youth activities or school (Larson, 2000). Larson believes that within these contexts, youth learn when they experience a combination of intrinsic motivation and concentration. It is possible that the qualities displayed by role models with whom they could potentially have a relationship can facilitate or constrain their initiative, intrinsic motivation, and ability to pay attention. This could be tested in quantitative studies that examine the association between role model characteristics and the youth-role model relationship. Our research suggests that many adolescents have opportunities to interact with older peers, parents, teachers, coaches, or others who could be relational role models to them, supporting their leadership growth. Similarly, emerging adults learn from relational role models they meet through work, college, or organizational involvement. As such, if adults who are in positions to lead or interact with youth wish to create a culture in which youth develop leadership skills, such as professional work ethic (e.g., where initiative is important), they should, first, look at the example they are setting for their future leaders of their communities and nations.

As scholars, communities, schools, and universities call for more leadership training initiatives, the results of this study have implications for structures of accountability and measurement of student achievement and potential for success in secondary and higher education. Leadership and developmental scholars assert that the contemporary work force requires skills such as collaboration, strategic thinking, organizational, and other skills that are not measured in a way that influence youths' work or college pathways as they do in many westernized countries (Larson et al., 2002; Lipman-Bluman, 1996). If youth are expected to exhibit good leadership qualities and such qualities often dictate their ability to obtain or maintain employment, perhaps evidence of the development of leadership skills could be utilized more explicitly as measures of potential future success.

Our study participants repeatedly mentioned that role models that proved influential to them were those that took to time to listen, who displayed the behaviors they themselves sought to teach, and who worked diligently at their own tasks. Youth development organizations with structured training programs for adult volunteers and employees may increase their effectiveness through explicit training in these areas. Academic and advising programs may similarly increase their long-term impact through advising manuals and training programs that make explicit mention of these skills.

Limitations

Although we are able to provide a role model contingent framework for youth leadership development and several implications based on our work with emerging adults, our study was not without limitations. Our grounded theory was based on the values and beliefs of the 23 emerging adults who participated, and while this group was diverse, it is not necessarily representative of the broad demographic of emerging adults in contemporary society. Quantitative measures should be developed to test our theory for generalizability. Moreover, the analysis of interviews revealed that many youth begin to grow as leaders through their relationship with relational role models in high school. Future research should examine the role model-contingent leadership framework, following youth through elementary, high school, and college. Although exploratory, our findings surrounding individual and contextual diversity in leadership growth indicate that youth who are disadvantaged may have fewer opportunities to establish relationships with role models, and our data is informed by college students who have already succeeded in some ways by simply being enrolled in an institution of higher education. As such, future research should examine the role model-contingent framework and the influence of youth-role model relationships on non-university populations.

Conclusion

This research provides an understanding of youth leadership growth processes and contributes to the developmental and leadership literature by highlighting the ways that role models influenced leadership development for the emerging adults in this study. Our analysis resulted in a role model contingent framework for the leadership growth process between adolescence and emerging adulthood, emphasizing the importance of relational role models in youths' knowledge of opportunities and belief in their potential and positional role models in inspiring youth to actively pursue opportunities that enhance their leadership growth. This research can be used in future efforts involving leadership training for emerging adults, as well as adults that work with youth to ensure more congruity between employers' and other adults' expectations and emerging adults' knowledge, attitudes and behaviors surrounding leadership.

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Exploring Instructional and Assessment Strategy Use in Online Leadership Education

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Abstract

This research explores the instructional and assessment strategies used most often by leadership educators who teach online, academic credit-bearing leadership studies courses at graduate- and undergraduate-levels. Findings from this study suggest that discussion-based pedagogies, most commonly facilitated in online discussion boards, dominate both areas. Reflection, case studies, and group or individual projects were also used frequently.

Introduction

Since 2000, only a few studies have explored instructional or assessment strategy use in leadership education (e.g., Allen & Hartman, 2009; Eich, 2008; Jenkins 2012 & 2013). While these studies addressed learning in face-to-face environments, there is little research related to online teaching and learning environments in leadership education. Moreover, prior studies have been void of leadership educators who teach online or graduate-level courses, or those based outside the United States. Yet, according to the International Leadership Association (ILA) Directory of Leadership Programs, of the more than 1,500 leadership programs that exist today, more than half offer blended or online courses and over 100 are based outside the U.S.!

Despite the interest in leadership education and the vast growth of distance learning (Phelps, 2012), the sparse few studies that have looked at instructional or assessment strategy use have been limited chiefly to face-to-face, undergraduate, and U.S.-based studies. In fact, almost no research exists in regard to leadership educators teaching online leadership studies courses. To address this overlooked question, this study specifically targeted instructors that teach academic credit-bearing online courses through a global survey.

Purpose and Significance of the Study

The purpose of this study was to explore the instructional and assessment strategy use of leadership educators who teach fully online courses at the undergraduate or graduate level. A quantitative research design was used. Specifically, an international web-based questionnaire was used to measure the frequency of use of a defined group of instructional and assessment strategies by instructors who teach online leadership studies courses. To do so, the researcher explored the following research questions:

1. What are the most frequently employed instructional strategies used by instructors teaching fully online undergraduate- or graduate-level leadership studies courses?
2. With respect to frequency of instructional strategy use, what differences are there between instructors teaching undergraduate- and graduate-level online leadership studies courses?
3. What assessment strategies do instructors teaching fully online undergraduate- or graduate-level leadership studies give the most weight in overall grading?

Literature Review

With the current state and growth of leadership studies as well as the development of online leadership education, the need for research exploring the various strategies for online teaching and learning in the discipline has never been greater. And while there is very little discussion of online instructional strategy use in leadership education specifically, the literature exploring online pedagogy generally offers cogent descriptions of the most salient practices (e.g., Bonk & Zhang, 2008; Salmon, 2002). Further, while the quality or use of specific instructional strategies in leadership education has only very recently been explored empirically (see Jenkins, 2012 & 2013), the use of instructional strategies such as reflection (Burbach, Matkin, & Fritz, 2004; Densten & Gray, 2001; White, 2012), service learning (Scharff, 2009; Seemiller, 2006), teambuilding (Moorhead & Griffin, 2010), research leadership (Jones & Kilburn, 2005), critical thinking (Gifford, 2010; Jenkins & Cutchens, 2011), feedback (Day, 2000), self- assessments (Buschlen, 2009), role-play (Jenkins & Cutchens, 2012; Sogurno, 2003), simulation (Allen, 2008), exams (Moore, 2010), and the case-in-point approach (Parks, 2005) have been marginally explored individually. In "Leadership Online: Exploring the Horizon," Phelps (2012) explored a variety of technologies and provided suggestions on how to best leverage them for maximum student engagement in leadership education. Yet, amid all the conversations and research related to leadership education, there is little, if any, mention of effective pedagogical incorporation of technology. Only a few studies have explored instructional strategy use in online leadership education generally (e.g., Boyd & Murphrey, 2001; Cini, 1998; McCotter, 2008; Newberry, Culbertson, & Carter, 2013; Phelps, 2012; and Saks, 2009) or with respect to specific online or web-based instructional techniques such as discussion boards (Dollisso, 2011), blogs (Gifford, 2010; Giraud, Cain, Stedman, & Gifford, 2011), service learning (Guthrie & McCracken, 2010), social media (Odom, Jarvis, Sandlin & Peek, 2013; Steves, Keen, Hooker, Keane, Needles, & Fuess, 2011), simulation (Weeks, 2013), and even book reviews (Moore, 2008).

To explore the research questions stated in the section above within the framework of distance learning and leadership education, a list of commonly utilized instructional and assessment strategies used in both forums was created. The selection of online instructional strategies was informed by the empirical studies of Djajalaksana (2011; see also Fletcher, Djajalaksana, & Eison, 2012; Djajalaksana, Dedrick, & Eison, 2013) as well as the work of Salmon (2002), Bonk, Graham, Cross, and Moore (2005), and Bonk and Zhang (2008), all of whom published extensive guidebooks on online learning in educational settings. Additionally, studies by Allen and Hartman (2008a, 2009b, & 2009), who created one of the first comprehensive lists of leadership development teaching methods found in the literature (see also Avolio, 1999; Day, 2000; London, 2002; Yukl, 2006) and later, Jenkins (2012 & 2013) explored empirically instructional strategy use of undergraduate leadership educators, also informed extensively the list of instructional strategies surveyed (see Table A1). The selection of assessment strategies was informed by many of the aforementioned scholars and practitioners who included data or resources on assessment techniques in higher or leadership education as well (see Table A2). In the end, final selection for inclusion in this study was based on a combination of recommendations from a panel of experts, tested in a pilot study, a review of the literature, and the researcher's expertise and experience. Admittedly, all instructional and assessment methods have their pros and cons. Indeed, because learning leadership and developing leadership skills may be different than learning other content in a traditional classroom setting, leadership education may need different strategies for facilitating learning (Eich, 2008; Komives, Lucas, & McMahon, 2007; Wren, 1995). Accordingly, leadership education requires its own examination to determine how effective teaching and learning of leadership is done.

Method

Participants

The participants were 118—81 graduate-level and 37 undergraduate-level—instructor participants who teach academic credit-bearing online leadership studies courses. This is the largest reported study of these populations to date. Participants self-reported having taught an academic credit-bearing course within the previous two years. This initial question determined the eligibility of participants and a second follow-up questions asked participants to select a delivery method option for the type of leadership course they taught most frequently. In the study reported here, only participants who selected the following are included: (a) Undergraduate-level, online (100% web-based); and (b) Graduate-level, online (100%) web-based. Participants were then asked to identify one specific academic credit-bearing course that met the delivery method option from the previous question, to type the name of that course in a textbox, and to use that course as a reference point when completing the survey.

The analyzed data was collected from a web-based questionnaire through an international study that targeted thousands of leadership studies instructors through three primary sources from March 31, 2013, through May 3, 2013. The first source was the organizational memberships or databases of the following professional associations/organizations or their respective member interest groups: (a) the ILA; (b) the Association of Leadership Educators (ALE); (c) NASPA (Student Affairs Professionals in Higher Education) Student Leadership Programs Knowledge Community (SLPKC); and (d) the National Clearinghouse for Leadership Programs (NCLP). The second source was the attendee list of the 2012 Leadership Educators Institute (LEI), an innovative bi-annual conference-like forum geared specifically towards new to mid-level student affairs professionals and leadership educators who coordinate, shape, and evaluate leadership courses and programs, create co-curricular leadership development opportunities and experiment with new technologies for doing so. The third source was a random sample of instructors drawn from the ILA Directory of Leadership Programs, a searchable directory of leadership programs available to all ILA members.

While the first and second sources were more so "shotgun approaches," they were also more likely to have ideal participants as members or attendees. While the ILA member database, ILA Directory of Leadership Programs, and LEI Attendee list provided access to members or attendees respectively, the researcher did not have access to the individual e-mails for the NASPA SLPKC, ALE, and NCLP groups. And, while the latter did send out invitation e-mails to participate in this study's survey to their respective listservs, return rates are not available due to the undisclosed number of recipients. Nonetheless, the return rates for the ILA member directory (12.57%), ILA Directory of Leadership programs (11.25%) and LEI (25.08%) were promising. Overall, these data collection procedures provided the researcher with the best possible sources to generalize the population.

The participants in this study—those who reported teaching academic, credit-bearing online undergraduate- or graduate-level leadership studies courses in the last two years—were mostly white (87.0%), female (52.2%), and taught at an institution located in the United States (94.9%). Also, 77.4% had doctorates, 49.1% reported having more than five years experience teaching leadership courses, and 36.4% reported having earned their terminal degree in leadership or organizational leadership.

Participants' primary activity at their institutions was as full-time (40.9%) or part-time (24.3%) faculty. Less than 8% of participants reported their principal activity as full-time staff. Additionally, the institution type of participants was primarily two-year private colleges (44.3%), two-year public or community colleges (23.6%), or four-year public universities (14.2%). In all, the academic college delivering the online leadership courses taught by the participants was usually Business or Management (16.1%), Education (11.0%), or Arts and Sciences (6.8%). The specific academic department offering these courses was most often Leadership (21.2%), Business (7.6%), or Political Science (5.1%). While only 36.5% of participants reported any post-baccalaureate focus on the study of higher education, college teaching, college student development, or a closely related field, 80.9% reported that their post-baccalaureate studies did include significant coursework on leadership theory or development. Relatedly, 22.9% of participants reported completing undergraduate-level leadership coursework, while 81.4% reported the same at the graduate-level.

Type of Research Data

The analyzed data was collected from a web-based questionnaire through an international study. The questionnaire format of the web-based survey in this study implemented as many principles from Andres (2012), Evans and Mathur (2005), Dillman, Tortora, and Barker (1999) as possible. The questionnaire was modeled after the approach used by Jenkins (2012 & 2013) to collect data identifying the most frequently used instructional strategies for teaching face-to-face leadership studies courses to undergraduates. In this study, the survey instrument was used to collect demographic information to profile the participants and identify the most frequently used instructional and assessment strategies for teaching online leadership courses. As noted above, the 20 instructional strategies and 17 assessment strategies were derived chiefly from Jenkins' (2012 & 2013) study, Allen and Hartman's Sources of Learning in Collegiate Leadership Development Programs (2008a, 2009b, & 2009), and empirical studies by Djajalaksana (e.g., Fletcher, Djajalaksana, & Eison, 2012) as well as Salmon (2002), Bonk, Graham, Cross, and Moore (2005), and Bonk and Zhang (2008), all of whom published extensive guidebooks on online learning in educational settings. Finally, selection for inclusion in this study was based on a combination of recommendations from a panel of experts, tested in a pilot study, a review of the literature, and the researcher's expertise and experience.

Data Analysis Techniques

Answering research questions one and two involved creating a frequency tabulation and percentage of responses for the items on the survey that looked at instructional and assessment strategy use. Descriptive statistics were used to analyze the means and confidence intervals of the item responses indicating frequency of instructional strategy use as well as the overall percentages of assessment strategy use. Participants were asked to describe their frequency of use of the list of instructional strategies listed in Table A1. Since online courses do not have "class meetings" per se, the survey was designed to report frequency of use of each strategy using the following rating scale:

- 1 – Never
- 2 – Rarely
- 3 – Occasionally
- 4 – Frequently
- 5 – Always Always/Always

The rating scale for assessment strategy use was designed to capture the overall weight instructors placed on each strategy with respect to students' overall grades in their courses. Accordingly, participants reported the level of toward a student's final grade each assessment strategy was given in their courses using the following rating scale:

- 0%, I do not use this type of assessment in my course
- 1-10%
- 11-20%
- 21-30%
- 31-40%
- 41-50%
- 51% or more

Subsequent survey questions asked participants to identify the three instructional and three assessment strategies they used most frequently in their course. These questions included the same 20 instructional and 17 assessment strategies from the previous questions, but also included an "other" field in which participants could add additional strategies. No "other" strategies appeared more than once. Tables B1 and B2 illustrate the instructional and assessment strategies participants reported in their "Top 3."

Answering research question three—the comparison between the instructors who taught undergraduate- versus graduate-level courses—involved statistical analysis using independent *t*-tests using advanced statistical software. The analysis compared the means of responses of the frequency of use of the instructional and assessment strategies from the two groups of instructors. Additional discussion also includes Cohen's *d* statistics for the two group comparisons.

Table 1
Instructional Strategy Use

Instructional Strategy	All Online (*N* = 118)		Graduate Online (*N* = 81)		UG Online (*N* = 37)	
	M (SD)	95% CI	*M (SD)*	95% CI	*M (SD)*	95% CI
Discussion Boards: Shared Instructor-Student	4.32 (1.16)	[4.11, 4.53]	4.38 (1.14)	[4.13, 4.63]	4.19 (1.22)	[3.80, 4.58]
Discussion Boards: Instructor-lead	4.10 (1.34)	[3.86, 4.34]	4.09 (1.33)	[3.80, 4.38]	4.14 (1.38)	[3.70, 4.58]
Group Discussion	3.47 (1.52)	[3.2, 3.74]	3.48 (1.51)	[3.15, 3.81]	3.46 (1.56)	[2.96, 3.96]
Self-Assessments & Instruments	3.38 (1.40)	[3.13, 3.63]	3.32 (1.40)	[3.02, 3.62]	3.51 (1.41)	[3.06, 3.96]
Case Studies	3.32 (1.25)	[3.09, 3.55]	3.23 (1.22)	[2.96, 3.50]	3.51 (1.33)	[3.08, 3.94]
Media Clips	3.32 (1.19)	[3.11, 3.53]	3.35 (1.16)	[3.10, 3.60]	3.27 (1.26)	[2.86, 3.68]
Reflective Journals/Blogs	3.32 (1.57)	[3.04, 3.6]	3.42 (1.51)	[3.09, 3.75]	3.11 (1.70)	[2.56, 3.66]
Student Questions/Activities	3.30 (1.60)	[3.01, 3.59]	3.28 (1.59)	[2.93, 3.63]	3.32 (1.65)	[2.79, 3.85]
Discussion Boards: Student-lead	3.29 (1.55)	[3.01, 3.57]	3.37 (1.54)	[3.03, 3.71]	3.11 (1.58)	[2.60, 3.62]
Interactive Presentation	3.09 (1.43)	[2.83, 3.35]	3.07 (1.43)	[2.76, 3.38]	3.14 (1.44)	[2.68, 3.60]
Problem-based Learning	3.08 (1.37)	[2.83, 3.33]	3.14 (1.34)	[2.85, 3.43]	2.97 (1.46)	[2.50, 3.44]
Online Lecture	3.03 (1.60)	[2.74, 3.32]	3.10 (1.59)	[2.75, 3.45]	2.86 (1.64)	[2.33, 3.39]
Online Collaborative Project	2.78 (1.46)	[2.52, 3.04]	2.83 (1.42)	[2.52, 3.14]	2.68 (1.56)	[2.18, 3.18]
Student-Peer Evaluation	2.47 (1.43)	[2.21, 2.73]	2.48 (1.40)	[2.18, 2.78]	2.43 (1.52)	[1.94, 2.92]
Online Formative Quizzes	2.26 (1.46)	[2, 2.52]	1.93 (1.26)	[1.93, 1.26]	3.00 (1.60)	[2.48, 3.52]
Online Debates	2.21 (1.36)	[1.96, 2.46]	2.17 (1.32)	[2.17, 1.32]	2.30 (1.45)	[1.83, 2.77]
Class Polling and Surveys	2.16 (1.09)	[1.96, 2.36]	2.19 (1.12)	[1.95, 2.43]	2.11 (1.02)	[1.78, 2.44]
Computer-based Learning	2.10 (1.24)	[1.88, 2.23]	2.02 (1.17)	[1.77, 2.27]	2.27 (1.39)	[1.82, 2.72]
Social Networking	1.96 (1.14)	[1.75, 2.17]	1.95 (1.09)	[1.71, 2.19]	1.97 (1.26)	[1.56, 2.38]
Scavenger Hunts	1.51 (0.90)	[1.35, 1.67]	1.42 (0.77)	[1.25, 1.59]	1.70 (1.13)	[1.34, 2.06]

Note: UG = Undergraduate

Table 2
Instructional Strategy Use Differences between Instructors Who Teach Online Undergraduate- and Graduate Level Leadership Studies Courses

		Graduate		Undergraduate					
Rank	Instructional Strategy	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*df*	*t*	*p*	Cohen's *d*
5	Case Studies	3.23	1.22	3.51	1.33	65	0.08	.264	0.23
17	Class Polling	2.16	1.09	2.19	1.12	76	-0.04	.722	0.02
13	Online Collaborative Project	2.78	1.46	2.83	1.42	64	-0.05	.604	0.03
18	Computer-based Learning	2.10	1.24	2.02	1.17	60	0.09	.354	0.06
16	Online Debates	2.21	1.36	2.17	1.32	64	0.05	.646	0.03
2	DB: Instructor-led	4.10	1.34	4.09	1.33	68	0.02	.856	0.01
1	DB: Shared Instructor-Student	4.32	1.16	4.38	1.14	65	-0.06	.403	0.05
9	DB: Student-led	3.29	1.55	3.37	1.54	68	-0.08	.395	0.05
15	Online Formative Quizzes	2.26	1.46	1.93	1.26	57	0.39	.001	0.23
3	Group Discussion	3.47	1.52	3.48	1.51	68	-0.01	.942	0.00
10	Interactive Presentation	3.09	1.43	3.07	1.43	70	0.02	.830	0.01
12	Online Lecture	3.03	1.60	3.10	1.59	68	-0.07	.463	-0.05
6	Media Clips	3.32	1.19	3.35	1.16	65	-0.04	.751	-0.02
11	Problem-based Learning	3.08	1.37	3.14	1.34	65	-0.06	.553	-0.04
7	Reflective Journals/Blogs	3.32	1.57	3.42	1.51	63	-0.09	.319	-0.06
20	Scavenger Hunts	1.51	0.90	1.42	0.77	52	0.27	.172	0.10
4	Self-Assessments & Instruments	3.38	1.40	3.32	1.40	70	0.08	.491	0.04
19	Social Networking	1.96	1.14	1.95	1.09	62	0.01	.922	0.01
14	Student-Peer Evaluation	2.47	1.43	2.48	1.40	65	-0.02	.864	-0.01
8	Student Questions/Activities	3.30	1.60	3.28	1.59	68	0.01	.900	0.01

Note: Rank column indicates rank of instructional strategy use of graduate and undergraduate instructors combined, based on mean scores.; DB = Discussion Boards

Table 3
Percentage of Instructor Assessment Strategy Use by Percentage of Student Total Course Grade (N = 118)

Assessment Strategy	0% of CG	1-10% of CG	11-20% of CG	21-30% of CG	31-40% of CG	41-50% of CG	50% or more of CG
Discussion Boards	5.9%	14.4%	19.5%	16.9%	10.2%	5.1%	28.0%
Major Writing Project / Term Paper	21.2%	6.8%	11.9%	16.1%	11.9%	9.3%	22.9%
Participation	24.6%	18.6%	20.3%	4.2%	3.4%	5.9%	22.9%
Individual Research Projects/Presentations	28.8%	11.0%	12.7	10.2%	11.0%	10.2%	16.1%
Short Papers	30.5%	18.6%	15.3%	7.6%	6.8%	5.9%	15.3%
Reflective Journals	42.4%	18.6%	12.7%	5.9%	2.5%	4.2%	13.6%
Read and Respond	42.4%	16.1%	12.7%	8.5%	4.2%	5.1%	11.0%
Case or Case Study Analysis	31.4%	23.7%	14.4%	13.6%	5.9%	0.8%	10.2%
Individual Leader Development Plans	38.1%	25.4%	11.9%	8.5%	3.4%	5.1%	7.6%

Assessment Strategy	0% of CG	1-10% of CG	11-20% of CG	21-30% of CG	31-40% of CG	41-50% of CG	50% or more of CG
Quizzes	66.1%	8.5%	7.6%	3.4%	5.1%	1.7%	7.6%
Exams	61.9%	6.8%	9.3%	6.8%	3.4%	5.1%	6.8%
Self-evaluations	53.4%	22.0%	9.3%	3.4%	1.7%	5.1%	5.1%
Group Projects/Presentations	43.2%	16.9%	11.9%	9.3%	7.6%	7.6%	3.4%
Observation/Interview of a Leader	55.9%	16.1%	10.2%	5.1%	2.5%	7.6%	2.5%
Video Creation or Digital Storytelling	78.0%	11.0%	3.4%	3.4%	0.8%	1.7%	1.7%
Student Peer Assessment	67.8%	16.9%	3.4%	1.7%	3.4%	5.9%	0.8%
E-Portfolio	81.4%	5.9%	4.2%	3.4%	2.5%	2.5%	0.0%

Note: CG = Course Grade

Results

Instructional Strategy Use in Online Leadership Education

Overall, instructors teaching online leadership studies courses use varying forms of Discussion Boards and Group Discussion, Self-Assessments & Instruments, Case Studies, and Reflective Journals/Blogs most frequently. In fact, more than half–with 58% of graduate-level--of the instructors listed Shared Instructor-Student Discussion Boards in their "Top 3." Conversely, online leadership studies instructors used computer-based learning, social networking, and web-based scavenger hunts far less. Further, no instructors listed scavenger hunts or social networking in their "Top 3."

Comparing Undergraduate- and Graduate-level Leadership Studies Instructors

The two samples were identified as Group 1 and Group 2 for the purpose of means comparison using an independent *t*-test. Group 1 (n = 37) represented the instructors who taught undergraduate online leadership studies courses and Group 2 (n = 81) represented the sample of graduate instructors. The independent *t*-test method was selected as the primary statistical analysis in order to compare the means of responses in both groups. Since the sample sizes in the two groups are different, a pooled variance was computed.

With the results obtained from the independent-groups *t*-test analysis to compare the 20 instructional strategies used in the two instructor groups, the researcher produced the necessary statistics for comparison. The independent *t*-test statistics show the *p*-values for all *t* statistics were insignificant with the exception of Online Formative Quizzes (Quizzes). According to the statistical analysis, the frequency of use of Quizzes between the two groups varies significantly ($t(57) = 0.39$, $p = .001$. $d = 0.23$). This indicates that Quizzes were quite different in terms of the frequency of use in both groups. Specifically, the undergraduate instructors used Quizzes significantly less frequently than the graduate instructors. However, the use of Quizzes is in the bottom five, based on the mean scores. This is not a surprise as the researcher is aware of the infrequent use of Quizzes in leadership education (e.g., Jenkins, 2012).

Assessment Strategy Use in Online Leadership Education

Generally, instructors attached the most weight in their overall course grades to Discussion Boards, Major Writing Projects or Term Papers, and Participation. In fact, more than 70% of instructors listed Discussion Boards in their "Top 3," more than half listed Major Writing / Term Papers, and just over a quarter listed Individual Research Projects/Presentations. Conversely, instructors give little or no weight—sometimes not including them at all in their courses—to Video Creation, Student-Peer Assessment, and E-Portfolios. Moreover, no instructors reported including Student-Peer Assessments or Video Creation in their "Top 3."

Discussion

Until now, no one has investigated instructional and assessment strategy use in online leadership education. The findings of this study suggest that discussion-based pedagogies—whether in a shared or instructor-led discussion board format—are used most frequently. Concurrently, opportunities to analyze real world issues through case studies and reflect through journals or blogs were offered next most frequently. When compared to the study completed by Jenkins (2012 & 2013) on instructional strategy use by leadership educators in undergraduate face-to-face classrooms, similarities abound. In particular, discussion-based pedagogies were used so frequently, Jenkins coined them as the "signature pedagogy" (see Shulman, 2005) in undergraduate leadership education (Jenkins, 2012). Additionally, Jenkins found that the use of reflective journals, self-assessments and instruments, media clips, and case studies was also quite frequent. In the same study, Jenkins included group and individual projects and presentations as an "instructional strategy." He found them to be the fourth and fifth most frequently used, respectively. Here, Major Writing Projects / Term Papers and Individual Research Projects/Presentations are given the most overall weight in a student's grade, second only to the clear emphasis given to Discussion Boards.

Implications for Practice

This study was undertaken with the vision that leadership educators who teach online courses as well as higher education administrators and department chairs seeking to expand their current coursework beyond the classroom could pragmatically use it. This exploratory study of instructional and assessment strategy use in online leadership education has numerous implications for practice for a variety of stakeholders who seek to advance teaching and learning in online leadership education. Additionally, the findings of this study have implications for leadership studies and pedagogy. The findings can provide a foundation to develop workshops for leadership educators or enhance exiting ones. Findings from this study may also catalyze ideas for innovations to the way leadership is taught or promote focused research on the use and best practices of the most frequently use instructional and assessment strategies.

Instructional Strategy Use

There ought to be more "scholarship of teaching and learning" and workshops on best practices in online leadership education. The literature reviewed in this study is a hodgepodge of distance learning education generally and the sparse studies as well as a few peer-reviewed papers from leadership conferences related specifically to leadership education in online learning environments. Workshops that emphasize best practices, including instructional design overall and more specifically with respect to individual learning activities—showcasing what high quality work looks like—and how to assess their effectiveness could prove extremely beneficial in the discipline. Moreover, scholarship that demonstrates firsthand accounts of what works and where the challenges lie in online leadership education would prove quite valuable.

With respect to available resources, Phelps (2012) offers that, "many professional associations in the leadership field including the International Leadership Association (www.ila.net) and the Center for Creative Leadership (www.ccl.org) provide a variety of electronic resources that can be integrated into courses or programs around leadership topics and concepts" (p. 67-68). According to Phelps:

> With changing student populations and learner needs, e-learning applications provide a powerful tool through which to engage students in more accessible, flexible, and cost-effective ways. Considerations to keep in mind when engaging in distance or blended learning options include ensuring that e-learning applications engage versus unintentionally marginalize students (Liu, Liu, Lee, & Magjuka, 2010), diverse ways to increase integration and collaboration among learners, and attention to cultural and learning style preferences in online settings. (p. 68)

For example, do not integrate technology for the sake of integrating technology (Jones & Cuthrell, 2011; Lei, 2010). Moreover, both educators and students should have clarity and understanding around the intended use and benefit of technology (Phelps, 2012, p. 73). Likewise, ensure your chosen technology integrates with your content (Moody, 2010). Finally, including multimedia such as blogs, podcasts, and videos in presentations, classes, or to kick off programs can be effective in moderation. However, too much multimedia can be ineffective and confusing if not clearly tied to curriculum or content (Phelps, 2012, p. 73).

Future Research

The use of instructional and assessment strategies in collegiate leadership education are significantly underdeveloped in the literature and thus a potentially rich area for future research. Moreover, the process of conducting this research and viewing the current state of the online leadership education literature, a number of opportunities and recommendations for future research have surfaced. First most, quantity does not always contribute to quality. According to Lei's (2010) study of instructional technology use with respect to the quantity of technology (frequency of use) versus the quality of technology (how it is used), no significant impact was found with respect to the frequency of use and student outcomes. On the other hand, when considering the quality of how technology was used, Lei (2010) found significant outcomes connected to student learning. And, while Phelps (2012) is keen to suggests that, "leadership educators often seek to 'meet students where they are at,' leading more and more practitioners to incorporate technology into their courses, program, and events," quantity does not necessarily translate into quality. And while this study explores pedagogical use by leadership educators, it does not address the ongoing void of empirical studies that support the connection between technology and student outcomes (see Lei, 2010); a particular focus of which should be on *digital natives* (Prensky, 2001) those students born after 1980 who have never known a world where the Internet was not present and current information is no further away than their smartphone or tablet device.

Conclusions

In closing, the findings from this study offer new knowledge into the distance learning attributes—specifically from the instructor's point of view—of online, academic credit-bearing leadership studies courses. The purpose of this study was to identify the online instructional and assessment strategies used most frequency by leadership educators. In the absence of any prior studies exploring such, these findings provided insight in the current state of online leadership education and identified the instructional and assessment strategies most currently utilized.

The most widely used instructional strategies in leadership education are weighed heavily by discussion-based pedagogies, with reflection and opportunities to present knowledge through projects and presentations following closely behind. Leadership Education is the pedagogical practice of facilitating leadership learning in an effort to build human capacity and is informed by leadership theory and research (Andenoro, Allen, Haber-Curan, Jenkins, Sowcik, Dugan, & Osteen, 2013). Online, instructors facilitate leadership learning through discussion, allow opportunities for reflection on theory, research, and content, and provide problems through case studies and the like for review. Yet, one might ask if this is enough—this "online" learning—to build human capacity for leadership?

At the largest level, the research hopes that the findings presented here will be helpful for leadership educators and institutional stakeholders to evaluate and plan online leadership education in meaningful ways. Moreover, it is an aim of this research that future scholars implement workshops, conference sessions, and publications inclusive of best practice in online leadership education. At a more scalable level, the research hopes these findings will be able to catalyze innovation in online leadership education and stimulate new ideas in the virtual classroom. At the very least, these findings should offer attributes that a variety of leadership educations have shared for distance learning within the discipline. Additionally, the findings from this study may facilitate the development of new leadership programming policies, provide direction for future research, and contribute to the existing body of literature.

Incorporating ideas for the sake of quality and innovation in online leadership education can offer opportunities for further assessment and research that can contribute both nationally and globally.

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Appendix A
Instructional and Assessment Strategy Definitions

Table A1
Online Instructional Strategies

No.	Instructional Strategy	Description
1	Case studies	Students examine written or oral stories or vignettes that highlight a case of effective or ineffective leadership.
2	Class Polling and Surveys	Students complete online polls or surveys designed to collect data on peer or social ideas and constructs.
3	Computer-based Learning Exercises/Games/Simulations	Students complete interactive computer-based learning exercises.
4	Discussion Boards: Instructor-lead	Students participate in instructor moderated online discussions of course content.
5	Discussion Boards: Shared Instructor-Student	Students participate with each other and the instructor in shared online discussions of course content.
6	Discussion Boards: Student-lead	Students participate in and moderate online discussions of course content.
7	Group Discussion	Students read and respond to text or other prompts in assigned or self-selected subgroups.
8	Interactive Presentation	Students view an interactive presentation (i.e., PowerPoint, Prezi) prior to participating in an on-line discussion with an assigned group.
9	Media Clips	Students learn about leadership theory/topics through film, television, or other media clips (e.g., YouTube, Hulu).
10	Online Collaborative Projects	Students contribute to the creation of a course-based website or wiki.
11	Online Debates	Students form opposing groups (in response to instructor prompts or topics) and argue for or against a position using course concepts, evidence, logic, etc.
12	Online Formative Quizzes	Students take ungraded online quizzes covering course content.
13	Online Lecture	Students view instructor presentations delivered in online media (real-time streaming video/audio or off- line video/ audio recordings).
14	Participation in Social Networking	Instructor uses social networking (e.g., Facebook, Twitter) as a tool for student participation, activities, assignments, or communication.
15	Problem-based Learning	Students learn about leadership through the experience of problem solving in specific situations.
16	Reflective Journals/Blogs	Students create ungraded reflective online journal entries in a personal weblog/blog.
17	Scavenger Hunts	Students find and discuss web resources or accomplish a set of online tasks.
18	Self-Assessments & Instruments	Students complete questionnaires or other instruments designed to enhance their self-awareness in a variety of areas (e.g., learning style, personality type, leadership style, etc.).
19	Student Questions/Activities	Students create questions or design activities for peer participation.
20	Student-Peer Evaluation	Students critique other students' work using previously described criteria and provide specific suggestions for improvement.

Table A2

Online Assessment Strategies

No.	Assessment Strategy	Description
1	Case or Case Study Analysis	Students are graded on coherence, relevancy to class, ideas generated, content integration, etc.
2	Discussion Boards	Students are graded on the quality and content of their discussion posts.
3	Exams	Students complete online tests or exams intended to assess subject matter mastery.
4	Group Projects/Presentations	Students are graded on work from a prescribed project or online presentation in a small group.
5	Individual Leadership Development Plans	Students develop specific goals and vision statements for individual leadership development.
6	Individual Research Projects/Presentations	Students actively research a leadership theory or topic and present findings in online presentation or written format.
7	Major Writing Project/Term Paper	Students write a significant paper exploring course content or research (such as a literature review) as a major course assignment.
8	Observation/Interview of a Leader	Students observe or interview an individual leading others effectively or ineffectively and report their findings to the instructor/class.
9	Online/E-Portfolio	Students document their own learning stored in an online/electronic portfolio on the internet.
10	Participation	Students are given points for active participation in online course activities such as discussions, chats, or other interactive computer-based learning exercises.
11	Quizzes	Student complete short graded online quizzes intended to assess subject matter mastery.
12	Read and Respond	Students are graded on their responses to questions generated by the instructor or from the end of the text chapter for the purpose of allowing students to explore specific ideas or statements in depth and breadth.
13	Reflective Journals	Students are graded on the quality of written reflections on their experiences or understandings of lessons learned about course content.
14	Self-evaluations	Students respond in writing to criteria set for evaluating their learning.
15	Short Papers	Students author one or more short papers (ten pages or less in length) exploring course content.
16	Student Peer Assessment	Students critique other students' work using previously described criteria and provide specific suggestions for improvement.
17	Video Creation or Digital Storytelling	Students create short video presentations and post them online.

Appendix B
Leadership Educators' "Top 3"

Table B1
Instructor's "Top 3" Instructional Strategies

Instructional Strategy	All Instructors		Graduate Instructors		Undergraduate Instructors	
	n	% of sample	*n*	% of sample	*n*	% of sample
Discussion Boards: Shared Instructor-Student	63	53.4	47	58.0	16	43.2
Case Studies	42	35.6	28	34.6	14	37.8
Discussion Boards: Instructor-led	41	34.7	25	30.9	25	30.9
Reflective Journals/Blogs	35	29.7	29	35.8	6	16.2
Online Lecture	21	17.8	14	17.3	7	18.9
Self-Assessments & Instruments	21	17.8	9	11.1	12	32.4
Group Discussion	20	16.9	18	22.2	2	5.4
Media Clips	17	14.4	10	12.3	7	18.9
Problem-based Learning	16	13.6	11	13.6	5	13.5
Online Collaborative Project	14	11.9	12	14.8	2	5.4
Student Questions/Activities	14	11.9	10	12.3	4	10.8
Discussion Boards: Student-led	12	10.2	6	7.4	6	16.2
Online Formative Quizzes	9	7.6	4	4.9	5	13.5
Interactive Presentation	9	7.6	6	7.4	3	8.1
Class Polling	2	1.7	2	2.5	0	0.0
Computer-based Learning	2	1.7	0	0.0	2	5.4
Student-Peer Evaluation	2	1.7	1	1.2	1	2.7
Online Debates	1	0.8	0	0.0	1	2.7
Scavenger Hunts	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Social Networking	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0

Table B2
Instructor's "Top 3" Most Heavily Weighted Assessment Strategies

	All Instructors		Graduate Instructors		Undergraduate Instructors	
Method	*n*	% of Sample	*n*	% of Sample	*n*	% of Sample
Discussion Boards	83	70.3	58	71.6	25	67.4
Major Writing Project / Term Paper	60	50.8	43	53.1	17	45.9
Individual Research Projects/Presentations	32	27.1	23	28.4	9	24.3
Case Analysis	26	22	17	21	9	24.3
Short Papers	24	20.3	18	22.2	6	16.2
Reflective Journals	21	17.8	16	19.8	5	13.5
Exams	19	16.1	7	8.6	12	32.4
Group Projects/Presentations	18	15.3	7	8.6	12	32.4
Participation	16	13.6	12	14.8	4	10.8
Individual Leader Development Plans	15	12.7	10	12.3	5	13.5
Quizzes	12	10.2	5	6.2	7	18.9
Read and Respond	9	7.6	6	7.4	3	8.1
Self-evaluations	8	6.8	4	4.9	4	10.8
Observation/Interview of a Leader	4	3.4	3	3.7	1	2.7
E-Portfolio	1	0.8	1	1.2	0	0
Student Peer Assessment	0	0	0	0	0	0
Video Creation or Digital Storytelling	0	0	0	0	0	0

INNOVATIVE PRACTICE PAPERS

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Building the Foundation; Creating the Vision: The Leadership Toolbox and Toolbox Express

Daria Graham & Justen Cox
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Abstract

The University of Dayton's Leadership Toolbox and Toolbox Express is a resource that provides a foundation for leadership experiences that include trainings and meetings. This session will detail the formation, content, usage, and assessment of the Toolbox and Toolbox Express. Attendees will also participate in one of the Toolbox trainings.

Introduction

Central themes exist across higher education literature and research regarding leadership formation and development. Such themes as self-awareness, community, and conflict management are acknowledged as essential elements in the development of an effective leader (George, Sims, McLean, & Mayer, 2007) (Komives & Wagner, 2009) (Preskill & Brookfield, 2009) (Shankman & Allen, 2008). However, many institutions do not provide a foundation for leadership development that is interdisciplinary and interdepartmental in nature. Students, faculty, and staff benefit from a shared focus on the development of leadership skills and personal development.

In 2010, a team of staff members of the University of Dayton's Student Development division came together and were charged to consider leadership formation for students throughout their experience. Part of the initiatives created from this team were the Leadership Toolbox is and the Toolbox Express. The Toolbox and Toolbox Express equips Student Development staff and students with fundamental materials to use in department trainings, workshops, conferences, orientations, and student meetings. The purpose of the toolbox is to set a standard for understanding student leadership and provide a foundation that crosses functional areas for existing and new programs that have a training component. The Toolbox includes processes, instructions, best practices, tools, and templates that help departments introduce leadership skills and qualities from the University of Dayton's perspective.

Goal of the Leadership Toolbox

Based on Student Development's campus-specific model of student leadership development, which is grounded in leadership theory and the guiding documents of the institution, it is the goal of the Toolbox to equip staff to expose students in a variety of settings and capacities to a consistent understanding of leadership. It is also the goal to help students understand how their experiences combine with theory to support the skills, knowledge, and values that foster self-awareness and promote personal development.

About the Toolbox

The Toolbox was created for the leadership development of student leaders and student employees at the University of Dayton. The content of the Toolbox's process/content outline (PCO) comes from best practices, is theoretically-based, and has been constructed by representatives from each area within Student Development. It is a one-stop-shop resource for staff and students. The Toolbox is organized so that it is accessible and easily understood, with detailed outlines, and content dedicated to defining, understanding, and teaching concepts of leadership and leadership development. It contains the following: tools and supplies, the mission and values of student leadership development, theories, guiding documents, teaching leadership tips, templates, training outlines, ice breakers and team builders, resource list, a leadership calendar, and a list of professional development opportunities.

Review of Related of Scholarship

While there are several leadership theories available, after much research, the Student Leadership Development Team at the University of Dayton identified the Social Change Model for leadership development (Astin & Astin, 1996) as the theory most inline with the values and mission of the institution. The content of the Leadership Toolbox and Toolbox Express is mapped to the 7C's of the Social Change Model while considering the elements of leadership formation identified as most important in the University of Dayton's Guiding leadership Development at the University of Dayton document (2010).

Lesson Plan Description

Introductions, Goals, Review of why attending this session	Discussion	10 minutes
Review of relevant literature	Mini-lecture	10 minutes
Description of Student Development Leadership Team and what lead to the creation of The Leadership Toolbox and Toolbox Express University of Dayton's mission, Catholic values, Marianist Charism to provide context	Group brainstorming, small group discussion	10 minutes
Provide examples from Toolbox and simulate training Debrief Questions: How has your institution created a cross institutional definition of leadership? In ways has a shared definition of leadership assisted areas in your institution in supporting and training your student leaders? What are the challenges for your institution in the areas of student training and leadership formation?	Demonstration and Q&A	40 minutes
Identify strategies and challenges • addressing multiple training options on campus • creating buy-in • balancing opinions and missions • communication • identifying the population	Small group/large group discussion	15 minutes
Wrap-up	Questions/concluding comments	5 minutes

Discussion of Outcomes/Results

The Leadership Toolbox was created to be "borrowed" at any given time with the release of the initial version. As requests were made more frequently, procedures were implemented to allow for more intentional assessment. The request process includes a Google form exists for individuals or organizations to request the Toolbox and it prompts the individual/organization to enter what it will be used for. The amount of time of use for the Leadership Toolbox is a part of the request form as well as which aspects of the Leadership Toolbox will be utilized. Before a staff member or student checks out a Toolbox an orientation is provided. Upon the return of the Toolbox, the staff member or student complete a feedback form and are interviewed regarding the ease of use and their experience with the resource.

While the Leadership Toolbox and Toolbox Express are still considered new resources for staff and student, they have been used to structure training by staff in Housing and Residence Life, Campus Recreation, and the Center for Student Involvement. Staff and students have reported that the content of the Toolbox have helped with the structure of trainings and meetings, and has helped created a shared language and understanding of leadership. For example, a student who works in the student union has a similar foundational understanding of leadership as a resident assistant.

Workshop Plan & Implications

Attendees will participate in the following exercise from the Leadership Toolbox:

Defining "Leadership"
Participants will be placed into small groups. While considering the Social Change Model of participants will be asked to construct their definition of "leadership." Participants may construct a definition or create a list of words that should be considered in a definition.

Processing Definition of Leadership
Facilitators will compile a list of words from all of the groups to begin to formulate their definition of "leadership." Facilitators will engage participates in a dialogue as to whether the definition and words have a multicultural lens. Some of the questions that might be asked include: Does the working definition have a lens for non-majority members – students of color, LGBT, international students - of our community? How does leadership look different for different cultures?

Ask participants which words should be kept on the list. Cross out the ones that are similar or the group feels are not necessary for the definition (for instance, some words may describe leadership, or be values of a good leader).

After constructing the definition together, discuss ways participants might use the shared definition for their student groups. Tweak the definition as necessary throughout the training.

At the completion of this exercise, facilitators will discuss possible next steps if the participants were to use the Toolbox.

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Understanding Contemporary Student Leadership Frameworks and Competencies

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Abstract

Four time-tested leadership frameworks that are directly related to student leadership development will be presented along with their mapping to the recently published Student Leadership Competencies Database that lets students evaluate themselves across 60 leadership competencies common across more than 500 academic programs. This mapping also helps to understand and demonstrate the effectiveness of leadership programs.

Scholarship

The Student Leadership Competencies Database (Seemiller, 2013) was created from researching the required leadership competencies of 522 academic programs and allows students to self-assess their development in each of the competencies. The assessment maps to four leadership frameworks; Emotionally Intelligent Leadership (Shankman & Allen, 2008), The Student Leadership Challenge (Kouzes & Posner, 2014), the Relational Leadership Model (Komives, Lucas, & McMahon, 2013), and the Social Change model (Komives, Wagner, & Associates, 2009). This workshop will present the four frameworks, best practices for using them in leadership programs, assessments of each framework, and ways in which to help students and programs alike analyze and understand the common leadership competencies in order results to better develop student leaders.

The research behind each of these models, in some cases spanning 30 years has led to the development of the most-widely used leadership theories and models in the specific context of student leadership development.

The database will let conference participants see how they can have their students assess their development in 60 defined leadership competencies that were gleaned from research on the leadership competency requirements of the academic degree programs and identified in 97 different higher education degree program accrediting organizations.

Description

Mapping the specific elements and characteristics of each leadership framework to the competencies determined to be necessary comes through four dimensions: knowledge, value, ability and behavior. Therefore, educators can now take any of these frameworks and directly connect the four dimensions to specific curricula and make a correlation to the various leadership competencies students are developing. Example scenarios of college student leadership will showcase how the competency plays out in specific actions student leaders take in their activities.

Plan

The workshop will combine conversations of the frameworks, the research on student leadership competencies and a demonstration of the database with an opportunity for participants to discuss the challenges and opportunities they have to assessing the leadership of students on their campus. Approximately 50 minutes will be spent on the competency database and research and understanding how educators can help students intentionally develop their competencies through any of the four frameworks. Ten minutes will be allocated to each student leadership framework (40 minutes total), Within these conversations participants will have the opportunity to share curricular ideas that further teach the models and develop student's leadership competency. Opportunities for questions and participant sharing of their experiences will blend in throughout the presentation.

Outcomes/Results

The learning objectives of this workshop are to have participants receive an overview of four student specific leadership development frameworks, with emphasis on:

- Understanding how each framework maps to specific leadership competencies,
- Learning about the Leadership Competencies Database to help students develop their competency,
- Becoming aware of ways in which educators can influence a greater development of student leadership behaviors, and
- Being able to demonstrate leadership program effectiveness through developing student competency.

References

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The History of You: Using Genealogy in the Undergraduate Leadership Classroom

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Introduction

What is your story? What do you want your legacy to be? Students enrolled in personal leadership courses are often asked questions such as these at the beginning of each semester. As leadership educators well know, "traits alone do not identify and define leaders" (Nahavandi, 2009, p. 11). To guide students through the multi-layers of the self, we must go beyond traditional assessments and reflections in the classroom. A fresh, new practice educators can use to help students develop a positive leadership identity is through use of genealogical research. The research on family genealogy has grown in a large amount due to the Internet (Smith, 2008), and the celebration cultural identity (Stern, 1999). A student's family history can be used to positively impact the development of a strong sense of identity (London, 2002) by unlocking the key to a student's past. Connections to the communities and peoples from which they originated form to create a stronger sense of self that desires to either continue a legacy or combat the issues that hindered their ancestors. Most higher education institutions have subscriptions to Ancestry Library Edition. Educators of leadership courses are encouraged to utilize resources available at their institutions to enhance student's leadership identity development through a genealogical research assignment.

Complimentary to the 2014 ALE conference theme, The History of You innovative practice aims to engage students in reflecting on family history to assist in focusing on the development of leadership identity to impact future leadership behavior.

Background

Trait, strength, and temperament assessments are common components of undergraduate personal leadership courses. Since leaders must first know themselves before they can lead others (Neck & Manz, 2007), student's leadership identity development journey usually begins with these types of course activities. The importance of knowing oneself, London believes, is because "An individual's identity at any given time stems from what has occurred and where one is today" (p. 79). Therefore, each student's identity development journey results in unique personal discoveries that can change their and their family's legacy.

"Leadership development is mostly personal development" (Odom, Boyd, & Williams, 2012, p. 49). Genealogy research assignments belong in leadership courses due to genealogical research essentially being "a journey of self-discovery" (Stern, 1999, p. 19). The innovative practice aligns with course learning objectives that focus on developing leadership identity and self-awareness (Komives, Longerbeam, Mainella, Osteen, Owen & Wagner, 2009). Genealogy assignments open the door for communication about family values, norms, and behaviors that could attribute to the development of particular leadership behaviors. Awareness of the environmental and cultural aspects of the self and family is crucial to identity development (Nahavandi, 2009). This activity will be used to develop student's leadership identity through a retrospective, experiential assignment.

Description of Methodology

Students should be allowed two weeks to complete the assignment. Time given in-class is based on a 2hr and 50 minute lab. Students are required to research at least five to six generations on either their mother or father's side. Students will complete at least four personal communication sessions with family members to gather information. The instructor will need to ensure their institution has a subscription to Ancestry Library Edition. A computer will be needed for each student to access the database on-campus. Because family trees cannot be saved on the Library Edition, students will need a flash drive to save the charts and forms provided by the database. The final product should be a Jing or Prezi presentation or given to the class focusing on what they learned about their family and how the knowledge has impacted their personal and family identity. Pictures are encouraged to accompany the final presentation. A description of the assignment and components that need to be reported are listed below.

Week 1

- In-Class
    - Bring first and last names and marriage record of biological mother and father. Report to instructor which side of their family they wish to research. Birth, death (if applicable), and marriage records of their grandparents will needed.
    - Access Ancestry Library Edition for the first time to download the charts and forms needed to keep track of their findings.
- Outside of Class
    - Complete the birth date and place, marriage date and place, and death date and place values for their mother and father and grandparents.
    - Record each personal correspondence and pictures acquired on the Correspondence Record sheet.
    - Record dates, description, and results from each search on the Research Calendar.

Week 2

- In-Class
    - Give a brief two minute review on their findings.
    - Continue research and expect to discover one or two more generations. Record information on the sheets provided in Week 1.
- Outside of Class
    - Complete research on the last two generations.
    - Met and/or spoke with two more family members to gain information on or pictures of relatives.
    - Presentations uploaded to the institution's online portal, such as Blackboard or Desire2Learn.

Results to Date

The History of You assignment was conducted with [state] 4-H Members at [state] State University that was a part of the [state] 4-H [project]. 100% of participants desired to have a follow-up genealogy assignment. The assignment has not, of yet, been conducted at a undergraduate leadership course level. However, adaptations were made to the assignment to account for technology, research, and reflection capabilities of undergraduate students.

Recommendations

Recommendations for instructors who wish to employ A History of You in the classroom are as follows. The assignment should occur after trait and characters assessments, but before personal mission statements or service projects. Ancestry Library Edition cannot be used off-campus. Students must keep track of their own record sheets provided by Ancestry Library Edition. Students will experience roadblocks in the research process. Utilize the process outlined by Middendorf and Pace (2004) for overcoming obstacles. The assignment can be offered during a specific time of year if the institution's state has a celebration for when they joined the Union or during 4th of July.

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Popular Press Leadership Book Project: Becoming a Discerning Reader

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Abstract

This innovative practice session will present an upper division undergraduate leadership class project in which students read a popular press leadership book and critique its contribution to leadership theory and practice. Students share their critiques with fellow students, with the goal of students becoming discerning readers of such books.

Introduction

Search on Amazon for books with *leader* in the title or subject keyword and over 400,000 titles come up. A search for books on *leadership* yields 118,000. Go into a local Barnes and Noble and at least one aisle is full of popular press books on leaders and leadership. The purpose of this project is to help students in a Junior/Senior undergraduate level Leadership course discern which (if any) of these books contribute to their knowledge of the state of leadership theory and practice.

As Leadership educators, we want to expose our students to frameworks that will ground their knowledge of leadership theory and practice and we also hope our graduates become lifelong learners. As they continue in their careers and advance to further positions of leadership, it is important they keep up with current practice, but how can they do that if they do not have the ability to ascertain which of this prolific literature is worth reading?

This final project in an undergraduate leadership course is intended to accomplish the following learning outcome:

Competency in summarizing the contribution (or lack of) of a popular press leadership book to leadership theory and thought.

Review of Related Scholarship

One of the critical challenges we, as leadership educators face, is choosing the texts and resource materials we will use in our leadership courses. There is no doubt that both academic texts and popular leadership books can engage and inform students in their study of leadership and personal leadership development.

Harris, Bruce and Jones' (2011) study, "You Are What You Read: Inside Leadership Texts" specifically asked the question of what academic text versus "popular culture" books leadership educators were using in their courses. In this study, leadership educators were polled as to what academic leadership texts and popular culture texts they used in their leadership courses and a subsequent content analysis was performed on these books. Their findings showed a total of 12 different academic texts and 21 popular culture books being used in leadership classes. The findings from their content analysis make relevant points that were heavily considered in development of this project:

Regarding "Audience" - *It became clear academic texts discuss leadership on a broader level whereas popular culture texts are primarily concerned with the personal development piece of the puzzle.* (Harris et al., 2011, p. 29)

Regarding "Writing Style" - *Popular culture texts were much more conversational in style of writing than were academic texts. This made popular books easier reads in comparison to the academic books.* (Harris et al., 2011, p. 29)
….academic texts were prone to use a technical writing style with terminology and jargon specific to the leadership education field. (Harris et al., 2011, p. 30)

Regarding "Method" - *Several popular texts relied heavily on story-telling to demonstrate tenants of leadership…In the case of academic texts, stories served as a support mechanism rather than a primary means of conveying information. In doing so, academic texts tended to state the theories and research in the chapter first and then make use of case studies to provide examples…*(Harris et al., 2011, p. 30)

Regarding "Content" - *Academic texts were much more comprehensive or all-inclusive than were popular books. Inasmuch as nearly every theme which emerged in the popular texts was also found in the academic texts, the opposite was not true. The main emerging theme in academic texts was leadership theories, specifically transformational, contingency, situational, strategic, and charismatic. Popular texts rarely made reference to leadership theory, but when they did it was strategic or charismatic theory...*

Ethics is a valued tenant within the academic texts, as each academic text analyzed contained specific content areas specifically addressing ethics. Popular culture books were focused on personal development and issues relating to morality which was cited throughout the texts, but there was not the same level of direct emphasis…(Harris et al., 2011, p. 31)

Academic texts also placed emphasis on diversity, a rare theme in popular culture books…Both genres called attention to communication and teamwork, which definitely emerged as themes for leadership texts of both academic and popular domains. (Harris et al., 2011, p. 32)

Overall, this study makes some fascinating conclusions. Popular culture texts, because of their easier readability, tend to meet students at their level, whereas academic texts are full of jargon and not as easily understood. Academic texts, however, because of their broader exposure of students to leadership theories, ethics and diversity cover a broader array of topics and background. The authors make a number of recommendations for leadership educators, among them choosing texts that are written in a more relaxed style and including stories, and that address both the broader view and the personal leadership development approach. A final recommendation from Harris, Bruce and Jones (2011) is that leadership educators continue to use texts that include theory, ethics and diversity.

I first read this study several years ago, when I was contemplating making a change in my upper division leadership course text. The article resonated as I was finding the text I had been using to be exactly as they describe, too full of jargon and not engaging to students. I was considering going to a popular press book, as I have a high regard for some of the books in this category and in fact, had read many of the popular culture books included on their study's list (indeed had most of them on my bookshelf). Still, as they point out, making sure students are exposed to the broader theories in the field is critically important. My take-away at the time was that a good course needed to be grounded in an engaging text, yet students needed to be exposed to popular culture leadership books, as they also contain important professional development possibilities.

I took their advice and switched to a leadership text that was written in a more relaxed tone and offered both cases and stories (Hughes et al., 2012). While not grounded in the traditional leadership theories they mention, it uses an interactional framework of "Leader, Follow and Situation" that is very rich, resonates with students and allows for a sound theoretical foundation. The students' reviews of the newer text have been very positive.

At the same time, I endeavored to develop a project that exposed students to the realm of popular culture leadership books. I felt this was important, not just based on Harris, Bruce and Jones' findings, but the reality that these books are more likely to be the sources of graduating students continuing professional development. Still, the list of those popular press books that are well written and offer valid teachings are small, compared to the numbers being published, as evidenced by the huge numbers available through retailers cited at the beginning of this proposal. So, the challenge became, how do you train students to choose carefully which popular press leadership books to read?

Description of the Practice

The "Popular Press Leadership Book Project" is now incorporated into my junior/senior undergraduate leadership class. The project consists of three related activities: 1) a major paper summarizing and critiquing their chosen book; 2) an executive summary of the paper; and 3) a "Voice Thread" discussion forum where students share their executive summaries and comment on each other's book findings. Part 3 is intended for an online class; this sharing could also be accomplished with short class presentations for a face-to-face class.

The overview and purpose of the project as portrayed to students is excerpted below from the instructions:

One overarching goal of this class is for students to establish a good working understanding of leadership practices and principles. Given it is an ever-changing field of inquiry, to continue building on your knowledge of leadership well after this class is over, you will need to be discerning consumers of leadership books and articles. Leadership is often overwritten about, and while new insights are always possible and welcome, leadership writing has a high risk of being repetitive or overinflated.

This project is assigned to accomplish the learning outcomes included in your Syllabus: Competency in summarizing the contribution (or lack of) of a popular press leadership book to leadership theory and thought.

The project is introduced early in the semester, and by Week 4 (of a 15 week semester) students are required to submit choices for their book to review. Initial criteria are offered for selecting their book and it must be approved by the instructor:

The first step in this project will be choosing two possible books (first and second choice) and gaining approval of one of your choices. Use the following criteria for choices:

- *Must be published 2007 or after*
- *Must be from a reputable publisher (not self-published)*
- *Must be available through generally established sources – a local library, University library, Amazon or Barnes/Noble*
- *Must be longer than 100 pages*
- *Cannot be a movie title also*
- *Cannot be a "how to" cookbook approach, needs to be based on one individual's actual experience or a writer/researcher observing a leader or leaders in action*
- *Preference is business context but books on non-profit or governmental leaders in organizations are okay (with instructor's approval)*
- *You are NOT required to purchase the book, there are many titles available through the University library, or you can also use your local library.*
- *You are required to submit 2 possible choices for consideration by Week 4 of the course at the latest(Dr._will review the choices and approve on a "rolling" basis). Two choices are necessary, as no 2 students may read the same book.*

Week 13 the written paper is due. Instructions for this portion of the project are included in Appendix 1. The paper includes 4 sections: 1) highlights/summary; 2) critique; 3) analysis and 4) conclusion. The critique challenges students to discern whether the book is based on credible information, while the analysis asks what extensions or similarities it has to frameworks in their assigned text. The conclusion asks students to offer advice to their student colleagues whether the book is worth reading and also reflect on its implications for their own careers.

The Executive Summary is also due Week 13 and highlights each of the 4 sections of the paper. All Executive Summaries are shared with the entire class via Voice Thread (www.voicethread.com), a publicly available platform for information sharing which allows students to comment on content either via voice, video or text. Students are required Week 14 of class to comment on at least 4 of their colleagues book summaries, using the following guidelines: *Posted responses can be in any of the available Voice Thread modalities (voice, video or text) but must be substantive, showing you have read carefully and thought about the book your colleague is summarizing and critiquing.*

Discussion of Outcomes/Results

This project has now been used in three semesters of the junior/senior leadership course. Students initially have a hard time choosing a book, which is not surprising given the number of books to choose from. For those having trouble I suggest they try and find some useful reviews (e.g. Fox, 2013) as a way of narrowing the list.

The written papers on the project have been very high quality (primarily A's and B's). Students seem to enjoy doing the critique! They also engage heavily in whether they recommend the book to their colleagues (or not) and implications for their career. The book project is often mentioned in the comment field of the student evaluations of the course as one of the most worthwhile components.

Students report struggling with the Executive Summary, particularly attempting to summarize the book in less than one page. Students then seem to be very engaged in the Voice Thread activity, particularly as they have media choices to contribute, which they would not have in a typical only written online discussion forum. Again, for a face-to-face class this same activity could be done with a short class presentation and question/answer session.

Reflections of the Practitioner

I intend to continue using this project in this undergraduate leadership course. It not only gives students an exposure to the range of popular leadership books on the market, it gives them a sense of which are truly worth reading. The project has also challenged me to be more on top of currently published books, as I must approve all books being used for the project. While I try to read at least 2-3 of these books myself each year, it has exposed me to some books I had not yet read but intend to now, as the contributions seem significant.

Recommendations

As discussed early in this proposal, deciding upon resources to use in our classes is one of the most critical activities, we, as leadership educators, engage in. While I have struggled with this task in this undergraduate leadership class and currently feel the blend of the assigned text, plus this popular press book project, is effective, this balancing act is an ongoing challenge. Scholarship around this topic is not well developed and opportunities to study what the appropriate blend others are using could be a good extension of the Harris et al. study. Another potential arena I would value researching in future is a follow-up study of my own students who have taken this class after they graduate; I would be extremely curious to learn whether engaging in this project has motivated them to read popular press leadership books on an ongoing basis, and whether they read them with a more discerning "lens".

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Appendix 1

Presentation Handout

MGMT 325 Popular Press Leadership Book Project Written Paper Instructions

Project Purpose:

One overarching goal of this class is for students to establish a good working understanding of leadership practices and principles. Given it is an ever-changing field of inquiry, to continue building on your knowledge of leadership well after this class is over, you will need to be discerning consumers of leadership books and articles. Leadership is often overwritten about, and while new insights are always possible and welcome, leadership writing has a high risk of being repetitive or overinflated.

This project is assigned to accomplish this learning outcome included in your Syllabus:

Competency in summarizing the contribution (or lack of) of a popular press leadership book to leadership theory and thought.

This project will require you to read, summarize, fully analyze in relation to learned leadership frameworks, and critique one current popular business press book.

There will be three products of your reading and analysis of your approved book. The specific instructions for the portion of the project highlighted in bold is given below.

1. **Written paper – 80 points**
2. Executive Summary of paper – 20 points
3. "Voice Thread" responses to colleagues' Executive Summaries – 20 points

<u>After you have gotten your book approved by Dr. Altman, begin reading with a critical eye to the "products" you will be producing once you have finished reading. Take notes as you read so you can identify trends, any leadership frameworks referenced in the book, and noteworthy quotes. You will need to cite important quotations that support your analysis using APA format for citations.</u>

Written Paper:

Your written paper covers 4 required sections and be a significant piece of written work (8-12 pages). It must include the analysis requests in each section completely - follow the required TOPICS/ANALYSIS outline carefully. Page lengths are offered to give you a clue to the depth of analysis expected. Each section has associated grading points & evaluation criteria shown along with each required analysis.

Follow APA format, the library links for APA format are included in your course web site assignment for this project, link to them for exact format requirements if you are not already familiar with APA format for papers and citations.

REQUIRED SECTIONS, TOPICS AND ANALYSIS:

1. **Summary/Highlights** of the book. Choose and follow a clear and succinct format for summarizing the book. Use primarily narrative writing, but if a small framework chart or bulleted list would be more appropriate, that can be inserted in to the narrative.
   (3-4 pages) *25 points*
   - Fully proofread writing
   - Summary is succinct and well organized
   - Highlights are clear

2. **Critique**: Is the work credible? – *e.g.*, does it draw on sufficient real leadership situations or data? As an emerging leadership expert you can now lend your critique whether the conclusions/insights offered in the text are well supported. This is not whether you necessarily agree or disagree with them, but whether you see from your expert reading that the book authors have made their points in a way that are well supported and believable.
   (1-2 pages) *15 points*
   - Clear, fully proofread writing
   - Insights represent high level thinking/analysis

3. **Analysis**: How does the book relate to frameworks in Hughes et al. text? Be specific which frameworks were included (if any). Point out which do relate, even if not referenced directly, AND how they relate (do they illustrate situations of leadership or followership or situations which you read about in the Hughes text?, do they extend the interactional framework?, dispute the framework??).
   (2-3 pages) *25 points*
   - Clear, fully proofread writing
   - Insights represent complete understanding and application of text frameworks

   Note: this section will take the most time and thought, be sure to leave plenty of time after finishing the book to go back and compare/contrast your book and the Hughes et al. text to complete this section successfully!

4. **Conclusion**: Is this book worth reading, do you recommend to your student colleagues that they take the time to read it? Does it make a substantive contribution to leadership theory or thought? Does it provide you any insights for your own career?
   (1-2 pages) *15 points*
   - Clear, fully proofread writing
   - Insights represent high level thinking/analysis

Social Media Activism:
Building International Leadership Capacity in US/International Student Relationships

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Abstract

This paper explores a case study to develop a conceptual framework for leadership educators to build international leadership capacity. After establishing meaningful international relationships, a student leader developed a social media response to the current Venezuelan instability. This innovative paper provides a communicative, globally local initiative for international leadership development.

Introduction

Much research has been dedicated to the understanding and development of global leadership within undergraduate students (Morrison, 2000; Harris, Moran, & Moran, 2000; McCall & Mobley, 2001; Mendenhall, Oddou, Osland, & Maznevski, 2012). In undergraduate leadership curriculum, we tend to exhaust our resources exploring how to create true leadership opportunities and experiences of global context and practical, relational implication. The University of Florida's English Language Institute (ELI) provides an innovative conceptual framework for how to address this issue in a communicative, global approach.

ELI Language Assistant, current student at the University of Florida, created an informative YouTube video about the truth behind the current instability in the country of Venezuela, concluding with an emotional call to action. This video has gone viral globally, providing insight and awareness not only to students in Gainesville, Florida, but to all online viewers. This response provides great perspective to our understanding of creating global leadership in our undergraduate students. Through such opportunities of content creation, students can creatively disseminate their own knowledge through social media sites, creating a platform for cultural competency, critical thought, and social change.

Social media sources have the capacity for creating social activism (Harlow, 2011). The Internet allows current students to not only become aware, but to critically assess the causes of global crisis, recognizing the cultural and historical context of the situation; "Internet technology… brings the opportunity to learn and know how other people live across town and across the world. With that comes a responsibility to engage as a citizen, locally and globally, in new and more powerful ways" (Shore, 2009, para. 7).

Social media has stimulated social movements within many situations of crisis around the globe, including Guatemala (Harlow, 2011), Hong Kong (Nip, 2004), Nairobi (Brodock, Joyce, & Zaeck, 2009), Europe Plantek, Baluk, & Pincus, 2013), Ukraine ("#BBCtrending," 2013), among many others. Castells (2001) voices that the trigger of social change is caused by catastrophic events and social crisis. Such critical events are the motivation needed for ordinary citizens (especially students) to become politically engaged (Opp, 2009). The current global crises in countries such as Syria, Ukraine, Sudan, Zimbabwe, Liberia, Yemen, Chad, Guinea, Mali, Sierra Leone, and many others, provide global context for leadership capacity building in situations of instability through social media activism and content creation.

A key challenge of social media activism is gaining highly motivated participants. Convenience is key; with only one click of the mouse, individuals can participate on a global context (Harrlow, 2011). As educators of leadership, it is our responsibility to ensure opportunities such as these for students to explore innovative and practical means of civic engagement and social participation.

Review of Related Scholarship

Building international leadership capacity in undergraduate students involves the intercultural competency of the conceptualization of social change.

> "Student will find it difficult to lead until they have experienced effective leadership as part of their education. They are not likely to commit to making changes in society unless the institutions in which they have been trained display a similar commitment" (Allen, Astin, Astin, Burkhardt & Cress, 2000, p. 2).

Undergraduate students are able to create truly powerful learning experiences for leadership development through collaborative group projects that invest in disadvantaged communities (Allen, et al., 2000). Therefore, it is the responsibility of leadership educators to establish opportunities for global leadership development in students through collaborative projects of social change.

Leaders initiate true social change when they disregard current ineffective (usually traditional) structures and create new, collaborative opportunities for disadvantaged populations that live within these structures. This social change leadership establishes the capacity in the impacted populations to challenge and question these established structures (Selsky & Smith, 1994). In this context of social change, leadership is a relational process, recognizing the need to understand the cultural and social context in order to create change.

Culturally attuned global leaders have two skills to be developed: how to respond to foreign environments and how to interact with interpersonal relationships (Alon & Higgins, 2005). Successful intercultural communication moves beyond the fluency of language and into the establishment and maintenance of relationships in order to identify cultural similarities and differences (Byram, 1997). Only through the building of interpersonal relationships can students truly recognize and understand the context of the other culture (Stier, 2006). These relationships instill a foundation for successful self-reflection, emotional intelligence, intercultural tolerance

(Stier, 2006), knowledge, and general intercultural skills (Byram, Nichols, & Stevens, 2001). Intercultural competency is established through these social groups, where each individual begins to question and challenge common 'norms' when placed in intercultural situations (Alred, Byram, & Fleming, 2003).

Using this conceptual framework, the responsibility of undergraduate leadership studies is to develop interculturally competent students through appropriately (1) responding to the intercultural crises and (2) interacting socially and relationally to the situation.

Description of Practice

Building on previous literature, we recognize that building international leadership capacity in undergraduate students involves the critical assessment of social issues and the development of intercultural competency through relationships. Understanding this foundation, how do leadership educators create this 'global' opportunity within the United States?

The University of Florida's English Language Institute (ELI) provides an innovative approach to addressing this issue in a communicative, relational approach.

The ELI provides an opportunity for University of Florida students (or recent graduates) to engage and build relationships with international students as Language Assistants (LA's). This position provides opportunities to work with international students through language practice (listening and speaking), cultural orientation, academic and medical workshops, social activities, volunteer partnerships, and weekend excursions that engage in the cultural life outside of the academic, formal setting.

International leadership capacity involves a dual-practice of social and relational development alongside an active response to intercultural crisis. By engaging in dialogue in both formal and informal settings, many LA's develop strong relationships with international students, leading to further understanding of their culture and background. Intercultural competency involves interpersonal relationships and constructive dialogue, which helps students examine and challenge established cultural norms (Byram, 1997; Alred, Byram, & Fleming, 2003). Constructive dialogue is essential to leadership student's development of relationships, understanding of cultural context, and provides the foundation for future content creation of global social issues.

By incorporating relationships (i.e. Language Assistant opportunities) into the equation of international social issues, students gain perspective, relativity, and emotional connection to the issue; the Venezuelan movement become less foreign and more familiar once ELI student started building relationships with other Venezuelan students. Relationships bring passion and commitment to creating solutions to global issues.

A current ELI LA at the University of Florida created an informative YouTube video about the truth behind the current instability in the country of Venezuela, concluding with an emotional call to action. This viral video provides great perspective on the significance of the social media activism in a global context.

The deeply polarized country of Venezuela has had a high level of animosity between anti- and pro-government protestors since early February of 2014, leaving dozens dead and many more injured. Anti-government protestors are concerned about Venezuela's high murder rates (one of the highest in the world), high inflation, crime, and the shortage of basic human rights (food, shelter, security). The pro-government movement responds, in turn, by placing blame of the shortages on "saboteurs" and "profit-hungry corrupt businessmen" ("Venezuela opposition's Leopoldo Lopez hands himself in," 2014, para. 24).

The protesters in the Venezuelan crisis include a variety of demographics, but have specifically drawn a majority of the younger adult, student populations ("John Kerry urges mediation in Venezuela crisis," 2014). This student opposition stems from the western states of Tachira and Merida in early Februarys of 2014, when students demanded an increase in federal security following the incident of a student rape victim. Following this incident, a physical protest ensues in several dominant Venezuela cities through the leadership of Leopoldo Lopez and Maria Corina Machado. The students protestors organize an even more global movement through their use of social media hashtag #lasalida – meaning "the exit" or "the solution" in Spanish ("What lies behind the protests in Venezuela?," 2014). On February 12, 2014, Venezuelan's National Youth Day, millions of students held demonstrations throughout Venezuelan's major cities to protest the social and economic crisis caused by the Venezuelan government, launching a global social issue.

This online social movement did not stop in Venezuela. The Venezuelan crisis has reached global awareness through means of Twitter, Instagram, Facebook, and YouTube. Through the use of social media outlets, this local problem has become a global issue.

The YouTube video created by the ELI LA has gone viral globally (with over 2 million views on YouTube, Facebook, and Twitter), providing insight and awareness not only to students in Gainesville, Florida, but to all online viewers internationally. Through the collaboration of several social media initiatives, like this video, hundreds of students across the State of Florida congregated in Miami to send a message of hope to the people of Venezuela ("Venezuelan students in NCF react to violence in home country," 2014). This response provides great perspective to our understanding of creating global leadership opportunities for our undergraduate students.

It becomes essential to provide current, tangible global issues into leadership curriculum in order to raise student awareness of a world that is becoming more and more interdependent. By presenting creative content and narratives of real world issues, students can start developing intercultural competency within non-immersive contexts (Andenoro, Popa, Bletscher, & Albert, 2012).

Discussion of Outcomes/Results

International leadership capacity involves a dual-practice of: 1) social and relational development alongside 2) an active response to intercultural crisis. It becomes imperative that leadership educators provide curriculum that enhances both elements.

Global leadership development in undergraduate students must provide the opportunity to partner with existing international students, specifically those coming from a country of instability. By building relationships in both academic and informal settings, undergraduate leadership students not only begin to develop intercultural competency, but also begin to cultivate a plan of partnership through social action.

This plan of action is the tangible opportunity for students to have an international experience within a non-immersive setting. Through the use of social media, students can critically communicate their responsive message. Social media activism is a practical tool to incorporate into international leadership curriculum. This activism enhances students' abilities to critically and creatively think and be actively engaged in a globally local manner. It is imperative that leadership educators begin to incorporate international relationships and content creation in order to critically address today's real world, global problems. Leadership students hold the key to solving these problems; educators must provide them with the structure and foundation to do so.

Reflections of the Practitioners

> "Education either functions as an instrument which is used to facilitate integration of the younger generation into the logic of the present system and bring about conformity or it becomes the practice of freedom, the means by which men and women deal critically and creatively with reality and discover how to participate in the transformation of their world" (Freire, 1970, p. 34).

The above quote represents the role leadership education plays on students' critical and creative responses to the reality of the world around them. By creating opportunities for practical social change, we create transformative leaders with an understanding of global contexts.

Social media activism may not be the final solution for social change, but is a prime opportunity for undergraduate student understanding and tangible practice of global leadership; "social media can't ensure social justice. But it can affect the invisibility that is the first barrier to achieving it" (Shore, 2009, para. 8). By providing undergraduate students with the opportunity to engage relationally and actively, we develop the capacity for international leadership.

Recommendations

A course should be established on creating an authentic, tangible global leadership curriculum that encompasses the proposed intercultural leadership capacity building. This curriculum will lead to the development of interdisciplinary collaborations and partnerships with on-campus international departments and its students. Alongside this partnership, this curriculum will enhance social action through online social media projects. After students' content creations are produced, educators will then unpack the critical assessment of the 'how' and 'why' of the student's process. Through this psychoanalytic approach, this course will shed light to perspectives on student intercultural competencies and self-awareness, while creating meaningful opportunities for social change. Once this curriculum is established, further research can explore the true outcomes of international leadership capacity of this initiative.

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Learning to Thrive, Not Just Survive: Teaching Leadership to Increase Student Transition Success

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Abstract

Five first-year leadership classes were studied in how they contributed to the increase in student's ability to thrive in college. This session will share how leadership classes can be designed to contribute to first-year students' successful transition to college. Implications and tools for adding to your own programs will be discussed.

Introduction

Focusing on the first-year experience is critical for overall institutional retention. Research shows that students that persist to their second year are much more likely to continue on to graduation. Further, students who engage in developing their leadership skills early in their collegiate career will continue to develop their skills throughout college and beyond. With these two perspectives, we focused on designing courses for first-year students that both teach leadership while developing their ability to thrive in college. The purpose of this session is to share the frameworks we used in doing so and provide tools to leadership educators that they can use in their own programs to both improve students' learning of leadership and students' successful transition to college.

Review of Related Scholarship

The Thriving Quotient has its roots in the field of positive psychology's focus, beyond clinical psychology, on flourishing in adults (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000). Schreiner conceptualized thriving specifically for college students as a major contribution to student success through three areas: academic engagement, interpersonal relationships, and intrapersonal well-being (Schreiner, McIntosh, Nelson, & Pothoven, 2009). Measuring these three areas, together known as the thriving quotient, Schreiner's team found that it explains 12-22% of the variability in student success outcomes--higher than traditional demographic variables including gender, race, and socio-economic background (Schreiner, Edens, & McIntosh, 2011). These traditional demographic variables are immutable. But students' thriving in college—academic engagement, interpersonal relationships, and intrapersonal well-being—may be subject to interventions. Our research to date suggests that increasing students' thriving would increase students' success outcomes. However, no research has documented interventions that change students' level of thriving in college. This research is designed to provide the first empirical evidence of interventions' effects on students' Thriving Quotient.

Together, this research will inform educators both on how to measure their interventions using the thriving survey instrument and identifying interventions that contribute to student success outcomes.

Overview of Lesson

Welcome 10 minutes
Overview of session Presenter backgrounds Brief participant reflection
Identify key learning outcomes

Review of Theoretical Foundations 5 minutes Social Change Model
Thriving Quotient

Applications in Practice 10 minutes Academic determination
Engaged learning Diverse Citizenship Social Connectedness Positive perspective

Wrap Up 5 minutes
Assessment findings Participant sharing

Discussion of Outcomes

To study student learning in five first-year leadership development classes we used the Thriving Quotient (Schreiner, McIntosh, Nelson, & Pothoven, 2009) as the framework for studying students' successful matriculation to campus. We employ a two-prong approach to gather data via quantitative and qualitative methods.

Preliminary results are illuminating and show strong promise for significant findings in the final results. The response rate across all courses was 91% after reminders in each course and receiving three emails with a link the survey instrument. The brevity of the survey, with only 38 items total and many items sub -questions, contributed to the high completion rate. It also contributed participant engagement in the instrument, including reverse--coded question responses differing appropriately, and demonstrating participants responded to individual questions and did not blindly respond to questions. Overall, results were in line with previously published results. Selected results of interest include an average of 3.9 on a 1--6 scale for "If I had it to do over again, I would choose a different college to attend." Participants averaged 3.4 on a 1-6 scale for "It's hard to make friends on this campus." Participants average 3.2 on a 1-5 scale for "how much difficulty have you had so far in paying for your school expenses?". These highlight key questions that we will monitor in the end-of-semester results to examine whether the course, and their first-semester experience, influence responses. All the questions will also be factored into latent variables to measure academic determination, engaged learning, diverse citizenship, social connectedness, and positive perspective that comprise the thriving quotient.

Reflections of the Practitioner

As the two instructors for the first-year leadership courses, we intentionally designed the curriculum for the courses. We aimed to center each of the learning outcomes for our courses around one of Schreiner's conceptualized thriving areas. Students offered feedback throughout the courses regarding course assignments, course activities, and course readings. As instructors, we considered students feedback when assessing course design throughout the semester. At the end of each course, and before quantitative and qualitative data was collected regarding the thriving quotient, students offered feedback regarding their experiences in these courses. Students offered this feedback through journals, final papers, and learning portfolios. This was a way to anecdotally assess our pedagogical approaches to the first-year leadership courses and make immediate adjustments for the next semester. As instructors, we also used this feedback to strengthen the qualitative questions for the study. We consistently discussed our personal reflections on the leadership courses and offered support and feedback to one another, with ultimate goal of improving courses so students can thrive in college.

Recommendations

While the research on Schreiner's thriving quotient continues, researchers and practitioners should consider the role leadership courses play in developing college students' ability to thrive in college. We recommend that educators who design first- year student seminars consider using leadership development curriculum.

Moreover, leadership educators can assess students' transition and thriving using both quantitative and qualitative data. It is vital to students thriving in college to engage in practical activities on: Academic Determination, Engaged Learning, Diverse Citizenship, Social Connectedness, and Positive Perspective. We recommend leadership educators use tools from Schreiner's thriving in college to impact their own programs in order to improve students' learning of leadership and students' successful transition to college.

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Bringing Realism to Leadership Education Projects: The Bike Ride Across Texas (BRAT)

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Introduction

A constant challenge for leadership educators is to provide students with learning environments in which they can practice and develop the skills of effective leadership and teamwork. Some commonly used pedagogical methods employed by leadership educators include case studies and role playing, in-class projects and group assignments, and service projects. While useful, many of those methods can be perceived as simple simulations and lacking in realism.

Internships, work experience, and participation in campus organizations can provide realism to the leadership education experience, but are often conducted away from the classroom and out of the presence of the leadership faculty member. The diversity of those types of experiences are often very scattered for student participants and perhaps most useful for advanced students—ones who have mastered the theories and principles that they are expected to independently practice and reflect upon.

The purpose of this session is to describe an experiential leadership project that possesses realism and which can be conducted with beginning through advanced leadership studies students.

Description of the Practice

In the 2013 Spring semester, a group of six leadership studies students began meeting to plan and organize an 864-mile bicycle ride across Texas. With the ride scheduled to occur during the first two weeks of May Term, students had to work together to plan all dimensions of the trip. Working individually and in teams, students had to quickly determine the route, lodging, transportation logistics, budgets, donors and sponsors, equipment requirements, media relations, promotional signs and t-shirts, riding methods, safety, and contingencies for road construction and weather problems. Students also chose to use the ride as a method to spread the word about fitness and healthy living, obesity prevention awareness, and bicycle safety.

As the ride approached, the team had secured lodging across the route (all donated with the exception of one night of camping in a national park), checked the road conditions of the route using street views in Google Earth, confirmed the safety of the route with the Texas Department of Public Safety, secured donated bicycles from a local bike shop, made television appearances and talked with newspapers, raised money through family and business connections, designed logos for promotional materials (which were also used for t-shirts and a sponsor sign), created window and magnetic vehicle signs, received donations of sports drinks and protein bars, and arranged participation in the local "Ride Your Bike to Work Day" ceremony. Three elementary school presentations were arranged for the mid-point break to talk with children about the ride, health and fitness, obesity prevention, and bicycle safety.

The trip involved a day's drive to El Paso, eight days of pedaling, two days at the mid-point break for school presentations, and one day to return home from the trip's conclusion in Texarkana. Riding in a relay format, the eight participants rode 90-140 miles each day as a team. While not on bikes, participants provided safety and support for teammates from the two support vehicles. Route changes due to road construction/detours and weather concerns surrounding the deadly storm systems that caused destruction and havoc in Moore, Oklahoma challenged students to adapt, formulate contingency plans, and press on.

Discussion of Outcomes/Results

In many classroom simulations, the costs for “dropping the ball” or letting down teammates is often very low. A poor grade or peer evaluation rating is often the most significant consequence for messing up a simulated project. With the Bike Ride Across Texas (BRAT), injury or death could result from “messing up.” Dehydration, scrapes and cuts, broken bones and bruises, or even death could result to participants without constant vigilance, teamwork, quick decision making, and risk assessment—dehydration and physical exhaustion, speeding cars and trucks, dogs and animals in the paths of riders, unsafe road conditions, etc.

The teamwork and camaraderie that developed among BRAT students surpassed expectations. Goal setting, self- and collective-efficacy, awareness and appreciation of individual differences, planning and preparation, stress management, supportive communication, interdependence, conflict management, and collective effort were all readily apparent to the students and the two faculty participants. Times of reflection, in individual and group discussions, permitted the faculty members to help students identify and make sense of the leadership and organizational concepts at play during the execution of the project. Times of debriefing, reflection, and discussion provided everyone with opportunities to make sense of and learn from the experiences of each day.

The sense of accomplishment that came from arriving at the finish line in Texarkana was overwhelming. Not only did students successfully work together to plan, train, and complete a project that few others in the world have done, it provided them with life-long memories and stories. The BRAT will undoubtedly be something that students gauge and benchmark other challenging events in their lives against.

The 2013 BRAT was such a successful and influential project that a 2014 BRAT2 is currently in the planning/preparation stages. A new group of students has determined a route from Brownsville, Texas to Liberal, Kansas (925 miles), arranged lodging, acquired bicycles, and begun riding together to develop physical conditioning. Fundraising and media contact will continue through the completion of the trip.

Reflections of the Practitioner

In more than 20 years of teaching leadership, management, organization, and entrepreneurship to college students, this has been my all-time favorite educational experience. The students are not the only ones to experience a profound sense of accomplishment through the project.

Leadership educators should lead the way in providing their students with exceptional educational experiences. While not an option for all educators, BRAT-type experiences are tremendous teaching tools for leadership educators. Through the project, students gain experience practicing the skills and concepts of leadership that they study in their classes in a "real" organizational project. The participation of faculty members in the project assures that analysis, reflection, and learning occurs across students with a consistent set of experiences—and one that can be used with beginning, intermediate, and advanced leadership students.

Appendix

A webpage exists with videos, pictures, news stories, writings, and blogs from last summer's BRAT. To assure anonymity for this proposal, this information is not being provided. For the ALE conference, all of those sources would be included in the presentation.

Power in Partnerships: Visioning through Collaboration

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Abstract

The University of Dayton's Leadership Consortium is a group of faculty, staff, and students who come together in efforts to provide a resource for students who are interested in leadership programs and opportunities on and off campus. This session will detail benefits and challenges of this type of cross-institutional collaboration.

Introduction

Partnerships and collaboration have become more common and integral in higher education. Students, faculty, and staff across institutions benefit from cross-institution collaboration. The academic experiences of students are enhanced, and students experience an easier transition within institutions of higher education when institutions share resources and information (Amey, Eddy, & Ozaki, 2007; Bragg, 2000). As Kezar (2005) notes, institutions have experienced "greater efficiency, effectiveness, and [enhanced] student learning" through the use of collaboration.

In the spirit of collaboration, approximately 30 representatives from programs and departments across the institution are part of the University of Dayton's Leadership Consortium. In Fall 2011, the Leadership Consortium was formed with the goal to share information and attempt to provide connected leadership opportunities for students. This session will describe and explore this innovative initiative and provide current scholarship on the importance and benefits of collaboration across institutions. We will provide an overview of relevant research, identify consortium initiatives, and explore with the participants the educational and ethical challenges that could surface through similar initiatives at other institutions.

Review of Related of Scholarship

Collaboration with stakeholders both internal and external to the institution must contain key components. Wood and Gray (1991) concluded that collaboration must involve the development of relationships, and that groups create shared norms, rules, and interests. Kevar (2005) submits that the level of synergy that true collaboration requires is what brings about true collaboration and positive outcomes for stakeholders.

The Leadership Consortium is also inline with the Council for the Advancement of Standards in Higher Education which states, "Student Leadership Programs (SLP) must collaborate with colleagues and departments across the institution to promote student learning and development, persistence, and success" (CAS, 2011). The institution as a whole benefits through collaborative efforts in leadership formation and development.

Lesson Plan Description

Introductions, Goals, Review of why attending this session	Discussion
Review of relevant literature	Mini-lecture
Description and exploration of possible models of collaboration Need laptop, screen, and projector	Group brainstorming, small group discussion
Case study of dilemmas; identify strategies for response • different agendas • buy-in • shared purpose • committed to staying at the table (keeping people at the table) • finding the right people • closing the communication loop (reporting back) • Rejuvenation • sharing the load • rotating leadership • share information	Small group/large group discussion
Wrap-up	Questions/concluding comments

Description of the Practice

The University of Dayton's Leadership Consortium meets once a semester and once during the summer to share individual departmental updates, learn of new initiatives, and collaborate on opportunities for students. Members of the consortium are able to self-identify as areas or programs that have an element of student leadership. Some of the initiatives of the consortium includes the formation of a leadership experience clearinghouse, the Involvement Generator.
The Leadership Consortium has partnered with various areas throughout the institution including Enrollment Management and Media Relations.

At their regular meetings, the agenda includes re/introductions, possible connections to programs, and identifying leadership opportunities for students. Guest speakers may be identified to either provide information or updates to the consortium or to inform the guest of ways the consortium can provide support to the guest.

Discussion of Outcomes/Results

Presenters will share the success and challenges of constructing a group from areas within an institution that have different missions, visions, and areas of focus. Presenters will share howprograms and opportunities are uniquely cross-promoted to encourage engagement and develop connections across the institution. Information on the design and the implementation of the consortium will also be discussed. Presenters will share how collaborations in leadership formation and opportunities have developed a partnership approach to addressing the needs of leadership development for students. Participants who are interested in constructing a similar partnership at their institution will benefit from this session.

Reflections of the Practitioner

As institutions are increasingly challenged to address issues with resources, collaboration has become a necessary practice. Undeniably, bringing multiple areas together with different agendas may be a challenge. One of the ways to address shared focus is to define clearly student needs and student leadership as the foundation for a group like the Leadership Consortium. It is the presenters' hope to share benefits and challenges so that other institutions may gain valuable information to help form similar initiatives at other institutions.

Recommendations

Research on collaboration and leadership development shows that institutions – faculty, staff, and students – benefit from initiatives similar to the Leadership Consortium. Institutions may choose to construct smaller versions of the consortium in efforts to acclimate areas of the institution to creating a shared vision and mission as it relates to leadership formation. Ideally, the presence of a diversity of ideas regarding leadership will serve to broaden the definition of leadership for students.

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Mentoring Distance-Based Graduate Students

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Introduction

Distance Education (DE) is a hot topic in higher education today. In today's economy, there has been an increasing demand for people to continue their education while continuing to work. In the past, people already in the workforce would have to attend night or weekend classes if they wanted to continue their education. With the advent of the internet, the growing need for additional space for students, and need to the masses to have access to higher education, distance education has become the new way to achieve these goals. Distance Education, as defined by Moore and Kearsley (2012) is education in which learning occurs in a different location then instruction, using technology for communication. These web-based courses not only allow more students to attend school, but it also allows those working, the flexibility to attend classes asynchronously and not quit their jobs.

In addition to undergraduate and graduate students, another group of students involved in DE are those looking to further their education through certificate programs or participate in free learning courses such as in a Massive Online Open Courses (MOOC). There is, however limited in-depth focus of distance education literature (Black, 2013). Most of the literature present is through a qualitative view on the management and evaluation of a single experience and does not focus on a specific benefit (Black, 2013). With the advent of new technology and the push to have more classes offered online to accommodate growing numbers of students with limited space, professors, and funding on college campuses, a transition is taking place in higher education.

Background

This transition is shifting the focus of higher education away from the traditional on-campus, face-to-face courses, to more online asynchronous methods to meet the changing needs and demands of today's students (Nigel, 2011). These changing needs have become more relevant as greater numbers of non-traditional students return to higher education and as traditional students have to work to pay for help college. As such, today's students are not always able to make it to campus, let alone leave their job to pursue their education. Today students can take an online course or complete an entire degree online without ever stepping foot on a college campus. In the beginning, only the University of Phoenix was available when DE was discussed, but as time has passed there are now alternatives (i.e. traditional colleges offering only degrees, Kaplan University, Strayer University, Western Governors University, etc.) available to students when it comes to DE. These alternatives are each unique, focusing on different subject matters, programs, technology, and have different requirements. Students now have choices as to when and how they will further their education and advance their knowledge.

With the numbers of students increasing in higher education the burden for advising them has also increased. In beginning of higher education faculty handled the academic advising of all students. This has shifted in the last 10 to 15 years, mainly at the undergraduate level, as professional academic advisors now hold most of the advising responsibilities (NACADA, 2004). Faculty continue to be the main advising source for graduate students especially related to courses and research, while the day-to-day/administrative advising of graduate students has also started to shift to academic advisors as well. These academic advisors supplement the faculty academic advising process to free up valuable faculty time (NACADA, 2006). Academic advising is commonly defined as a long-term process of learning or teaching through a dynamic relationship in regards to student's academic and life concerns (Crockett, 1978; NACADA, 2004, 2006; Noel-Levitz, 1997; O'Banion, 1972). With this recent shifts in advising a faculty member's time is now best spent in the classroom, conducting research, and working on grants leaving little time to advise students (NACADA, 2006; Noel-Levitz, 1997). This change has led to the creation of professional academic advisors, centered solely on helping students with their academic progress. In the higher education context, an academic advisor's role is multifaceted (NACADA, 2004). They serve not only as an advisor, but also as a counselor, friend, guide, mentor, and teacher (Crockett, 1978; NACADA, 2004, 2006; Noel-Levitz, 1997; O'Banion, 1972).

There is not one word to describe what an advisor is or does, because it is different to every advisor, university, program, and situation. Academic advisors tailor their methods to help students through their academic journey on a case-by-case basis, specific to an individual student (NACADA, 2004). During an advising session, if done properly, bonds are formed which lead to the student trusting the advisor. The trust developed between the advisor and the student, combined with frequent communication, can evolve into a mentoring relationship (Buchanan, Myers, & Harding, 2005; NACADA, 2004; NACADA, 2006; Noel-Levitz, 1997; Stein and Glazer, 2003). This trusting relationship is important for DE students as the advisor is typically their only contact with the university (Noel-Levitz, 1997; Stein and Glazer, 2003).

A problem many DE students face is the lack of connectedness resulted by not attending courses face-to-face or being on campus (Noel-Levitz, 1997; Stein and Glazer, 2003). With the help of academic advisors, distance-based graduate students can easily navigate the journey of higher education just as easily as those on campus while still feeling connected through a community of inquiry (NACADA, 2006; Stein and Glazer, 2003). This connection has thus far been positive, but with resources being stretched students must feel connected to their education or their satisfaction will start to decline (Sloan C Consortium, 2004). Properly utilizing these resources needs to be accomplished quickly, as by 2018, distance education is projected to surpass traditional education (Nigel, 2011). One way to accomplish this goal is for academic advisors to provide mentoring to distance-based graduate students (Nigel, 2011; NACADA, 2006; Sloan C Consortium, 2004). Research has shown that mentoring can also help increase attendance at school, improve individuals' attitudes towards school, reduce negative barriers associated with school, and help build relationships (Jekielek at al., 2002; Mavrinac, 2005; Angelique, Kyle, & Taylor, 2002).

Academic advisors supplement the one-on-one support graduate students receive from faculty, while providing encouragement and praise, often referred to as mentoring (Lyons et al., 1990). This is one of the primary functions of academic advisors. To accomplish this task, they create a bond between students, and their school, peers, and instructors so student feel they are a part of a community (Buchanan, Myers, & Harding, 2005; Stein and Glazer, 2003). This sense of belonging, coupled with the interaction between students, faculty, and staff help to create a community of inquiry for these distance-based graduate students (Garrison & Cleveland-Innes, 2005; Stein and Glazer, 2003).

Despite the increased interest in and demand for distance education at the graduate level, there has been little research on the role academic advisors play in the mentoring of graduate students (Black, 2013; Nigel, 2011). Most of this research has focused on the role faculty play in distance education, not specifically focusing on mentoring (Nigel, 2011). This could be caused by the traditional mentoring relationship between graduate students and faculty or that the concept is too new to have significant interest (Black, 2013). Further research would determine if there is a mentoring relationship between academic advisors and distance-based graduate students.

According to the National Association of Academic Advising (2006), a main function of academic advising is mentoring, but this notion is applied mainly to undergraduate students. This function carries over to advisors serving as liaisons for students focusing on both their developmental and educational interests (Stein & Glazer, 2003). The relationship between academic advisors and distance-based graduate students is usually created, at least at first, based on the job function of the academic advisor and the need for the student to interact with them (NACADA, 2006; Ragins & Cotton, 1999).

At first, there is little choice by either the advisor or the student in this relationship as unlike faculty, academic advisors are not chosen by students or vice versa. What sets mentoring apart in academic advising is the required interaction and the frequency of that interaction between the two parties (NACADA, 2006; Noe, 1988). A greater bond is created when there is more interaction between both parties leading to what Garrison & Cleveland-Innes (2005) call a community of inquiry. This community is an all-inclusive view of distance education, which contributes to the overall education experience of students (Garrison, Anderson, Archer, 2000). Since distance-based graduate students are not on campus, academic advisors help connect them to the university and to feel included as they are typically their only consistent contact (Garrison & Cleveland-Innes, 2007, Garrison, 2009; & Zachary, 2002).

During the last twenty years, there has been an increase in research relating to mentoring and academic advising, but little if anything related to the relationship between distance-based graduate students and professional academic advisors (Garrison, Anderson, Archer, 2000; NACADA, 2006; Zachary, 2002). To understand how academic advisors can serve as mentors, research is needed on mentoring distance-based graduate students by academic advisors (NACADA, 2004, Nigel, 2011, Garrison, 2009; Zachary, 2002). I propose to do an in-depth study of all the approved distance-based degrees at a Tier One, Land Grant research institution located in the Southern United State that has academic advisors to determine if there is a mentoring relationship using Ragins and McFarlin's (1990) Mentor Role Instrument (MRI). This instrument focuses on the four roles associated with mentoring relationships as proposed by Kram (1985).

Description of the Practice

The purpose of this study is to examine the mentoring relationship between academic advisors and graduate distance-based students. Using Kram's (1985) original study which found mentors serve two primary functions: career development and psychological, Ragins and McFarlin (1990) developed the Mentor Role Instrument. The Mentor Role Instrument (MRI) gauges the perceptions of protégés/mentees on the mentoring relationship (Ragins and McFarlin, 1990). Ragins and McFarlin (1990) added two additional mentor roles: parent and social. These additional roles were based on Kram's (1985) original observations, but were not fully explored until Ragins and McFarlin (1990) came along.

Originally consisting of 9 roles (sponsorship, coach, protector, challenge, exposure, friendship, role model, counseling, and acceptance) the MRI was divide between the career develop and psychological needs of protégés. The career development role assessed perceptions relating to sponsorship, coaching, protecting, challenging, assignments, and exposure (Kram, 1985; Ragins & McFarlin, 1990). While the role of psychological development assessed perceptions relating to friendship, role modeling, counseling, and acceptance (Kram, 1985; Ragins & McFarlin, 1990). Ragins and Cotton (1999) suggest mentoring is not all or nothing and that a mentor might only fulfill some of these roles and functions. This study will use the MRI to assess the mentoring of distance-based graduate students to see which mentoring roles, if any, academic advisors fill.

Purpose of Study

Buchanan et al. (2005) defined mentors as providing support and encouragement to someone al la academic advisors. Stein and Glazer (2003) concluded online mentors are more about providing support, helping to increase their independent learning, and advocating for their success (NACADA, 2004). This study will look at the relationship between academic advisors and distance-based graduate students at a Tier One research institution located in the Southern United State to see if it resembles a mentoring relationship using the Mentor Role Instrument (MRI) developed by Ragins and McFarlin (1990).

Discussion

The function of the academic advisor is not to take the place of the traditional mentoring received by graduate students from faculty members, but to supplement it for those who are based at a distance. Unless a follow-up study is done, only observational data could be used to determine if this carries over to traditional graduate student mentoring. It would be interesting to follow-up and see if the results were similar or completely different. The academic advisor may serve as a mentor to some or all of the roles of mentoring for distance-based graduate students. Since this study focuses on the supplemental mentoring provided by academic advisors who are not content or industry experts, usually, it is reasonable to assume they would not serve as mentors related to the career development roles of mentoring. As there are distance-based graduate programs, mentors typically would have no social interaction with students, so therefore, they should not fulfill the mentor role either.

Since most distance-based students are not on-campus, there is no opportunity for social interaction outside of advising. According to Ragins and McFarlin (1990) problems with cross-gender mentoring can often happen in the social role. With the decision to take advising to the next level placed mainly on the student, the advisor role is to be there and offer support. Using the practice of "high touch" allows advisors of distance-based students to utilize the necessary resources to adequately help this population. When this population is helped, the burden on faculty advisors can be reduced and the academic experience increased for the student. Faculty advisors can still provide the high-quality information students seek related to careers, contacts, and specific academic content, while academic advisors can provide supplemental advising related to policies and procedures and the small, ever-changing details faculty do not have the time to keep up with.

Reflections of Practitioner

The relationship between academic advisor and graduate student is based on the job function of the advisor and the need for the student to interact with each other (Ragins & Cotton, 1999). A bond is created when the frequency of interaction increases leading to what Garrison & Cleveland-Innes (2005) term a community of inquiry. This community is an all inclusion view of distance education, which contributes to the overall education experience of students (Garrison et al., 2000; Stein and Glazer, 2003).

Distance education will continue to increase in popularity and demand with attention being paid to the "community" that is often associated with higher education, as states, universities, students, and employers look for cost effective means of education (Garrison, 2007, Nigel, 2011). There is an ever-increasing need for distance-based graduate students to feel connected to their learning environment and experiences, just as there is for on-campus students (Dewey, 1933; Garrison, 2007; Henri, 1992). A community of inquiry can be seen as combining the three dimensions (social presence, cognitive presence, and teaching presence) of traditional college experience for online learners (Garrison & Cleveland-Innes, 2005). When this is combined with the concepts of mentoring and academic advising, recreating the traditional college experience for distance-based graduate students can be achieved (Garrison, 2007; NACADA, 2006, Sloan C Consortium, 2004).

The mentoring associate with academic is advising, although commonly thought of as formal, is informal as it refers to the natural forming of relationships on the basis of perceived competence and comfort between individuals (Allen, Poteet, and Burroughs, 1997; Kram, 1983; Ragins and Cotton, 1990, 1999). This type of relationship is also is geared more towards respect of the mentor by the protégé, as they are the ones typically seeking the relationship (Ragins and Cotton, 1999).

According to Ragins and Cotton (1999) informal mentoring is more concerned with the roles of psychosocial, parent, and career development. This concern is not only in the present and limited to the term of the relationship, as with formal mentoring, but is slow to develop and extends for a life-time (Kram, 1983; Ragins and Cotton, 1990). Communication is an integral part of the mentoring relationship and can be enhanced through proper training as well (Sipe, 2002; Allen et al., 2006).

Recommendations

Applying this idea to academic advising allows the academic advisor to be an outsider to the process, as they are not a faculty member nor directly involved in the students education, but also allows them to have an insider's knowledge of the workings of higher education (Allen et al., 2006). The advising relationship also somewhat resembles an academic coaching relationship where the academic advisor encourages graduate students and helps them come up with new strategies for success (Robinson & Gahagan, 2010). Although mentoring and academic coaching are different an academic advisors serves both functions as they are often interchangeable (NACADA, 2004; Robison & Gahagan, 2010).

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Increase Your Teaching Impact:
Using Emotional Intelligence to Teach Emotional Intelligence

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Abstract

This practice session discusses the impact of using emotional intelligence behaviors to facilitate training sessions on emotional intelligence, particularly with audiences that may be somewhat resistant. During this session, linkages will be made between constructs of the Bar-On EI behaviors model and how leadership educators can utilize EI to bring out negative and positive experiences of students and analyze those experiences using EI. Based on varied backgrounds and experiences, many groups of people will relate differently to parts of the EI model and this practice provides an advanced learning opportunity to connect with emotional intelligence.

Introduction

One of the primary purposes of leadership education is to develop within students a capacity to lead. The capacity to lead involves a number of functional abilities including cognitive, affective, interpersonal, and intellectual. A leadership educator is charged with the development of students' ability to apply leadership knowledge to current and future situations. Research has shown that simple competencies or skills are not enough for leaders to be successful (Boyatzis, Leonard, Rhee, & Wheeler, 1996). Instead students of leadership must be equipped with experiential practices that prepare them to manage and leverage both their own and followers emotions (Stein & Book, 2011). Emotional intelligence (EI) has been offered as the framework though which one can develop the ability to understand and manage emotion.

EI has quickly become one of the most discussed topics in the leadership classroom. Textbooks devote much space to EI. The New York Times best sellers lists include numerous books on emotional intelligence. Businesses have implemented widespread training programs to increase employees' EI. Managers of large engineering firms find value in EI training and even the military has implemented measures to increase service-members' EI. With so many varied and diverse groups wanting to study and gain knowledge on emotional intelligence it has become apparent to the authors that no one training program can fit all. The challenge for leadership educators and trainers is to present EI to various groups and overcome any resistance or hesitancy in surfacing, understanding, and leveraging emotion.

Background

The concept of emotional intelligence was introduced by Salovey and Mayer (1990) in an effort to explain and understand the combination of emotion, intelligence, and cognitive processes. Emotional Intelligence has been defined as “the ability to perceive emotions, to access and generate emotions so as to assist thought, to understand emotions and emotional knowledge, and to reflectively regulate emotions so as to promote emotional and intellectual growth" (Mayer and Salovey, 1997). The term traces its roots back to the work of E.L. Thorndike who in 1920 talked about “social intelligence. Gardner (1983) wrote about multiple intelligences and discussed the differences between intrapersonal intelligence and interpersonal intelligence. Gardner used these terms to help explain personal performance outcomes. Mayer and Salovey (1997) laid the foundational work for EI. However, it was Daniel Goleman who popularized the term with his best seller “Emotional Intelligence” (1995). During this same time, American-born, Israeli psychologist Reuven Bar-On was studying emotional social intelligence. Bar-On was perplexed with the various abilities to succeed in coping with environmental demands and pressures (Stein & Book, 2011). Bar-On developed the term Emotional Quotient (EQ) to capture the unique individual abilities to understand and regulate one’s emotions. EQ was an obvious alignment with cognitive abilities or skills captured in the Intellectual Quotient or IQ. Bar-On developed an emotional quotient-inventory (EQi) that measures five general areas or realms and 16 subsections or scales. The five realms of the Bar-On model are self-perception, self-expression, interpersonal, decision-making, and stress management. Appendix A is a handout that provides the breakout of the realms and the definition of the subsections.

Research on Emotional Intelligence

Emotional intelligence has been linked to positive individual and organizational impacts (Cooper, 1997; Weisinger, 1998). At the individual level, those with higher levels of emotional intelligence were better able to provide emotional feedback (Sherony, 2004), had higher levels of self-awareness (Goleman, 1998), showed higher levels of cognitive maturity (Stedman & Andenoro, 2007), and were better able to solve problems and manage conflict (Buford, 2001). At the organizational level, higher levels of emotional intelligence was related to being a transformational organization (Holbrook, 1998), being a learning organization (Goleman, 1998), and better equipped to adapt to crises, problematic employees, and external threats (Stein & Book, 2011). The extant literature reports many positive outcomes for increasing emotional intelligence in leaders and organizations.

Some research has been conducted on levels of emotional intelligence in educators and the impact on learning (Durlak & Weissberg, 2005). These findings have agreed that educators with higher levels of emotional intelligence are better able to connect with students, have a keener sense of how to deal with difficult students, and more positively impact the learning environment (Sutton & Wheatley, 2003; Zins, Weissberg,Wang, & Wahlberg, 2004). However, to date, there has been little research on using Bar-On’s emotional intelligence model to teach emotional intelligence.

Using Dramaturgical Teaching for EI

Guenthner and Moore (2005) argued that experiential learning in the leadership classroom provided a more effective learning experience for students. Drawing on that guidance, Barbuto (2006) developed a methodology he called dramaturgical teaching. Barbuto defined dramaturgical teaching as “the instructor displaying the leadership styles in and out of the classroom so that students experience the leadership style while learning about it” (p. 4). While dramaturgy evolved from the performing arts (Orr, 2003), it has been successfully applied as a pedagogical tool to demonstrate behaviors and dispositions (Leberman & Martin, 2005). Dramaturgical teaching combined with Heifetz’s case-in-point teaching (Heifetz, Grashow, Linsky, 2009), provide a powerful context in which to explore emotional intelligence. Heifetz argued that case-in-point teaching allowed students to study themselves and their perceptions relative to the actions and reactions of the system in which they operate (Daloz Parks, 2005). The purpose of this practice session is to examine and demonstrate the use of dramaturgical & case-in-point teaching to examine the Bar-On EI behaviors. Because EI examines the actions and reactions of an individual in context with others, demonstrating the behaviors and counter-behaviors using the EQ framework provides a context in which students can examine their emotions, the cause of those emotions, and, perhaps most importantly, the impact of their emotions on others.

Description of the Practice

While Emotional Intelligence can be taught using many methodologies, this practice uses a dramaturgical teaching method that involves the instructor demonstrating the 16 EI behaviors that work best in various situations and with different audiences. With 16 components that uniquely interact with each other, the Bar-On EI model is complex and can be difficult to both grasp and recall. By demonstrating the appropriate EI behavior to various situations that are unique to the student, the instructor is utilizing an approach that leverages the experiences of students and can be immediately applied to the students’ situations. Experiential learning has had a very positive impact in the leadership classroom (Guenthner and Moore, 2005). The trend today in leadership education is to move away from the more formal classroom lecture structure, and move to a less formal, more interactive structure that links both learning and experience (Finn, 2004; Kolb & Kolb, 2005).

The instructor begins the session by asking the students to complete one entry in the Emotional Inventory Tracking Sheet (Appendix B). It should be explained that because much of emotional intelligence is about noticing both your emotions and your cause, this journal-like activity encourages students to analyze their emotions, the cause of those emotions, and what they can do to either continue that state or make course corrections.

The second part of this session is to have students complete the Emotional Hijacking and Personal Flow worksheet (Appendix C). This worksheet asks students to recall two different emotional situations—hijacking or flow. Emotional hijacking occurs when emotions swamp the brain and an individual does and/or says something that they later regretted. It is particularly important to encourage students to dig deep on the Emotional Hijacking portion of this handout. We encourage students to write down something that might have been a bit embarrassing or frustrating—something they would not normally want to discuss with others. The other part of this worksheet (Appendix C) is to describe a moment of Personal Flow. Personal Flow occurs when an individual is focused, energized, positive, and therefore absorbed in an activity or project. During times of personal flow, we come away from the experience feeling good about the moment, energized by the work that was accomplished, and have feelings of meaningful engagement. It is typically easier for students to write about these moments, which are often easier to recall and easier to discuss.

At this point, students should log another entry in the Emotional Inventory tracking sheet (Appendix B). The instructor should ask the students to take note of how their emotions have changed since the beginning of the class or workshop and how the Emotional Hijacking and Personal Flow activity may have affected their emotional state.

The instructor then asks for a volunteer to offer an in-depth description of the Emotional Hijacking situation recorded on the worksheet. The instructor should ask the other students in the room to listen for those EI components that were either overused or underused in the student's example. One of the most unique features of the Bar-On model is the sliding scale bookended by overusing the components and underusing the components. The instructor should be ready to probe the student for more information by asking for more details about the situation, more depth about the emotions, and/or more description of how the person felt. Following the student's description of the situation, the instructor asks the others in the room which EI components showed up as either too much or too little. The instructor should be prepared to probe students to describe why the components chosen were identified.

Once the EI components have been identified, the instructor engages in the dramaturgical component of the exercise. The student is invited to reenact the situation with the instructor keeping in mind the underutilization or overutilization of the components identified by the other participants. During this role-play, the instructor should utilize one or more other EI components to invoke the emotions the student described in the scenario. For example, a common example described by students involved not being listened to when dealing with a particularly emotional situation. The feeling of "nobody cares" or "nobody listens to me" is typically described as the catalyst for an Emotional Hijacking. In response to the student's effort to get someone to listen to him or her, the instructor may use too little of the Personal Relationship and Empathy EI components ("I don't really know you all that well so why should I care to put myself in your shoes?") and too much of the Assertiveness component ("Let me just stop you right here and tell you what you need to do to fix this situation"). This back and forth continues until the scenario has played itself out or until the instructor decides that to end the role-play. At this point, we ask all students in the room to chart their emotions on the Emotional Tracking Sheet having just been witness to an emotional situation.

To debrief the role play and create an understanding of how to effectively utilize the components of EI, the students in the room are invited to give input as to which components might have been used to effectively navigate the situation. Using the example above, a student may make the case for less Emotional Expression and to instead approach another person using the Problem Solving EI component. A student might also suggest that the instructor in the role play example above employ more Impulse Control to listen to the other person first rather than leveraging high levels of Assertiveness.

During this practice session, the authors will demonstrate with the audience the use of the Emotional Hijacking exercise. The audience will be provided with an emotional tracking worksheet. One or more scenarios will be extracted from audience members will be asked to respond to those scenarios. Using selected EQ behaviors, the authors will facilitate the dialog, at times demonstrating behaviors while evoking EQ behaviors from the audience and, at times, asking the audience to reflect on their emotional state using the emotional tracking sheet.

Discussion of the Outcomes

Given the complexity of the Bar-On model, this approach allows students to surface emotions from rich experiences in their own past. Doing so allows students to connect at a personal level with the components of the EI model. Also, given the opportunity to reenact the situation with the instructor purposefully provoking emotion allows the student and the student observers to experience how too much or too little use of some of the EI components can manipulate the emotional state of another person.

We have found that the Bar-On EI model is the most approachable emotional intelligence model in the literature. In part, this is because the model is not entirely about raw emotions. While some of the components involve the expression, maintenance, and ability to notice emotions, other components of the model do not speak directly to emotions (e.g.—stress tolerance, social responsibility). To be able to demonstrate in a classroom setting how those other elements of EI can be employed to resolve emotional situations is a powerful learning experience for students.

We believe this practice significantly contributes to the field of leadership education by combining dramaturgical teaching with case-in-point teaching. This combination provides leadership educators with a powerful tool to teach a somewhat difficult and complex topic in a way that better connects with students. This approach has been used by one of the co-authors in a large, long-term training program with the United States Department of the Army. While initially very resistant to the program, participants have appreciated the Bar-On EI model and this case-in-point/dramaturgical teaching approach. Evaluation scores on the program impact (e.g.—I am able to apply this content in my workplace) are 4.7 out of 5.0. One student remarked, “I wanted to thank Work Force Development for coordinating one of the "BEST" trainings I have received by [author identifying information removed]. The training lasted only two days, but it will stick with me for LIFE!”

As students are exposed to the constructs of emotional intelligence, students can gain insight as to how to more effectively integrate behaviors and practices into developing styles of leadership that will produce positive outcomes. Students will receive peer to peer feedback on their use or misuse of emotional intelligence behaviors which creates greater self-awareness and a broader leadership toolkit.

Reflections of the Practitioner

We have found that Emotional Intelligence is one of the most resisted topics by students in leadership programs. It is difficult and sometimes painful for leadership students to surface their emotions and determine the causes of those emotions. Many students, particularly those in leadership positions, have been trained or trained themselves not to show emotion. For leadership educators, it is important not to dismiss or ignore resistance to learning EI. Instead, finding ways to marry emotional intelligence constructs and behaviors with appropriate leadership practices enables wide-ranging learning opportunities and is a more effective connection with students who may resist the concept. As leadership educators who can demonstrate appropriate emotional intelligence and leadership behaviors we become role models to our students. Students are then able to develop these skills more successfully. This particular practice creates an opportunity for leadership students to reflect on the past, but focus on the future—aligning with the theme of this year's ALE conference.

Recommendations

We have opted to use the Bar-On emotional intelligence model over others and recommend this approach. The Bar-On model is a robust model that speaks not only to emotional intelligence but also social intelligence. We have found that his model is easier for students to connect with and much easier to link with concrete behaviors. Multi-Health Systems, which owns the copyright for the EQi 2.0 assessment that measures Bar-On's EI elements, has developed comprehensive North American and global norms groups that provide a baseline for individual comparison. Using these norms groups, individuals can compare their level of engagement on all of the Bar-On EI elements with a wide-range of groupings to include gender, race/ethnicity, and age. The comparison provides a substantive learning experience for leadership students.

Probably one of the most important aspects of teaching emotional intelligence using the experiences of the students in the room is to create a safe space. It is particularly difficult for students to publically share negative emotional situations. We recommend having students agree to norms such as not sharing outside of the classroom, which creates a safe-space to practice new behaviors and assess past behaviors without judgment.

We recommend that leadership educators become intimately familiar with all of the 16 EI components prior to using the approach described above in the classroom. This demonstration will allow participants to not only experience how to run this session, but also begin to familiarize them with the EI elements. We invite participants to attempt this or another methodology and report back on the results, which we would be happy to capture and share. Another recommended next step is to invite leadership educators to explore and discuss other popular techniques that may integrate EI with leadership theory. We expect that this demonstration will spark ideas for other leadership concepts and invite that discussion during and after the session.

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Appendix A:
The Bar-On Emotional Intelligence Model

- *Self-Perception*
  - Emotional Self-Awareness: The ability to be aware of and understand one's feelings and their impact
  - Self-Regard: The ability to respect and accept one's strengths and weaknesses
  - Self-Actualization: The ability to improve oneself and pursue meaningful objectives
- *Self-Expression*
  - Emotional Expression: The ability to express one's feelings verbally and nonverbally
  - Independence: The ability to be self-directed and free to emotional dependency on others
  - Assertiveness: The ability to express feelings, beliefs, and thoughts in a nondestructive way.
- *Interpersonal*
  - Interpersonal Relationship: The ability to develop and maintain mutually satisfying relationships
  - Empathy: The ability to recognize, understand, and appreciate the feelings of others
  - Social Responsibility: The ability to contribute to society, one's social group, and to the welfare of others
- *Decision Making*
  - Impulse Control: The ability to resist or delay an impulse, drive, or temptation to act
  - Reality Testing: The ability to remain objective by seeing things as they really are
  - Problem Solving: The ability to solve problems were emotions are involved using emotions
- *Stress-Management*
  - Flexibility: The ability to adapt one's feeling, thinking, and behavior to change
  - Stress Tolerance: The ability to effectively cope with stressful or difficult situations
  - Optimism: The ability to remain hopeful and resilient despite setbacks
- *Additional Stand-alone Scale*
  - Happiness: The ability to feel satisfied with oneself, others, and life in general

Appendix B:
Emotional Inventory Tracking Sheet

At various times throughout this workshop, you will be asked to reflect on and write about what you are feeling at the time. At the bottom of this page is a list of emotions and/or feelings; while not bound to this list, consider using these as options to identify the feelings you may have at any given time. Once you've identified a feeling, answer the question in each column about it.

When was this recorded?	**What are you feeling?**	**Why are you feeling this?**	**What does this feeling of yours look/sound like to others?**	**How could you either continue this feeling or stop feeling this way?**
A.				
B.				
C.				
D.				
E.				

- Happy
- Sad
- Excited
- Loving
- Bored
- Scared
- Grateful
- Worried
- Anxious
- Angry
- Inferior
- Powerful
- Responsible
- Relaxed
- Embarrassed
- Humiliated
- Supported
- Connected
- Proud
- Secure
- Ashamed
- Guilty
- Virtuous
- Insecure

Appendix C:
Emotional Hijacking and Personal Flow

Emotional hijacking is when the emotions swamp the brain. You may have had this experience when you were frustrated and became angry, perhaps saying something you later regretted. Another example might be a time when you were so stressed, tired, and simply exhausted, that you became emotional in a way that you had no control. The emotions just overtook you. At any time emotions can act independent of conscious, cognitive participation.

1) Describe a situation from your recent past when you experienced emotional hijacking. What are the key elements of the situation that prompted the event? What emotions do you distinctly remember feeling? What did you say or do as a result of those emotions?

____
____
____
____

2) What might you do differently in the future to change the outcome of this Emotional Hijacking?

____
____
____
____

Flow is being energized, focused, positive, blissful, and absorbed in the activity in a seemingly effortless and fluid way. While this sounds "idyllic," we are often in a place of flow. It may not be foremost in our awareness at the time, but when we walk away from completing a task, meeting a challenge, or dealing with another person and we feel good about the moment, we feel refreshed, and feel engaged in a more meaningful way, we have been in "flow."

1) Describe a situation from your recent past when you experienced personal flow. What are the key elements of the situation that prompted the event? What emotions do you distinctly remember feeling?

____
____
____
____

2) What elements of the Bar-On EI model could you use to increase Personal Flow experiences?

____
____

Adapted from Nadler (2007)

An Integrated Social Media Learning Community to Develop Leadership in Retail Food Safety Managers

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Abstract

North Carolina Cooperative Extension is currently developing a food safety certification for retail food managers. This will include continued educational engagement with participants through a virtual learning community using integrated social media and communication methods focused on managers who foster a culture of food safety through transformational leadership.

Introduction

North Carolina Cooperative Extension is currently developing a food safety certification for retail food managers as required by the FDA Food Code 2013. The curriculum includes 2 days of case-based instruction and intends to maintain continued educational engagement with participants through a virtual learning community. This innovative practice paper investigates the use of integrated social media and communication methods to create a learning community focused on managers who foster a culture of food safety. The analysis aims to identify opportunities to expand this learning community to support leadership education of retail food managers.

Review of Related Scholarship

A food handler's decision to follow proper hygienic practices are attributed, in part, to the individual, however over 40% of the influence on hand hygiene behaviors may be related to the prevailing culture of the business (Clayton and Griffith, 2008). "A culture of food safety is built on a set of shared values that operators and their staff follow to produce and provide food in the safest manner" (Powell, Jacob, and Chapman, 2011b, p.817). Griffith, Livesey, and Clayton (2010) developed a framework to assess a food business' food safety culture. Six components were identified: "food safety management systems and style; food safety leadership; food safety communication; food safety commitment; food safety environment and risk perception (Griffith et al., 2010, p.439)."

Given the nature of leadership necessary to create a culture of food safety, the Transformational Model of Leadership (Bass & Riggio, 2006) is a fitting theoretical framework. Transformational leadership entails 4 dimensions: *Idealized influence*, where the leaders' behavior allows them to serve as role models; *Inspirational motivation*, where leaders provide meaning and challenge to the work of their team; *Intellectual stimulation*, where the leaders encourages thoughtful practice and creativity, and *Individualized consideration*, where the leader coaches and mentors each team member as an individual. A transformational leader would be capable of fostering a culture of food safety. Our virtual learning community aims to develop this type of leader.

In the design of such a learning community, Eich (2008) posed a theory for high quality leadership programs. This model includes 16 attributes within three clusters. *Cluster I Participants Engaged in Building and Sustaining a Learning Community* includes: diverse students, experienced practitioners, modeling educators, small groups, supportive culture, and one-on-one relationships. *Cluster II Student-Centered Experiential Learning Experiences* includes: leadership practice, reflection activities, application in meetings, meaningful discussions, episodes of difference, civic service, and discovery retreats. *Cluster III Research-Grounded Continuous Program Development* includes: flexible design, values content, and systems thinking (Eich, 2008). The purpose of this innovative practice paper is to present how a food safety focused virtual learning community could support transformational leadership and food safety culture, considered within the theory for high quality leadership programs (Eich, 2008).

Description of Practice

The barfblog authors, Drs. Powell and Chapman, along with others from the food safety profession, interact with the public through "evidence-based opinions on current food safety issues. Opinions must be evidence-based – with references – reliable and relevant" (http://barfblog.com). Their messages integrate multiple forms of social media, including blogs, email list serves, Facebook, Twitter, podcasts, Instagram, and Tumbler, in addition to traditional media forms of fact sheets, news articles, and professional journals to create a virtual learning community. Permission was received from the authors of barfblog to present this innovative practice paper, as the information and learning community is publicly available.

The learning community began in 1993 in the form of several list serves sharing food safety news for risk managers connected to the food industry. In 2005, this evolved into a forum to post stories about food safety experiences. Dr. Powell describes this step:

> "*Every time I talk to someone on a plane, train or automobile, they find out what I do, and then proceed to tell me their worst barf story. barfblog.com was created to capture those stories, except most people don't want to be bothered writing, so we did it for them* (barfblog.com, January 14, 2014)."

Since 2007, the learning community progressively integrated other media forms into their outreach methods. Metrics of posts and learning community participation were collected to highlight the activities and reach of the learning community.

barfblog. barfblog (the lowercase is intentional, http://barfblog.com) has received 3,996,593 unique visitors since 2007, and average of 103,000 per month. Since 2006, Dr. Powell has created over 3,000 posts. Dr. Chapman has created 360 posts since 2009. Their posts are based on current food safety news stories and include links to research based food safety information. They also include the author's comments and personal anecdotes.

Twitter. On Twitter (https://twitter.com/barfblog, @barfblog) Powell has 2,614 followers with 6,215 tweets. Chapman (https://twitter.com/benjaminchapman, @benjaminchapman) has 1,310 followers, with 3,766 tweets. According to Klout.com, a Twitter influenced measurement tool, Chapman's Tweets are18 times more likely to be amplified than the average Twitter user.

Tweets often link viewers back to barfblog.com or other media, connecting new participants to the learning community.

Food Safety Info Sheets. Sixty-nine Food Safety Infosheets (http://barfblog.com/infosheets/) have been created and linked through Twitter and Barfblog. These one-page fact sheets are focused on creating safe handling behavioral change in food workers and are reviewed by 5 food safety professionals before publication (Chapman, Eversley, Fillion, MacLaurin, Powell, 2010). These are also distributed to 732 listerv subscribers, 507 direct barfblog.com subscribers, and an estimated 800 who receive RSS feeds of www.barfblog.com. Additionally, three direct subscribers were known to send infosheets to all of their organization's outlets—a total of 1,350 sites and 300 support associates, an estimated 15,000 food handlers would have received these publications.

Citizen Food Safety. The citizen food safety project (http://citizenfoodsafety.tumblr.com, #citizenfoodsafety) is a recent addition to the learning community. Anyone is invited to post pictures of good and poor food safety practices. Pictures can be sent through Twitter or Instagram and collected on a Tumbler site. Since September 2013 the project has received 146 posts and has 73 followers. It hopes to engage participants and generate discussion of food safety practices in addition to influencing business to ensure they are following best practices.

Podcast. Food Safety Talk is a biweekly podcast hosted by Dr. Chapman and Dr. Don Schaffner, with 56 episodes currently posted (http://foodsafetytalk.com). The hosts "talk about what's on their minds or in the news regarding food safety, and popular culture. They strive to be relevant, funny and informative (http://foodsafetytalk.com/about/)." Approximately 300 individuals download each episode. Guests are invited into the discussion, and listeners often provide feedback and suggestions for topics. A recent Food Safety Talk episode generated conversation threads of negative tone on a blog managed by David Grumpert (http://thecompletepatient.com), a raw milk advocate. These posts induced the hosts to invite Mr. Grumpert onto the show for a collegial discussion of risk communication and research around the raw milk issue.

Additional Media. The learning community also offers a variety of email list serves, maintains a Facebook page (https://www.facebook.com/safefoodblog), and has used YouTube (http://www.youtube.com/user/bitesbistro). Scholarly research and journal articles are also published regarding the various outreach methods presented (Powell, Jacob, and Chapman, 2011a, Chapman et al., 2010).

Results

The practices and metrics described above will now be considered within the posed theory for high quality leadership programs (Eich, 2008). The barfblog learning community includes *experienced practitioners* as core contributors and their immediate peers, as well as many non-contributing followers from the food safety field. This is one of the attributes in Cluster I: Participants Engaged in Building and Sustaining a Learning Community. The main contributors model critical consideration of food safety and risk communication. *Educators model* is another attribute from Cluster I and is also an assessment factor for food safety culture (Eich, 2008, Griffith et al, 2010). *One-on-one relationships* are not directly shown, though participation in the citizen food safety project and discussion threads support the existence of individualized relationships in the learning community. A deeper analysis and further strengthening of this aspect would support the dimension of *Individualized consideration* from the Transformational Theory of Leadership (Bass & Riggio, 2006). *Supportive culture* is another attribute of Cluster I: Participants Engaged in Building and Sustaining a Learning Community. The culture within the barfblog learning community provides technical support to leaders who would create a culture of food safety, though the scope of this analysis doesn't address the participants' perceptions of a holistic view of supportive culture. Similarly, there is no direct evidence from this analysis to support the attributes of *diverse students* and *small groups,* (Eich, 2008). While these aspects may exist, further investigation and development of these attributes in the learning community would serve to improve the leadership education for food safety managers.

Cluster II Student-Centered Experiential Learning Experiences includes *meaningful discussions.* The contributors to barfblog focus on narratives and discussion. While no specific metrics of discussion threads were presented, this aspect certainly exists in the citizen food safety project. This project also encourages *reflection activities* where participants evaluate and document food safety practices. However, this reflection doesn't seem to include leadership behaviors. Participants should be encouraged to pose solutions from the food manager's perspective. Responsiveness to current food safety news, inclusion of contradictory points of view, and diverse forms of media support the attribute of *episodes of difference*. Another attributed of quality leadership learning communities is *civic service.* Ensuring public health by fostering a culture of food safety is a major goal of the barfblog learning community. Next, retail food managers apply their leadership daily, thus *leadership practice* is easily achieved. However, the evidence previously presented cannot support this with certainty, as no evaluation of participant's leadership practices had been conducted. Other attributes from Cluster II not directly addressed by the barfblog learning community include *application in meetings*, and *discovery retreats*. The food safety manager certification program will include an initial 2-day training with a formal curriculum. Recertification is required every five years. This could provide participation in a discovery retreat relating leadership development and education. Leadership education could be applied in meetings through virtual forums or intermittent seminars hosted through the learning community.

Cluster III: Research-Grounded Continuous Program Development (Eich, 2008) is the strongest cluster for the barfblog learning community. *Flexible design* is achieved by reaching participants through multiple communication forms. These can be integrated into the daily work activates of retail food managers. If the pace of work doesn't allow for active engagement for a period of time, the participants can easily return to the learning community and receive valuable insight without the need to catch up on missed material. The evidence-based opinions provide *values content*, a vital component of creating a culture of food safety (Griffith et al, 2010; Powell, Jacob, and Chapman, 2011b). The final aspect, *systems thinking*, is perhaps the strongest for cluster. The learning community is continually integrating timely food safety news and risk communication methods into the learning community. Not being constrained by a formal curriculum allows for immediate responses to the food safety environment and culture.

Reflections of Practitioner

The virtual learning community created by barfblog and connected media supports transformational leaders (Bass & Riggio, 2006) based on the theory for high quality leadership programs (Eich, 2008). The number and integration of barfblog connected media indicates the contributors commitment developing and delivering a network of research based food safety information. However fact based information surrounding food choices and food safety practice are often centered on biased entities and personalities (Schulson, 2014; Mathiasen et al, 2004). Research based information often doesn't reach the public effectively (Kristof, 2014). Powell, Jacob & Chapman (2011a) elaborate on Kristof's (2014) idea that the incentives for academics do not encourage their participation in a larger learning community through integrated use of social media. Despite these challenges, the practices discussed above indicate a strong research based learning community has been created for retail managers to support a culture of food safety through transformational leadership. However, opportunities exist to improve the education of managers.

Recommendations

The following recommendations are posed based on the analysis presented in the results section. A forum with small group discussions including diverse perspectives and experience of participants would improve the quality of leadership education provided in the learning community. This could support further reflection and discussion of retail food managers' ability to create a culture of food safety. Posts prompting discussion and critical thinking about leadership practice would also support this concept. Participants in the citizen food safety project should be encouraged to pose solutions from the food manager's perspective. Virtual forums or intermittent seminars hosted through the learning community would also allow application and reflection of learning principals through meetings. Retail food safety managers require recertification every five years. This could serve as a discovery retreat relating leadership development and education, including reflection and discussion as well.

A formalized system of tracking participants learning and practice could strengthen the research base supporting similar learning communities. This could be done through activities around key concepts to serve as gateways measuring participants learning and practice. This concept has been implemented in the Khan Academy (https://www.khanacademy.org/about). Students earn badges and points as they progress through educational milestones. This could lead to continuing educational credits and potentially accreditation for formal academic credit. Additionally, this would allow evaluation of this system and further improvement of the learning community structure and content.

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Connecting Concepts to Real World Examples: The New York Times in Leadership

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Abstract

A common thread throughout leadership education is the importance of connecting theory and practical application. The NY Times in Leadership Program (NYTL) was designed to give professors/students opportunities to connect leadership concepts to real-world examples. This session examines the NYTL and how two different universities are utilizing the resource.

Introduction

A common thread throughout the leadership education literature is the importance of connecting theory and practical application. Priority 4 of the National Research Agenda for the American Association for Agricultural Education (2011-2015) is meaningful engaged learning (Doerfert, 2011). The design, development, and assessment of meaningful learning environments is essential to educating citizens of the 21st century (Doerfert, 2011). This idea examines one way agricultural educators who teach leadership can enhance learning in the classroom. Additionally, the National Leadership Education Research Agenda (2013-2018) address the need for meaningful learning experiences in Priority One: Teaching, Learning and Curriculum Development (Andenoro, Allen, Haber-Curran, Jenkins, Sowcik, Dugan, & Osteen, 2013). Priority one states, “Through a deepened understanding of innovative and effective teaching and learning processes, leadership educators have the potential to identify emerging techniques and innovative approaches to teaching” (Andenoro et al., 2013, p. 5).

In the fall of 2012, the New York Times launched an ambitious project to give professors, students, practitioners, and students an opportunity to connect to real-world leadership (Tolar, Perruci, Sowcik, & O’Connell, 2012). Connecting with college students via course content is an effort to provide much needed context for leadership study while cultivating the dying habit of reading a newspaper. The New York Times in Leadership is “designed to give teachers, scholars, practitioners and students opportunities to connect leadership concepts to real-world examples” (The New York Times in Leadership, 2013). Through news articles, discussion questions, reading lists, and video conferences, students have the opportunity to expand their understanding of the practical application of leadership in the 21st century. Every day, leaders and followers engage in a variety of activities in many different settings – business, nonprofit organizations, political institutions. They face local, as well as global, leadership challenges. Their responses to these challenges provide students with valuable insights that will become powerful classroom discussion topics.

Background and Theoretical Framework

Over the past two decades, research in leadership studies points to a number of different ways to deliver information and develop students' leadership competencies (Avolio, 1999; Bridgeforth, 2005; Curtin, 2002; Hackman, Kirlin, & Tharp, 2004; Sowcik, 2012). However, a common pattern has emerged throughout the research which has drawn attention to the similarities between the process of teaching and leadership (Swatez, 1995; Hickman, 1994; James, 1997; Sowcik, 2012). Similar to leadership, teaching requires the setting of goals, the ability to influence, motivate, enlighten, transform and ultimately empower others to become capable of teaching/leading themselves (James, 1997; Sowcik, 2012).

Different than other academic discipline, effective teaching in leadership education and the process of empowering students participating in leadership courses, does not just happen by lecturing about leaders and leadership (Swatez, 1995, p. 76). "As an academic discipline, leadership studies *does not have the luxury of simply being memorized or passively absorbed" (Sowcik, 2012). Instead instructors need to present different learning opportunities to empower students and provide them the context to achieve their own goals and actively understand the process of leadership.* The practice of active learning, the use of multiple teaching methodologies, and opportunities for students to engage fully in the learning process is a natural outcome once an instructor makes the choice to empower students. Once a student feels empowered, "they are more likely to engage in dialogue around leadership and be able to deal with the ambiguity associated with the discipline" (*Sowcik, 2012).*

However, one of the challenges leadership educators face when trying to empower students to engage in dialogue *for* and *about* leadership, is the application of in-class learning to everyday leadership examples. As the student population within academia continues to change and become more diverse and the demands on faculty/staff continue to grow, less time is available to develop well thought through examples for different leadership studies subject areas (Keeling, 2004, p. 6). The New York Times in Leadership program draws on the different contexts and practical examples presented in The New York Times to provide faculty and students with a common experience in which they can discuss leadership. The New York Times program can be used to address the "firewall," which is often set up around a classroom, limiting the amount of external information that enters the learning environment (Foster & Tam, 2004).

The theoretical framework for the study discussed in this presentation is the constructivist learning theory. The constructivist stance involves learning as a process of constructing meaning or how people make sense of their experience (Merriam & Caffarella, 1999). According to the constructivist learning theory, "learners take in information and cognitively process it in ways that reflect their needs, dispositions, attitudes, beliefs, and feelings" (Schunk,2000, pp. 23-24). Learners are at the center of the learning process as they construct their understanding based on what they study (Eggen & Kauchak, 2001). Merriam and Caffarella noted "meaning is made by the individual and is dependent on the individual's previous and current knowledge structure" (1999). Citing Driver and others (1994), Merriam and Caffarella (1999) posit specifically the social constructivist view is that knowledge is "constructed when individuals engage socially in talk and activity about shared problems or tasks" (p. 262). The social constructivist view involves talking about the world and reality while also learning the culturally shared ways of understanding (Merriam & Caffarella, 1999).

Description of the Practice or Discussion/Interaction

Initially, the session will address the resources offered through The New York Times in Leadership program. A brief overview of the Daily Article, Case Studies, Leading Thoughts and Webinars will be provided. In the second part of the session, examples will be provided on how these resources are being used in and out of the classroom to facilitate a dialogue that focuses on leadership application. Presenters from two different universities, who teach leadership in an agricultural education department, will discuss how they implemented The New York Times in Leadership program in their leadership courses. At Oklahoma State University in the Department of Agricultural Education, Communications, and Leadership in the spring 2012 semester a section of a one-credit hour leadership seminar course was taught using the New York Times in Leadership Daily Article. The class met once a week for the traditional 16- week semester and students were assigned to act as discussion leader for each week of class. The discussion leader selected one article from the five daily articles selected for the New York Times in Leadership Daily Article. An enrolled student volunteered to create a class facebook site where the discussion leader could identify the article to be studied. Students agreed that the chosen article would be posted by the Monday before the Wednesday class and that students would also be required to also comment on the posted article before class time.

At Texas A&M University in the Department of Agricultural Leadership, Education, and Comunications, in the summer 2013 semester, the New York Times in Leadership program was implemented into a newly developed leadership elective course focused on leadership and the media. All students in the course were partnered with another student in the course and assigned to read one of the Daily Articles from the New York Times in Leadership program, create questions, answer those questions with their partner, and lead a discussion about leadership with the rest of their classmates. Case studies, which are also part of the New York Times in Leadership program, were also utilized in this course. Case studies are assembled based on multiple types of media and questions are developed for different stages of the case study. In this course, students were assigned to read the entire case study and were split up into four groups and asked to present their understanding of leadership from a section of the case study.

Reflections of the Practitioners

The New York Times in Leadership program has been a meaningful pedagogy for leadership courses taught in two agricultural education departments and is making the learning environment for students more meaningful. Through the use of Daily Articles from the New York Times in Leadership program, students are able to construct their understanding of leadership through reflection and socially constructed experiences of leading a discussion.

Instructors have observed that students appear to be more engaged with the course material when they are able to apply it to real life events. Discussion questions utilize the context of the news story to apply leadership theory. Furthermore, when students are able to lead discussion, they participate in dialogue and socially construct meaning from real life events. Some students have even commented they learned more in this course than any other leadership course because they really saw the connection to the content they were learning and were able to solidify their viewpoints on certain subjects. The New York Times in Leadership Daily Article is driven from all sections of the newspaper. While the context is not always agriculture, there is great potential for “teachable” agriculture moments when the use of agricultural articles is utilized.

Recommended Next Steps

Both universities plan to continue the use of the New York Times in Leadership program for their seminar courses. Discussion questions and instructor notes are provided to instructors on the program website and we believe it would be helpful to make those available to the student leading the class discussion. Prior to leading a class discussion, it is suggested that students reflect and write out answers to their questions. Requiring students to reflect on the article before class discussion starts can ensure meaningful dialogue occurs during class discussion and students are constructing knowledge both socially and cognitively (Merriam & Caffarella, 1999).

Session participants will be provided with a free trial of The New York Times in Leadership and encouraged to review the resources to see if they would be applicable to their particular courses. For those participants interested in The New York Times in Leadership, additional resources will be made available to them. Additionally, as session participants become more involved with The New York Times in Leadership, more opportunities to connect and discuss resources will become available.

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A Roadmap for Helping Students Develop the Five Practices of Exemplary Leadership

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Abstract

In a personal leadership course at [University], the 5 Practices of Exemplary Leadership Model is incorporated into content throughout the semester. Experiential learning activities were adapted from various sources and implemented to enhance lecture for each of the five practices. Reflections reveal students believe the class activities influenced their development of the five practices.

Becoming Student-Athlete *Champions*: Identifying Athletic Role Models as Leaders

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Abstract

The *Champion* assignment, used in a course for new student-athletes at Texas A&M University, requires student-athletes to identify role models that inform them about life lessons and transitions from sport to non-sport identities. Analysis of the assignment revealed that student-athletes selected leaders in and out of their social groups. The assignment also appeared to help this group of student-athletes merge their student and athlete identities.

The Hunger Project: Developing Civic Leadership through Service-Learning

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Abstract

Service-learning can provide students with meaningful connections to a cause, the campus, and the community. Such connections not only enhance leadership development and civic engagement, but also support academic performance and persistence. This innovative practice paper illustrates how Kansas State University faculty, students, and community partners designed and implemented a semester-long service-learning experience for the purpose of exercising leadership to make progress on the social issue of hunger. We describe how service-learning can be a catalyst to explore and engage the learning nexus of social challenges, leadership, and civic engagement.

Introduction

"Educational leaders have come to realize that the critical issues facing our nation can be solved only through the creation of educated citizens." (Cress, 2005 p. 12)

Universities and colleges exist for multiple purposes, blending preparation for both career success and citizenship for a global context. As the Cress (2005) quote above implies, for many educational leaders, the civic mission of higher education (i.e., engaged citizenship, civic engagement, personal and social responsibility) has become an imperative (AAC&U, 2007; Campus Compact, 1998; Levine & Dean, 2012). Johnson and Woodard's (2014) review of introductory leadership curriculum identified a need to strengthen the intersections between leadership education and civic engagement. Service-learning can provide students with meaningful connections to a cause, the campus, and the community. Such connections not only enhance leadership development and civic engagement, but also support academic performance and persistence. This innovative practice paper illustrates how K-State faculty, students, and community partners designed and implemented a semester-long service-learning experience - the Hunger Project - for the purpose of exercising leadership to make progress on the social issue of hunger/food insecurity. We describe how service-learning can be a catalyst to explore and engage the learning nexus of social challenges, leadership, and civic engagement.

Review of Related Scholarship

Civic Leadership and Social Change

Johnson and Woodward (2014) reported that of the 77 leadership course syllabi they studied, only about one quarter of them had a civic component. We believe that leadership education programs and courses have the potential to lead the way in fulfilling the civic purposes of education. The purpose and structure of contemporary leadership education programs have been strongly influenced by the belief that our society needs more and better leaders, that leadership can be taught (and learned), and that the college environment is a strategic setting for leadership development (Astin & Astin, 2000; Rost & Barker, 2000; Zimmerman-Oster & Burkhardt, 2000). The widely emphasized Social Change Model of Leadership (HERI, 1996; Komives & Wagner, 2009) frames socially responsible leaders as individuals who are motivated to exercise leadership for the purpose of impacting change on behalf of others and for the benefit of society as a whole. Within this framework, leadership cannot be separated from civic purposes. Crislip and O'Malley (2013) define civic leadership as leadership *for the common good*. They suggest we all share in both the problems and opportunities of civic life; therefore we all have a responsibility to mobilize and energize others to make progress on civic challenges (Crislip & O'Malley, 2013). Connecting these two perspectives, leadership for social change could be considered both the process and product of civic engagement.

Service Learning: A Pedagogy for Civic Leadership

Civic leadership capacity can be developed through community-based educational experiences (Cress, 2005). One assumption of the Social Change Model (SCM) is that service is a powerful vehicle for leadership development (HERI, 1996; Komives & Wagner, 2009). We argue that the vehicle is actually service-learning, or the intentional integration of academic learning (in this case, the study of leadership) and relevant community service (Howard, 1998). Ash and Clayton (2004) describe service-learning as a "collaborative teaching and learning strategy designed to promote academic enhancement, personal growth, and civic engagement" (p. 138). These three learning goals: academic, personal, and civic, drive the design of both the experience and critical reflection (Ash & Clayton, 2004).

Saltmarsch, Hartley, and Clayton (2009) distinguish between tradition and democratic approaches to civic engagement/service learning. The traditional approach reflects engagement in service *for* the benefit of a community partner. A democratic framework considers processes and purpose, as well as the activity itself (2009). The community partner co-creates the learning process; thus, service is not just for, but *with*, the partner (2009). Applied to an introductory leadership course, this approach creates powerful learning opportunities as students engage with and reflect on not only what their leadership *is for*, but who they are exercising leadership *with.* The idea of purpose and process closely connect with the Social Change Model.

Why Hunger?

Hunger and food insecurity have become inescapable social realities in America (Holben, 2010), particularly given the increase in poverty (Edelman, 2012) and decreases in government spending to address them (Somers & Block, 2005). In 2012, 14.5 percent of American households were food insecure (Coleman-Jensen, Nord, & Singh, 2013). According to the *Feeding America* website (n. d.), hunger exists for over 50 million Americans, including more than one in five children. The Hunger Project described in this paper demonstrates a strategic, experiential approach to understanding how progress could be made on this civic challenge, while at the same time furthering students' leadership development.

Description of the Practice

For over 10 years, the School of Leadership Studies at Kansas State University has partnered with the Flint Hills Breadbasket, a community based food assistance program, to assist in efforts to reduce hunger in the community. An annual canned goods collection called “Cats for Cans” was historically facilitated as a community service project through LEAD 212: Introduction to Leadership Concepts. In Fall 2013, our faculty team believed that we could enhance the learning and leadership development potential by integrating the high impact practice of service-learning into the existing course structure. Informed by the PARE model of service-learning (UMD, 1999), the DEAL model of critical reflection (Ash & Clayton, 2004; 2009), and the Social Change Model of Leadership Development (HERI, 1996), we designed “The Hunger Project”. The overarching purpose of this project was for students to explore the question of “Leadership for what?”, and to engage deeply with leadership concepts while exercising leadership through service.

This project mobilized over 900 first-year students, 65 class leaders (peer educators), four faculty, a staff member from the city of Manhattan, Kansas and several other partners in a seven-week learning experience. Introduction to Leadership Concepts is a one semester, two credit-hour course facilitated in two parts: 8 large lecture sections of approximately 100 students each meet once per week for 50 minutes, followed immediately by learning communities (small groups of 12-14 students) for an additional 50 minutes. Much of the work of this project occurred at the learning community level, facilitated by class leaders.

The PARE model of service-learning provided a framework and context to help students understand and apply leadership to the issue of hunger. PARE stands for Preparation, Action, Reflection, and Evaluation (UMD, 1999). For each phase of the process, students received an assignment “guide” with direction and reflection prompts. (See Appendix A for an example of the assignment overview.)

Preparation:

In the preparation phase, students were invited to start thinking critically about the issue of hunger and food insecurity in the United States and in the local community. This involved completing a self-study (individual research on hunger), followed by a group discussion to identify root causes of the issues. Additionally, learning communities set their own academic, personal, and civic learning goals, completed a team analysis, researched their pre-assigned neighborhood, and developed an initial action plan.

Action:

The action phase mobilized students for the can collection, which was a four-step process. First, learning communities created a personalized flyer and attached them to grocery bags donated from partner stores in the area. The flyer gave information about the project and notified the community member with the date and procedure for food pick-up. Next, students delivered bags to their pre-assigned neighborhoods. Then, they returned to collect the bags of food. Finally, students delivered the food to the Flint Hills Breadbasket where they weighed and sorted the food. Some students were also able to assist in food “basket” preparation, as well as distribution to breadbasket patrons.

Reflection:

During this phase, students completed an individual reflection on the experience, and then engaged in a group debrief conversation guided by the class leader. We incorporated Ash and Clayton’s DEAL Model (2004, 2009) as a way for students to: a) describe their experience, b) examine their experience through lens of personal growth, academic content, and civic responsibility, and c) articulate their learning. Common themes of learning during the group discussion were captured to assist the group in developing their evaluation.

Evaluation:

The evaluation component was an opportunity for each learning community to articulate their learning in a form that was both professional and authentic to their group (e.g., poster, portfolio, presentation, or video shared during a meeting with their lead instructor). The evaluation question prompts were adapted from Ash and Clayton’s (2009) recommendations for “articulation of learning” based on Bloom’s Taxonomy:

1. What did we learn from the Hunger Project?
2. How did we learn it?
3. Why does it (the learning) matter?
4. What will I (as individual members of group) do as a result of the Hunger Project?
5. What will we (the entire group) do as a result of the Hunger Project?

Discussion of Outcomes/Results

Assessment of this project is continually evolving. We initially collected data from grading rubrics; however, the most valuable data of student learning came from faculty and class leader observations, data collected during the evaluation meetings, and the group’s final “products” (learning artifacts). We plan to experiment with additional methods to collect formative and summative assessment data in future semesters.

From an academic perspective, students shared learning around several key topics covered in class. Most notably, their evaluations included descriptions of how they applied:

- Personal and team strengths
- Servant leadership
- Inclusive leadership
- Transactional and transformational leadership

A common theme of personal development that emerged in students’ reflection was related to their ability to work in a group. They especially noted how time management was a challenge, and how difficult it can be to mobilize a group of very busy people to accomplish a goal.

From a civic perspective, students made progress on the issue of hunger in the local community through the collection of a record-breaking 15,811 pounds of food, as well as over $1000 in financial donations. This food was used to create holiday food packages for 300 families, in addition to supporting regular food pantry patrons. Students, faculty, and partners recognize that charitable food donations address only one small piece of the hunger issue; however, the project helped students gain a greater awareness of the needs in the local community. Indeed, many students indicated that this was “more than a project”. They gained a stronger sense of connection to the community just beyond the campus walls, and believed that they could “make a difference” through simple acts of service.

Reflection & Recommendations

Leadership educators can create learning environment that challenge students to consider the nexus of social challenges, leadership for the common good, and civic engagement through service. We believe our model of the Hunger Project provides an example for educators who wish to incorporate service-learning in an introductory leadership course. While our example was on a large scale, the principles of design using the PARE Model and DEAL Model of reflection can be applied to any course context. We echo Johnson and Woodard (2014)’s challenge to further explore leadership education’s role in fulfilling higher education’s civic mission. We believe the intersections between leadership and civic engagement that can be both designed and discovered through democratic approaches to service-learning and community engagement. Based on our experiences, we offer the following lessons-learned/recommendations for practice.

- *Community partnerships are developed over time*. We acknowledge that would not have been able to make the giant “leap” into service-learning without a decade of partnership with the Flint Hills Breadbasket behind us. The trust and communication already established created the right environment to move from doing service *for* the Breadbasket to engaging the community need *with* the Breadbasket. A key question we are asking ourselves now is: How can we enhance our partnership from just a semester-to-semester project to year-round engagement?

- *Evaluation of service should include not only student learning, but community impact*. As we continue our project, we are seeking out better ways to evaluate the experiences from our partner’s perspective. Were their expectations met? What impact or change have they experienced? What has the impact been on their patrons?

- *Service-learning is not an activity for the class, it IS the class.* By this we mean that we realize the full potential of service learning depends on intentional course design. With each iteration of the “project” we improve the “process”. The service experience is the backbone of the course, allowing us to make connections between their experience and course themes. We have streamlined our syllabus to cover fewer topics, creating more space for experience and reflection. We emphasize models/theories of civic leadership and social change, as well as topics relevant to the process, such as personal strengths, inclusion, diversity, servant leadership, and group conflict.

- *As a community of learners, we must remain adaptive.* No process is ever perfect, but both success and “failure” within our system have provided faculty and students with opportunities for learning. As we continue to evolve our own understanding of the issue of hunger in our community, our roles and approaches will also have to adapt.

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Appendix A: Overview of the Hunger Project (Student Version)

Here is the overview of the process your learning community will engage in together to exercise leadership:

STAGE	PURPOSE	PROCESS
Preparation (30 points)	Preparation increases the likelihood of positive outcomes for everyone involved. Preparation includes information on logistics, information about the content of the project, information about broader issues relating to the project, including the context of larger social issues, and expectations and assumptions of the participants.	Complete the *Preparation Guide* steps for the Hunger Project which will include: • Through conducting research, learn about the issue of hunger and how it relates to exercising leadership • Setting goals for this experience – What will success look like for your Learning Community? • Understanding and communicating with your group • Establishing a project timeline
Action (10 points)	The action phase might involve three types of serving the community and working with your group through: 1) direct action, 2) indirect action, 3) advocacy	Utilize the *Action Guide* to help document your experience and track attendance. Steps in this phase include: • Executing your timeline and plan for can collection and work with the Flint Hills Breadbasket • Working together as a Learning Community to make progress on your goals.
Reflection (20 points)	Reflection allows those participating in service to: Think critically about their experience; Understand the complexity of their service experience and put it in a larger context; Challenge their own attitudes, beliefs, assumptions, privileges, prejudices, and stereotypes; Transform a single project into further involvement and/or broader issue awareness; and, Ask *"Why?"*.	Complete your *Individual Reflection Guide* prior to class (10 points) As a learning community, you will engage in a group debrief conversation guided by your class leader during class time (10 points)
Evaluation (40 points)	Evaluation of the experience is important in determining to what extent the goals and learning objectives of the	See the *Evaluation Guide* for complete description, prompts, and grading rubric. As a learning community, you will create an

	project were met and reinforces new learning and application for future involvement.	authentic and professional expression of learning to present to your lead instructor. This could be a poster, presentation, notebook or other tool to articulate your learning.

Adapted from:

- Ash, S. L., & Clayton. P. H. (2009). Generating, deepening, and documenting learning: The power of critical reflection in applied learning. *Journal of Applied Learning in Higher Education, 1*, 25-48.
- Cress, C. M., Collier, P. J., & Reitenauer, V. (2005). *Learning through serving: A guidebook for service-learning across the disciplines.* Sterling, VA: Stylus.
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EDUCATOR'S WORKSHOPS

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Preparing the Next Generation of Pro-social Leaders through Six Strategic Components

Astrid Garza & Jorge Salcedo
Universidad de Monterrey

Abstract

Our global context aims for improvement and for a positive change in many areas. So, how can we as educators promote the development of leaders who will use their skills for the society's betterment? Learn six strategic components that encourage the development of pro-social leaders, which have been successfully implemented at the Universidad de Monterrey, Mexico.

Introduction

Leadership is conformed by a diverse array of elements; and leaders need to be prepared to be able to portray different skills according to the context, situation, and the people's needs. So, how can we encourage leadership development and prepare the next generation of leaders among the youth?

The presentation proposes six strategic components for promoting leadership development among the youth. Through the presentation, the participants will learn six specific components which have been applied within a leadership course taught to undergraduate students at the Universidad de Monterrey, Mexico. The components proposed are: setting the foundation through leading by example, establishing self-awareness, determining a personal life's mission and vision, increasing social awareness and empathy, developing critical thinking skills, and fostering teamwork.

Review of Related Scholarship

The six components proposed are very important to foster when seeking to promote pro-social leaders among the youth. The importance and impact of these six aspects have been mentioned by many authors. Consequently, some of the authors that convey the importance of these components will be cited, including the arguments they make regarding the importance of such components among leaders and for leadership development. As a result, some theoretical foundations for each of the six components will be mentioned:

(1) Setting the foundation through leading by example (educators as caring leaders). Leaders need to model the way and need to give a personal example by showing a dedicated execution (Kouzes & Posner, 2012, p.74), which is in accordance to the social cognitive approach. Additionally, Palmer (as cited in McCombs, 2005, p.33-34) argues that teachers end up teaching who they are, and for such reason teachers need time for self-reflection. Teachers need opportunities to learn and change their minds. The success of students may depend greatly of what they make out of the different encounters they have with their teachers as they study within the educational system. The effectiveness of the teachers in the school system will be apparent in the lives of their students now and in the future (Aremu & Moyosola, 2012; Berkowitz, 2002).

(2) Establishing self-awareness. Positive leaders are people who express themselves in a complete manner because they know their capabilities and weaknesses (Bennis, 1989; Goleman,1998; Goleman, Boyzatis, & McKee, 2002). In accordance to George (2007), self-awareness is the first step for developing effective leadership. Additionally, according to Goleman et al., (2002) self-awareness means having a deep understanding of our emotions, our limitations, strengths, values and motives. Self aware leaders have a propensity for self reflection and thoughtfulness, which allows them to think things over instead of reacting impulsively. In addition, being self aware helps the leader have a sound sense of his or her self worth and capabilities which promotes self- confidence.

(3) Determining a personal life's mission and vision. Effective leaders have a clear perspective about what they want, why they want it, and how they will achieve it (Bennis, 1989). Also, they are effective change agents (Conger, 1989). This kind of leaders have a cause, and also they develop a vision for a better future (Kouzes & Posner, 2012). Effective leaders have a clear idea of what difference they want to make within their community, what legacy they want to leave (Secretan, 2007).

(4) Increasing social awareness. Leaders who seek to have a positive impact need to acknowledge the needs and problems their community has; also, they should want to make a difference by helping to solve those problems (Greenleaf, 1970; Spears, 1998; Hunter, 1998). If leadership is not oriented towards bringing a positive impact, by seeking to contribute to society, it will only bring personal gain. According to Eldesky (1994, as cited by Allen, 1999), there is a need to re-theorize education to make it serve for democracy. The rights and responsibilities of students should include a responsibility to society. Then, a crucial part for developing social awareness among leaders is encouraging positive character traits as empathy and compassion (Goleman, 1998; Goleman et al., 2002; Bencivenga, 2003).

(**5) Developing critical thinking skills.** The next generation of leaders will need to be able to view our reality with a critical eye, in order to analyze it and raise difficult questions which challenge the status quo (Heifetz, 2001). Here, we are talking about leaders who can diagnose our current status quo, and find solutions to the nation's problems by using critical thinking skills.

(6) Fostering teamwork skills. Leaders need to understand the power that exists among teamwork (Kousez & Posner, 2012) and how they can increase their abilities by working as a team, having by this, advantages for making a difference within their context.

Lesson and Plan Description

Approximately 50% of our presentation will engage the audience in active participation. We believe that participants can provide valuable knowledge and that they hold great experience, which can enhance the presentation. Also, we are certain that the best learning occurs when teamwork is promoted and when attendees are involved in the learning process. For such reason, we will start the session providing the biography of a pro-social youth leader and the impact he has made, and then, we will promote among the participants the discussion about the skills and aspects they believe are important to promote for encouraging pro-social leaders among their students. They will share their ideas in small groups and then, some will share their ideas with the whole group. Next, each strategic component will be introduced. For each component, research based information as well as practical data with techniques for its implementation will be included. For some components, participants will experience a technique or strategy that they may implement for developing such components among their students.

Some activities that will be held during the session are:

1. A specific strategy for writing the personal mission and vision statements will be taught. The participants will experience the proposed strategy, in order for them to be able to apply it with their students as well. The focus of the strategy is to promote a mission and vision statement that has a pro-social orientation, in order to foster the development of pro-social leaders among the students.
2. Also, several strategies for promoting teamwork skills will be given. One of the suggested strategies will be implemented within the workshop. The teamwork activity will use 'tangrams' for its implementation.
3. Additionally, during the whole session the participation and discussion of the participants' views regarding the topics presented will be sought.

Discussion of Outcomes/Results

The content of the proposed presentation is based in our experience as professors and developers of the leadership course that is currently being implemented at the Universidad de Monterrey, Mexico. This leadership course is oriented towards high school and undergraduate students. In addition, it is based in our peer-reviewed journal article: Garza, A. & Salcedo, J. (2013). Five Elements for Encouraging Leadership among Mexican Undergraduate Students. *Journal of Strategic Leadership, 4(*2), 14-25.

Astrid Garza started working on leadership and character development since 2004. She has worked as a professor, teaching social responsibility and leadership courses to high school and undergraduate students. She received an Excellent Teacher Award (2009), and helped develop a leadership course that is currently being implemented at the Universidad de Monterrey, Mexico. Astrid Garza holds a M.Ed. in Leadership Studies from UVic, Canada; and is a doctorate candidate in Character Education from Regent University, V.A.

Jorge Salcedo started working as a consultant for the government's youth department of the state of Nuevo Leon, Mexico since 2002; where since then he has been fostering the development of leadership among the youth. Also, he was a coordinator at the leadership center of the Universidad de Monterrey from 2001 - 2013. Currently, he works as the human resources and business administration program director at the Universidad de Monterrey. Jorge Salcedo holds a M.Ed. in Leadership Studies from UVic, Canada; and is a doctorate candidate in Organizational Leadership from Regent University, V.A.

Workshop Plan & Implications

Participants will leave with a clear idea of six important components that they should consider when seeking to promote the development of pro-social oriented leaders among their students. During the workshop the participants will gain practical evidence of how to successfully implement each strategic component, taking as a foundation the undergraduate leadership program of the Universidad de Monterrey, Mexico. Also, the participants will experience some of the techniques used for developing the leadership components. Additionally, participants will exit the presentation with practical knowledge, strategies, and techniques that they may implement.

<u>Workshop´s Goals</u>

1. Participants will analyze and discuss the main components that need to be implemented for encouraging the development of pro-social leaders.

2. Participants will gain practical evidence of how to successfully implement each strategic component, taking as a foundation the youth leadership program of the Universidad de Monterrey, Mexico.

3. Participants will experience some of the techniques used for developing the leadership components among the students.

4. Participants will exit the presentation with practical knowledge, strategies, and techniques that they may implement with their students.

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Online Opportunities: Innovative Ways to Focus on Learning When Teaching Online

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The field of leadership education has approached online learning with trepidation. To date little scholarship has been published in the field, and skepticism abounds. Having collectively taught 15 online courses, we often get skeptics asking “How do you teach leadership online?” This workshop is our response. The target audience are the skeptical leadership educators but we welcome both current and curious leadership educators who want to learn more of how to teach leadership online.

We will challenge participants to move away from a deficit approach where online is viewed as inherently inferior to in-person education. When designed from the beginning to leverage the technology to one’s advantage, online leadership education is a powerful medium to teach our modern students.

Participants in this workshop will depart with a new appreciation for online leadership education and how it can be done effectively. They will be able to identify ways that students are learning better online over in-person classes. Further, many of the tools we share for online leadership education can be applied to strengthen in-person classes too. We expect participants to develop a plan for incorporating at least one tool into one of their classes in the coming academic year and they will share this plan during our workshop.

Lesson Plan

To connect this scholarship with practice, we will facilitate a highly interactive workshop where participants will learn new paradigms for approaching online leadership education, innovative methods for online leadership education, examples from practice, and finally exercise using selected tools during the workshop in an online lesson. For fully participating, participants will need to bring laptops or tablets and be connected to the Internet to practice using the tools.

Introduction

We will begin by providing a quick overview of the workshop and setting the expectation of full participation. The presenters will share brief backgrounds and information on our online education experiences. Then participants will be asked to share their experiences by doing a quick brainstorm of their fears, hesitations, bad experiences, and perceptions about online education. These responses will be recorded on a flip chart.

Key learning outcomes.

1. Gain an appreciation for online leadership education
2. Be able to identify three advantages for student learning in online classes over in-person classes

3. **Plan to incorporate at least one tool in their online/in-person class in the coming academic year.**

It Can Be Done Well

What do we know about online learning? To start, we know it's here to stay, and becoming more prevalent every day. The National Center for Education Statistics (2011) reports approximately twenty percent of all undergraduate students take at least one distance course. Many graduate programs now offer at least some distance options, while many offer whole degrees online.

At it's core, online pedagogy is distinctly difference than face-to-face (Dykman & Davis, 2008). This may seem obvious, but do we teach faculty how to change their pedagogy for this new environment?

It takes more faculty time, not less. Initial course planning takes more time - some numbers suggest one and a half to three times as much work ahead of time. (Levitch & Milheim, 2003; Hyslop, 1999). And basically all preparation has to be done ahead of time.

Online teaching requires a shift from "sage on a stage" to facilitator, coach, "learning catalyst" (Volery, 2001). Online learning requires students to take initiative and responsibility for their own learning, for the discovery process and problem-solving. We literally can't require them to sit and listen to us, so instead we must figure out how to encourage and facilitate them actively exploring the material themselves. We have to change our thinking, and focus on learning instead of on teaching. One good way to do this is to think of teaching as guided discovery instead of direct instruction (Yelon, 2006). Jot down something you needed to learn about recently (i.e., I'm about to buy a new car, so I've been researching options). How did you go about acquiring this learning? How can you design learning in an online course to facilitate this type of self-directed learning?

We know that understanding the technology is key (Dykman & Davis, 2008) and many faculty do not receive good training that facilitates them utilizing the technology to it's fullest. Most of the current Learning Management Systems (LMS) have a plethora of options to help you develop a great course. The only way to take advantage of these new tools is to take some time to learn at least some of them! You also have options beyond the LMS provided by your university - other LMSs, regular email, Facebook, Twitter, blogs, etc.

Cultivating community online & relationships with students is even more important than in-person courses (Sadera, Robertson, Song & Midon, 2009; Palloff & Pratt, 2007). Most of us really enjoy face-to-face relationships, so this is hard. We know, though, that most of our students are used to cultivating relationships in the online environment. How can we co-opt these techniques to help students develop relationships with each other and with us?

Online learning can be effective in different ways than face-to-face teaching, and sometimes can be MORE effective.

Ways students learn better online. There are many possibilities for students learning differently and sometimes better online. For one, it often allows for more in-depth class-wide discussions. In online discussions students can skim through all their peers' comments then read and respond to those comments that really resonate for them. In in-person classes the time constraints prevent everyone from sharing in depth. So I have students share in pairs. But while walking around I sometimes notice two students not paired together are sharing perspectives that each would benefit to hear. Those are just the times I notice! How many times would everyone benefit from hearing everyone but we just don't have time? Online discussions effectively enable this peer-to-peer learning.

Second, online learning is more self paced for students to manage their energy levels. Ever have students in class fall asleep? We all have, even with interactive activities. I once had a student nod off while paired in discussion with a partner! The partner just looked at me with a lost look. This is illustrative of the in-class students, but how many times do students miss class (and miss learning) because of life happenings? Online our students can manage their energy levels and engage when the time is right for them. They also tend to miss less content and can keep up or catch up with the class. This can be particularly valuable for our non-traditional learners.

The third way students learning differently online involves choices among multiple modes of delivery. Giving students choices in how they learn content increases their motivation to invest time in their learning (Bransford, Brown, Cocking, 1999). The simple act of choosing helps students be more committed to and responsible for their learning. By way of example, like many of us I teach Emotional Intelligence in my leadership class. I'm not the first person online to do this, dozens of people have read Daniel Goleman's books and posted online videos, webpages, animations, and examples in action. So rather than give my students a video lecture, or assign a chapter to read, I gathered others' resources. My role was to create the framework for learning and for each element of Goleman's EI theory I linked to resources that describe it better than I ever could. Students choose which mode or modes they want to study and at the end of each they have a couple comprehension and application questions. This gives students multiple modes from which they can choose to learn the content and achieve the same learning outcomes. (My online module for this was so much better than the in-person class activity I used to do, I now use the online module with the in-person class and schedule it for a class period when I have to be out of town.)

How To Do It Well

Best practices in course design and implementation. To start, it is critical to create and share very clear expectations.With less interaction with you, it becomes especially important for you to establish guidelines for participation, grading, and how to succeed in the course. All feedback you give to students should be able to point back to a resource you have already provided for them, whether it be the syllabus, a set of policies and procedures, or a rubric.

Second, it is best to use a variety of tools and techniques to facilitate learning and get students involved. Here in a bit Clint is going to preview quite a few different tools and techniques - try these, use a few traditional ones, find others! The only way to know what works for you, your students, and your course is to try some things. Think carefully about which tool or technique serves your particular learning goals the best.

Third, use the technology as an advantage. This can seem overwhelming when you are first learning how to work things, but most critically don't let the technology dictate your pedagogy! Decide what you want to do and the best way to do that virtually, and then work with the resources you have on campus to make that happen.

Fourth, consider using current events and links to online content often. Students are more likely to actually view and interact with online content, and using current events and media connections is nothing new - this has been helping students connect to material in the classroom for a long time and is just as relevant online.

Fifth, assess learning early and often. Students crave feedback even more in a course where they don’t see your face, so provide it. You can steer students back on track quickly and avoid major detours down the road. You may be asking, but what about testing? We challenge you to consider what you really need to know about what your students have learned, and how you can best discover this. Tests tend to assess learning at the most basic level - knowledge and comprehension. Occasionally this is our most important goal, but typically at the college level we are looking for more than this. How can you best assess application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation?

Sixth, work to create a supportive online community. We talked about this already, but part of your expectations for students need to detail out what you expect of them in this area, and then you need to model it.

Finally, Be present! If students can tell you are a part of what's going on in the class, it goes a long way towards them feeling connected, supported, and positive about the course. Provide frequent and detailed feedback - students thrive on hearing what you say about their work, and it is one of your biggest tools for being a "learning catalyst". It doesn't work, though, if it doesn't happen early and often. Think of it as steering them on the right path to learn what you want them to learn - if you let them go a while without even noticing where they are going, they likely won't even be on the road anymore! Small corrections early on can get them going in the right direction more easily.

Tools. So how doe we put into practice these ideas? Today we’re going to share a few techniques that Carol and I use, plus a few tools that can support these best practices. This compilation of techniques and tools is every evolving, and I’m sure that you have your own techniques and tools that you could add to this discussion. We’re going to invite that in just a few minutes! So write down the things you use and want to share here today. To get us started, though, I’ll share a few of ours.

Techniques.

Develop–Discover–Discuss model. Asking really good questions causes really deep thinking by students, and online discussions are an area to share these thoughts and students can learn from each other. But one challenge in online discussions are the prior posts. The good question elicits a great response from the first and maybe second responding student. But often then the great responses decay into “I agree with her” and “This is a real good point.” Why? Because students read the question, read their peers’ posts, and then focused on those ideas and not creating new ideas. That’s not their fault—we design the discussions that way. (I wouldn’t expect the first responding student to ever write “I agree”!). But using the Develop-Discover-Discuss model we can help students think deeply and create their own ideas, share them with classmates, then engage in discussing each others’ ideas.

Develop - at the end of a reading assignment pose a thought-provoking question that invites students to write a short paragraph as their answer.

Discover - then students go to a discussion board, cut-and-paste their answer paragraph to a post, and discover their classmates’ posts too.

Discuss - now students are primed with their own thoughts and others’ thoughts, now they can engage in constructive online discussions with classmates by responding to each others’ thoughtful paragraphs.

Paper self-critique and peer critique online. Blackboard, Canvas, and other LMS provide great annotation tools for marking up papers. Students can use these too. Through self critiquing students learn to improve their own writing, plus through peer critiquing students learn from annotating each others’ papers.

Self critiquing - After each paper is due, ask students to wait 24-48 hours and then re-read their own paper and use the annotation tools to mark it up. This includes catching spelling and grammar, identifying key insights they had, and comparing the paper to the assignment’s rubric. This last step is huge for me—students identify where they fulfilled the rubric and critique their own work. Then grading becomes a process of reviewing their critique and supporting or challenging them. All of this is online with feedback coming as fast as I can grade—no waiting until everything is graded to return the papers.

Peer critiquing – I often feel selfish when grading papers. Students write such amazing thoughts and I am the only one who benefits?? Peer critiquing shares the wealth and online peer critiquing is so much easier than students bringing duplicate paper copies to class. I find my students struggling also benefit more from seeing reading their peers’ papers than all the constructive feedback I alone give them. Further, I am impressed at how professional students are at providing feedback, giving lots of positive feedback, and they write much more on 3 peers’ papers than I can write on 70 papers. Things that I’ve found that help improve the feedback process include setting clear expectations of comment frequency (e.g. three per page), and asserting how to use the tools (e.g. highlight in green for great points, highlight in blue for needs improvement, write a note for why next to each).

Weekly team meetings online and continual improvement feedback. Online learning can feel distant and disconnected, indeed this is the default we must work against. Carol earlier described several best practices for instructors and how to improve the experience for students. These go a long way to addressing the instructor-student connection. But what about student-student connection? Even in large, in-person lectures, students connect with each other before and after class periods. But online this informal connection is more difficult and contributes to the distant and disconnected feeling. Team meetings can help this. Assign students to 5-7 person teams based on their weekly availability and set high expectations that they meet via video chat each week at their scheduled time. Invite them to rotate facilitators and they suggest the topic list each week. For each week I also provide ‘suggested team meeting topics’ at the bottom of assignments, enabling the facilitator to pick these up and use them in the team meetings. Of course these meetings are awkward at first, but then students find the community aspect highly engaging. The content and the whole learning experience becomes more real for them. Providing a discussion board and asking “What went well this meeting?” and “What would you suggest to improve the next meeting?” helps continual improvement. Students are honest and the facilitators appreciate the feedback. My experience is that teams get much, much better at the meetings because of this process.

Practical tools to facilitate learning. Most instructors don’t get to choose their LMS, and we’re not going to focus on Blackbaord, Sakai, Moodle, Canvas. But within each of these, you can imbed or link to really great tools that can add value to your lessons and enhance students’ learning. Here are a few of our favorites that aren’t yet widely known. If we gave this talk a year ago or a year from now this would be a different list. Again, please write down the tools you use and want to share in a few minutes.

Disqus - discussions with threads and voting. These discussion boards are easy to use, and add the twist of voting. That’s not needed for many class discussions but it can greatly enhance some discussions. When you want to capture student value of each post, consider embedding Disqus discussions and invite students to upvote/downvote the posts. These discussions can also persist across semesters by embedding the same Disqus discussion in subsequent classes. How could your students benefit from sharing their thoughts with future students? How would they benefit from reading last semester’s students’ thoughts?

Wix.com - create websites easily and professionally. Creating web content that looks great can be time consuming and the focus of students can unfortunately shift to the technology instead of the content. Wix.com enables great-looking websites that are quick to set up and get students back to creating the content. You’ve probably visited Wix.com websites. The ALE 2014 website was built with Wix.com!

Adobe Voice. Create an explainer video in minutes, complete with visuals, narration, and background music (create on iPad only, then share video with anyone). Video lectures can be boring, perhaps most of all for the lone instructor sitting in an empty office staring at a webcam. The new Adobe Voice app can replace this. Quickly create explainer videos and then share them with students via a link or embedded video. Students will follow along as your voice narrates the animation on screen that showing what you’re describing.

Vidbolt.com - Annotate web videos as a class. Finally. I’ve been wanting a way to enable students to mark up a video clip for years. This spring I discovered Vidbolt.com. While watching a YouTube.com or Vimeo.com clip, students can annotate what they’re watching and see their classmate's annotations too. In my online class students watch an episode of The Office and apply French and Raven's Levels of Power. This tool is so much better than even watching the clip in person together. How could your students benefit from socially annotating a video clip?

FlockDraw. Draw or paint using this online whiteboard tool, easily share a drawing or even collaboratively create a drawing. Free and no registration needed. So much of online sharing is text based. In the classroom I invite students to draw out their ideas and then share and describe them. But doing this online could involve a scanner, uploading and hosting issues, viewing peers' drawings—just not worth it until I found FlockDraw. Without registering users can draw or paint using a whiteboard. When they're done, sharing is as simple as copying a link and pasting it in the discussion. Easy! You can even ask students to do these drawings and share in their online teams.

Wikis for sharing. Differing from a threaded discussion, Wikis allow a more flexible format to organize thoughts and contribute collectively. To help with creating new ideas, consider having students develop content on their own, and then find where they can contribute in a Wiki. This is also a great format for sharing ah-ha moments related to class content in own life or in the news. When students see connections of what we're covering in their own life they really want to share, providing a class-wide wiki for these moments helps direct this to a place everyone can benefit from seeing it.

Supporting online teams. There are quite a few tools available to help online teams. A couple of our favorites include Catme.org, which helps students succeed in their class-related team experiences and develop the ability to work more effectively in teams. Also, Zoom.us or Meetings.io provide Cloud-based video meetings. With no account required of participants, simply click a link to join.

How You Can Do It Well

For this portion of the presentation we'll provide an online lesson using some of the tools provided. Participants will have a chance to use the Develop-Discover-Discuss technique in an online discussion about their best experience learning online. Students will contribute to a Wiki describing other tools they've used successfully online, and identify a new tool they plan to use. For those who have time, they will create an Adobe Voice video of one insight gained today. We'll wrap up the presentation with questions and answers.

Discussion of Results

All of the course designs and learning tools we have used in our own online classes. Focusing on the participants' learning from our experiences, we will share the results of these practices.

To illustrate, in a 300-level undergraduate leadership theory class taught online for three summers, outcomes have been highly positive. Students report in course evaluations that the class as one of their favorite classes in college. Assessment of student learning demonstrated that online students had substantially higher variation in the learning when compared to classroom students. The number of students who did not submit assignments and failed the course was significantly higher online than in person. But students who kept up with the course schedule demonstrated learning outcomes equivalent to classroom students' learning outcomes. Further, online students consistently identified better applications and examples in their summer workplaces of course concepts than on-campus classroom students identified.

Workshop Implications

The last 35 minutes of the workshop time will be invested in participants learning online together. We will provide an online lesson to model what the workshop addressed and engage participants as online students. Participants will experience the course design and pedagogies previously discussed, including practice using four online tools and online interaction with fellow participants.

Learning outcomes for our participants include:

1. Gain an appreciation for online leadership education
2. Be able to identify three advantages for student learning in online classes over in-person classes
3. Plan to incorporate at least one tool in their online/in-person class in the coming academic year

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Teaching Leadership from a Systems Thinking Perspective

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Abstract

Our emerging global society demands that we broaden teaching leadership from the individual's to a larger systems' perspective. We should integrate systems thinking into the way and what we teach about leadership. In this workshop, participants will value systems thinking in leadership education by understanding and applying systems thinking.

Introduction

In the emerging global context, societies and cultures have become so profoundly interdependent that leaders need to think to the larger systems perspective to understand how a leader "consciously moves from interacting with and influencing a system that is merely complex toone that is a true complex system" (Darling, 2012, p. 203). The practice of systems thinking, which is looking at how individual parts fit in a larger set of circumstances, has its roots in biology and ecology (Senge, Kleiner, Roberts, Ross, & Smith, 1994) and has been suggested for the work of organizational leadership (Wheatley and Kellner-Rogers, 1998). Darling (2012) noted the correlation between systems thinking and leadership theory can inform us how to construct future knowledge. Systems thinking can be integrated into the way we teach and what we teach about leadership by recognizing the valuing that systems thinking can have on leadership education by aiding leaders to understand leadership beyond the individual perspective. The objective of this workshop is to engage participants in understanding and applying systems thinking in order for systems thinking to be used as a tool to teach effective leadership.

Review of Related Scholarship

In order to adequately prepare participants for a larger and global system in which they will practice leadership, participants will need to be proficient in a variety of competencies to effectively engage in leadership. Systems thinking will be one of these leadership competencies that is needed for effective leadership. "Leaders must be able to understand how networks work and be able to navigate through both the ripple effects of others' decisions as well as engage in their own decision making that considers the impact on a larger network or system" (Seemiller, 2013, p. 7).

Systems thinking "encompasses a large and fairly amorphous body of methods, tools, and principles, all oriented to looking at the interrelatedness of forces, and seeing them as part of a common process" (Senge, Kleiner, Roberts, Ross, & Smith, 1994, p. 89). Systems thinking has its roots in the hard sciences, especially the work of biologist Ludwig von Bertallanfy, and has now expanded into many disciplines including leadership (Senge, Kleiner, Roberts, Ross, & Smith, 1994). A system is defined as "an interconnected set of elements that is coherently organized in a way that achieves something" (Meadow, 2008, p. 27). "As our world continues to change rapidly and become more complex, systems thinking will help us manage, adapt, and see the wide range of choices we have before us. It is a way of thinking that gives us the freedom to identify root cause of problems and see new opportunities" (Meadows, 2008, p. 18). More recently, educators and researchers in the field of leadership have observed that systems thinking and leadership theory have co-evolved (Darling, 2012). Leadership education is an evolving discipline because the practice of leadership is rooted in the context of the time and the system in which leadership is operating. Leadership educators must constantly be updating their methods and understanding of leadership based on the contextual and systematic changes. "In light of this evolution, it is appropriate to seek to understand how recent systems and leadership constructs inform one another" (Darling, 2012, p. 190). Systems thinking can be applied to leadership education through the way we teach and what we teach.

The Way We Teach Leadership

Much of the way we teach leadership is from an individual's perspective, how we make the individual a better leader. Educators cannot look at the system of leadership by dividing it into parts (or individuals); the whole system must be examined and understood together (Senge, Kleiner, Roberts, Ross, & Smith, 1994). There is well known parable by Idries Shah called "The Blind Men and The Elephant," in which an elephant was brought to a village of blind men for the first time so they could understand what an elephant was. As the blind men approached the elephant they were each feeling a different part of the elephant, the ears, the trunk, the legs, and each proclaimed a different understanding of the elephant. Meadow (2008) explains that each had perceived what an elephant was incorrectly because they looked at the elephant from only one part. Leadership educators must do the same, they must teach and do leadership from a systems thinking perspective to ensure a holistic understanding. "We can't predict the system by looking at the individuals. Yet we spend long hours analyzing ourselves as individual parts…our learning styles, our leadership styles, our communication styles. We can't predict at all how we or others will perform together. We can't know ourselves in isolation. Life seeks systems. Systems are full of surprises" (Wheatley and Kellner-Rogers, 1998, p. 80).

Systems thinking allows educators to explore teaching leadership from a perspective broader than just cause and effect. A cause and effect approach to teaching leadership will lead to only one answer. Systems thinking will reveal the interconnections and interdependencies with a systems and its parts, thus is never a single answer, but rather a variety of potential actions to take. Methods such as 'The Five Whys' can truly help leaders and educators understand the larger system and bring more depth into the understanding of leadership by digging deeper into the root cause of problems and understanding links and loops in the system (Senge, Kleiner, Roberts, Ross, & Smith, 1994). It is vitally important to include systems thinking in the conversation of leadership education; otherwise educators are prone to approaching leadership from a dualistic or one-sided perspective.

What We Teach About Leadership

The early leadership theories were based on the traits and behaviors of a leader, as evidenced in the trait and behavioral theories of leadership that emerged in the early to mid1900s (Northouse, 2007). As time went on, theorists began to contextualize leadership considering both the situation and reciprocal nature of the leader-follower relationships reflected in the situational and process theories of leadership (Northouse, 2007). This meant an adjustment in the way leadership is viewed by leadership educators, moving from a leader only perspective to a systems perspective of leaders, followers, and the process interconnected. Yet, much of leadership education is still teaching about the skills and behaviors a leadership should possess in order to be an effective leader as evidenced in book such as Steven Covey's *7 Habits of Highly Effective People* and John Maxwell's *The 21 Indispensable Qualities of a Leader*.

Participants also need to understand and be taught from a systems perspective in order to cognitively develop as leaders. According to Perry's Theory of Intellectual and Ethical Development, participants start at a dualism stage where they see solutions as very dichotomous, either right or wrong, or good and bad. In order to move participants along to the next stage of multiplicity, when participants start to understand and see different points of view, and eventually commitment in relativism, when participants make choices based on the context they are in at the time of the decision. Participants must learn to understand different points of view and ask the more systematic and holistic questions in order to judge the information they are given (Evans, Forney, and Guido-Dibrito, 1998). Systems thinking thus can be the universal language in which to teach and engage in leadership. "Although systems thinking is seen by many as a powerful problem solving took, we believe it is more powerful as a language, augmenting and changing the ordinary was we think and talk about complex issues (Senge, Kleiner, Roberts, Ross, & Smith, 1994, p88).

Systems thinking is an approach to leadership education that needs a more closer look. Since we no longer operate in a single linear context (through have we ever operated this way, or just theorized it this way) and instead operate in a global complex system, we need to start teaching leadership from a systems thinking perspective as well as teaching about systems thinking. As Wheatley and Kellner-Rogers (1998) explain, systems are constantly emerging and we can't know a system by just looking at the individual. Leadership is a system and it is constantly evolving and as such it cannot be fully understood or taught by just looking at the individual.

Lesson Plan Description

This workshop will use several of concepts of system thinking that are used to teach leadership and systems thinking at my university in our leadership courses and leadership development programs. This workshop will first start with a review the systems thinking competency from

Seemiller's (2013*) The Student Leadership Competencies Guidebook* and then will teach systems thinking from the perspective of the knowledge, ability, behaviors needed to effectively understand and use systems thinking in leadership education.

Learning Outcomes:

- Participants will understand Systems Thinking (Systems Thinking: Understands that individual parts are connected within a larger system).
- Participants will be able to analyze how an impact to one part of a system can have multiple effects (Analysis: Has skills to analyze information for more thorough understanding).
- Participants will value the importance of understanding how systems are connected (Systems Thinking: Values the understanding that individual parts are connected within a larger system).
- Participants will understand and be able to apply Systems Thinking within the context of leadership education (Systems Thinking: Understands that individual parts are connected through a larger system; Systems Thinking: Motivated to make connections of individual parts through a larger system).

Knowledge: An Overview of Systems Thinking

- The definition and components of systems thinking will be presented and explained to the participants.

Knowledge: Understanding Systems Thinking

- Participants will be presented with a case study to examine a system in action and learn how to determine the components of the system and how this relates to leadership.

Ability: Activities to Demonstrate How to Teach System Thinking

1. Understanding and teaching leadership through a systems context (interconnections)
    - Changing Definitions of Leadership activity (Ciulla, 2004)
    - Participants will examine definitions of leadership from the 1920's to present day in the context of what historically happening during that time period.
    - Participants will determine how the definitions are interconnections with the events and sentiments of the time period.
    - Detailed directions are included in the Lesson Plan in Appendix A.
2. Examining systems to understand the butterfly and snowball effects

- Case study from an article by Knudson (2003) *Shifting the Pain: World's Resources Feed California's Growing Appetite*. Participants will examine a case study developed from this article using the 'Systems Thinking Map Worksheet' found in Appendix C. Detailed directions are included in the Lesson Plan in Appendix A.

- Everything is Connected Activity (adapted from Population Education (2011)). Participants will be led through this activity; detailed directions are included in the Lesson Plan in Appendix A.

3. Using systems thinking to understand the why behind an issue

    - The 5 Why's (Senge, Kleiner, Roberts, Ross, & Smith, 1994). Participants will examine a current issue in the news using the 5 Why's framework; detailed directions are included in the Lesson Plan in Appendix A. (note: the current issue will be determined based on what is going on in the news shortly before the conference).

Behavior: Wrap-up Discussion

- Participants will engage in a wrap-up discussion about how to apply systems thinking to leadership education using the concepts brought up in this workshop.

Discussion of Outcomes

I have been teaching systems thinking in my leadership courses for the past 6 years, especially in the Foundations of Leadership, Eco Leadership, and Social Change Leadership classes that I teach. I have learned that students tend to understand leadership issues better when approached from a systems thinking perspective because they are able to see the larger system in which the issue is embedded in. This method does tend to make students see some problems as overwhelming especially from an eco-leadership context, but then systems thinking can be used to show students how to break down these overwhelming problems into steps that can serve as solutions. I first used system thinking in my Eco Leadership class in 2008 to teach about larger global eco issues and how environmental problems were not as simple as pollution in one water way, there was a larger problem of consumerism and entrepreneurism at play as well. My students were quick to grasp the concepts of systems thinking and it helped them dig deeper into issues and then decide how they need to act as environmental stewards and leaders. I continued to teach system thinking in my Social Change Leadership class, which dealt with understanding how social change occurs and how to create social change. Eventually, my colleagues and I started to add systems thinking into our Foundations of Leadership course, to allow our introductory students to understand leadership from a systems/historical perspective.

Recently, I have been on focus group of higher education professionals reviewing a new educational discussion book on peace, justice, and sustainability. Every one of our conversations as a consulting group has been focused on the need to frame this book correctly from a system thinking perspective, in order for the reader to truly understand the interconnections between the book's concepts and how to address issues related to these concepts. This experience reviewing the discussion book and my time in the classroom has firmly committed me to teaching about leadership from a systems perspective. I would like to share this experience with the conference participants so that more leadership educators can understand and use system thinking as a tool for teaching leadership.

Workshop Plan and Implications

The following is the outline for the workshop on teaching systems thinking for leadership education. Systems thinking will be demonstrated as an effective tool to teach leadership through a series of activities that can be used in the classroom or in workshop setting to teach leadership. Discussion questions will also be presented that will help to connect systems thinking and leadership. Participants will gain from this workshop:

- An understanding of systems thinking and its components
- An understanding of the value of systems thinking as a competency for leadership
- The knowledge and ability to facilitate several activities/methods of teaching systems thinking in the context of leadership education

The complete Lesson Plan of the outline listed below can found in Appendix A.
Lesson Plan Outline:

Overview of the Student Leadership Competency - Systems Thinking (2-3 minutes)

A. Knowledge: An Overview of Systems Thinking (2-3 minutes)

B. Knowledge: Understanding Systems Thinking (10 minutes)

C. Ability: Activities to Demonstrate How to Teach System Thinking (1 hour)

1. *Interconnections Activity: Changing Definitions of Leadership Activity (15 minutes)*
2. *Butterfly and Snowball Effect Activities*
    a. *Part 1:Butterfly Effect: Case Study on Knudson (2008) article (15 minutes)*
    b. *Part 2:Snowball Effect: Everything is Connected Activity (20 minutes)*
3. *The 5 Why's Activity (15 minutes)*

Behavior: Wrap-up Discussion (10 minutes)

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Appendix A

Lesson Plan: Teaching Leadership from a Systems Thinking Perspective

Learning Outcomes:

- Participants will understand Systems Thinking (Systems Thinking: Understands that individual parts are connected within a larger system).
- Participants will be able to analyze how an impact to one part of a system can have multiple effects (Analysis: Has skills to analyze information for more thorough understanding).
- Participants will value the importance of understanding how systems are connected (Systems Thinking: Values the understanding that individual parts are connected within a larger system).
- Participants will understand and be able to apply Systems Thinking within the context of leadership education (Systems Thinking: Understands that individual parts are connected through a larger system; Systems Thinking: Motivated to make connections of individual parts through a larger system).

Materials Needed:

- Case Study from *The Inevitable* by Gonzales (2008/2009) – National Geographic Adventure
- Changing Definitions of Leadership (found in Appendix B)
- Case Study from *Shifting the Pain: World's Resources Feed California's Growing Appetite* by Knudson (2008).
- Systems Theory Map (found in Appendix C)
- Flip Chart Paper (7 sheets), Markers, Tape

Overview of the Student Leadership Competency - Systems Thinking (2-3 minutes)

- Systems Thinking: "Leaders must be able to understand how networks work and be able to navigate through both the ripple effects of others' decisions as well as engage in their own decision making that considers the impact on a larger network or system" (Seemiller, 2013, p. 7).
- Competencies are knowledge, values, abilities, and behaviors that help an individual contribute to or successfully engage in a role or task. For systems thinking these are (Seemiller, 2013, p. 8).
    - Understands that individual parts are connected within a larger system (Knowledge)
    - Motivated to make connections of individual parts within a larger system (Ability)
    - Makes connections of individual parts within a larger system (Behavior)

Knowledge: An Overview of Systems Thinking (2-3 minutes)

- Definition: individual behavior is part of a larger system and can create circumstances for change depending on the behavior's effect on the system
- We can understand the system by examine its components or flow:
    - What are the system's interconnections – its links and loops
    - Does it seem to have snowballing effect (reinforcing feedback loop) or more

a butterfly/ripple effect.

Knowledge: Understanding Systems Thinking (10 minutes)

- Using the case study from Gonzales (2008/2009). The Inevitable. *National Geographic Adventure*. Participants will examine the case study using the following questions:
  - How is this case study an example a system? Where do you see its interconnections (links and loops)?
  - What factors influenced the system and created change?
  - What "if" a different decision had been made at different points? How might that have impacted the outcome? Was the system an example of the butterfly effect or the snowball effect?
  - What implications does understanding a system have on leadership actions in the case study? In any situation?
  - If we didn't look at the whole system in this situation, who might we blame?
  - How do we usually look at situations that go wrong, from an individual perspective, who is to blame? How can this affect our ability to lead?

Ability: Activities to Demonstrate How to Teach System Thinking

4. *Interconnections Activity: Changing Definitions of Leadership Activity (15 minutes)*

- Go over the Changing Definitions of Leadership (Ciulla, 2004) found in Appendix B.
- For each definition, ask the participants what they think that definition means.
- Then, ask them what historical events were taking place and how they may have shaped that definition of leadership.
- Ask them to think about how the definition views the leader and views the follower(s).
  - 1920s: End of WWI, prohibition in U.S., women's suffrage movement, U.S. stock market crash
  - 1930s: Depression, New Deal, WWII begins
  - 1940s: WWII, war economy (Rosie the Riveter), GI Bill, baby boom, U.N. formed
  - 1950s: Korean War, rise of union membership, Civil Rights Movement beginning, time of great prosperity in the U.S.
  - 1960s: Civil Rights Movement, Vietnam War, space race
  - 1970s: Great movement and awareness for women's rights, civil rights, the environment, anti-war, gay rights, and farm worker rights, Cold War
  - 1980s: End of communism, rise of conservatism, prevalence of computers, time of major corporate mergers and takeovers, space shuttle Challenger explodes
  - 1990s: Gulf War, invention of internet, rise in/greater attention to mass terrorist activities around the world, Columbine and Matthew Shepard (youth hate crimes and

school shootings), rise in stock market

- 2000s: 9/11, War in Iraq, War in Afghanistan, Hurricane Katrina, financial meltdown of 2008/housing bubble.

5. *Part 1:Butterfly Effect Activity: Case Study on Knudson (2008) article (15 minutes)*

- Have the participants read the case study, then identify the key issue: California's growing need for natural resources
- Let them know that what caused this issue also caused other issues AND the effects of this issue also cause many other issues.
- To visualize this, have the participants turn to the "Systems Theory Map"
- Break the participants in to group of 3-4 and have them write the key issue in the middle
- Have them write 4 causes for the issue on the lines labeled causes.
- Then, have them write 4 effects of the issue on the lines labeled effects below the issue line.
- Then, they should write 1 effect that each of the effects would have.
- Let them know that this cycle occurs before an issue and after an issue as it is a system with an undistinguishable beginning and end.
- Have everyone report out.
- As they are reporting, draw a replica of this map on the board and add everyone's ideas. If there are more than 4 ideas, just add them in until you have a map of everyone's ideas.
- Discussion:
  - How is this case study an example of the butterfly effect?
  - How can understanding the larger system in which California's residents operate in affect their leadership decisions?

2. *Part 2:Snowball Effect Activity: Everything is Connected Activity (20 minutes)*

- This activity is adapted from Population Education (2011)
- Explain that the participants will build a concept map in order to explore cause-and-effect relationships between a world of 7 billion people and the state of society, the economy, and the natural environment.
- Write "7 Billion People and Growing" in the center of your writing surface.
- Inform participants that you want them to think of what might be the social, economic, or environmental impacts of a world of 7 billion people and more.
- Encourage participants to create connections that relate to current events, such as events in the Middle East, U.S. relationships with certain countries, or growth of the Internet. You can provide an example such as "More People" might mean "More Housing Developments" or "More People" might mean "More Deforestation."
- Participants should understand that cause-and-effect relationships can be positive, negative, or neutral.
- Have the class as a whole come up with 5-6 large effects of 7 billion people and growing.

- Then break the participants into 5-6 groups and give each group a piece of flip chart paper and a marker.
- Assign the group one of the 5 effects the class came up with and have them expand on that effect.
  - For each concept that the group adds, they should draw arrows to any of the other concepts that form a cause and effect relationship.
  - Encourage participants to make as many connections as possible.
  - For example, many medicines are derived from natural sources. Deforestation is destroying the habitat of species, pushing them toward extinction. As a result, "Fewer Trees," lead to "Less Biodiversity," which in turn leads to "Less Medicine."
- Give each group about 5-10 minutes. Once the groups are done, have them tape their flip to the wall connecting all the flip charts to the larger "7 Billion People and Growing". The object is for the group to create a large and interconnected web.
- Have each group present out their chart.
- After the groups present, then have each group, using their color maker, make connections between their charts and the other groups' charts.
- After all the groups are done, have each group present on their "effect" and all the connections it has to the other groups.
- Discussion:
  - The issue of 'More People' is contained in what system? It is only 1 system?
  - How is this activity an example of the snowball effect?
  - Review The Laws of Ecology (Callenbach, 2008). Which one fits in this case?
    - "All Things Are Interconnected"
    - "Everything Goes Somewhere"
    - "There's No Such Thing as a Free Lunch"
    - "Nature Bats Last"
  - Why all these effects are connected?

3. *The 5 Why's Activity (15 minutes)*
   - Using the The 5 Why's (Senge, Kleiner, Roberts, Ross, & Smith, 1994). Participants will examine a current issue in the new.
   - Tell the participants that when you're looking to solve a problem, start at the end result and work backward (toward the root cause), continually asking: "Why?"
   - Repeat this over and over until the root cause of the problem becomes apparent.
   - Have the participants examine the issue in small groups asking the 5 Why's.
   - Have each group report out their 5 Why analysis.
   - Discussion:
     - How did this exercise make you think differently?
     - What did it reveal about the larger system?

Behavior: Wrap-up Discussion (10 minutes)

- Engage the participants in a discussion about how the concepts they learned can apply to leadership education. Ask the following questions if these concepts don't come up naturally.
    - Introduce the concept of teaching beyond a dualistic (one sided/ black or white) perspective to helping leadership become committed in relativism (making choices based on the context they are in at the time of the decision). Ask how can systems thinking move students towards relativism?
    - In the Changing Definitions of Leadership activity, how is this activity an example of what we teach about leadership? (Leadership happens in a contextual system).
    - How can we use the other activities to teach leadership from a systems perspective?

Appendix B
Changing Definitions of Leadership (Ciulla, 2004)

1920s: [Leadership is] the ability to impress the will of the leader on those led and induce obedience, respect, loyalty, and cooperation.

1930s: Leadership is a process in which the activities of many are organized to move in a specific direction by one.

1940s: Leadership is the result of an ability to persuade or direct men, apart from the prestige or power that comes from office or external circumstance.

1950s: [Leadership is what leaders do in groups.] The leader's authority is spontaneously accorded him by his fellow group members.

1960s: [Leadership is] acts by a person which influence other persons in a shared direction.

1970s: Leadership is defined in terms of discretionary influence. Discretionary influence refers to those leader behaviors under control of the leader which he may vary from individual to individual.

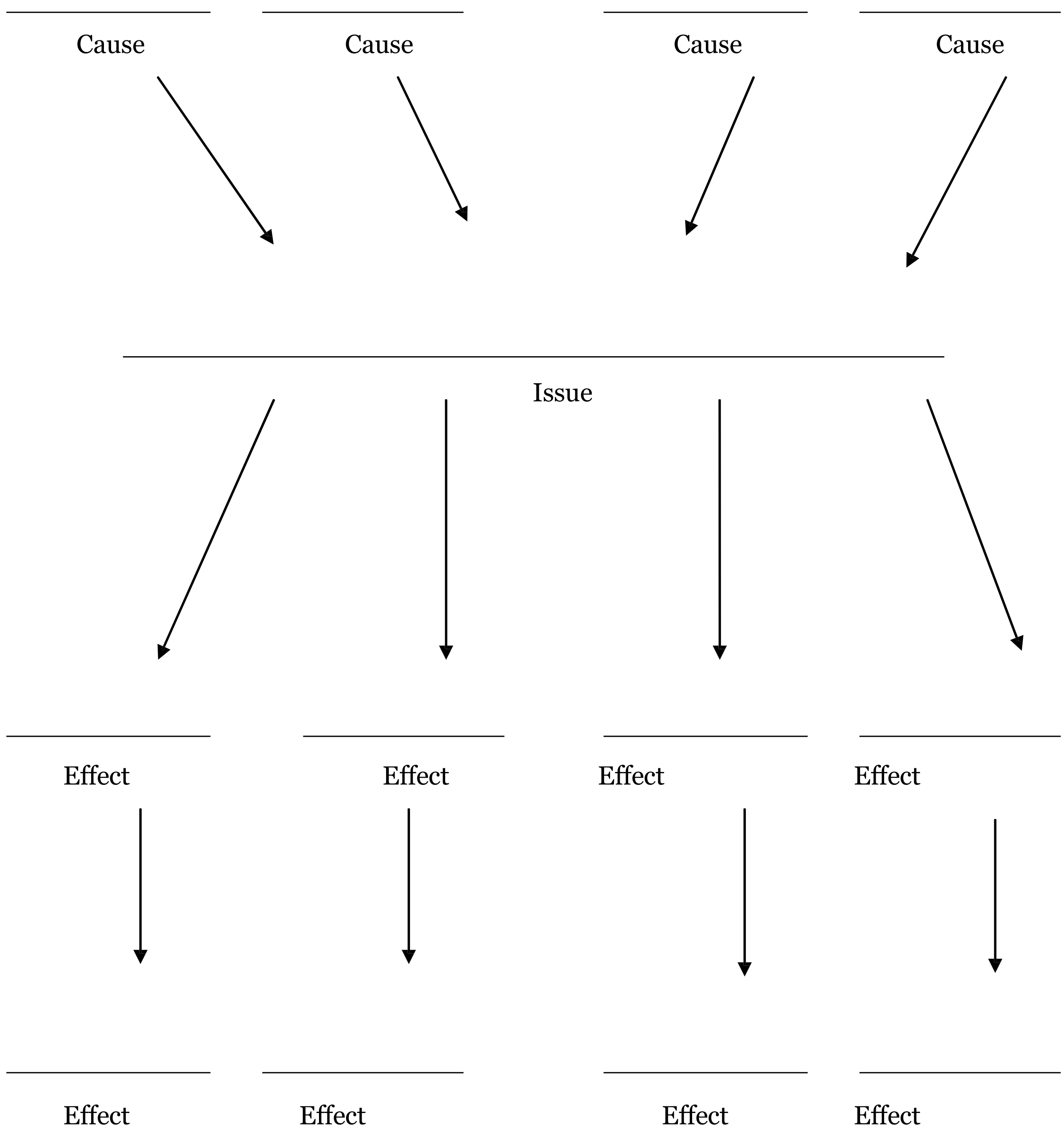
1980s: Regardless of the complexities involved in the study of leadership, its meaning is relatively simple. Leadership means to inspire others to undertake some form of purposeful action as determined by the leader.

1990s: Leadership is an influence relationship between leaders and followers who intend real changes that reflect their mutual purposes.

2000s: Leadership is the process of influencing others to understand and agree about what needs to be done and how to do it, and the process of facilitating individual and collective efforts to accomplish shared objectives.

Appendix C

Systems Thinking Map



Playing Stratego to Teach Competitive Strategy and the Influences of Environmental Change

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Introduction

Stratego, a board game by Milton-Bradley, is an excellent tool for teaching business-level strategy and the effects of environmental change. The game, which can typically be played within a single class period, allows professors to engage students in a learning activity that teaches competitive strategy and the influences that technological, legal, personnel (labor relations and training/development), political, and competitive changes have on organizational decision making and leadership.

Workshop participants will play Stratego and spend time debriefing the exercise and identifying various leadership and management concepts at play within the activity. Participants will gain enough experience in the workshop to use this game in their teaching positions.

Review of Related Scholarship

Corporate-level strategy seeks to answer the question "what business should we be in?" It is most concerned with determining the proper mix of businesses, markets, and industries that an organization should possess. The Boston Consulting Group (BCG) Matrix is one of the most well-known typologies of corporate-level strategy (Stern & Deimler, 2006).

Business-level strategy seeks to answer the question "how do we compete within our chosen market?" One of the best-known models of business-level strategy is one proposed by Miles and Snow (1978). Ryszard Barnat (n.d.), in a chapter from an online strategic management textbook, clearly describes the four business-level strategies identified by Miles and Snow—defender, prospector, analyzer, and reactor.

> ***Defender Strategy***. Organizations implementing a defender strategy attempt to protect their market from new competitors. As result of this narrow focus, these organizations seldom need to make major adjustments in their technology, structure, or methods of operation. Instead, they devote primary attention to improving the efficiency of their existing operations. Defenders can be successful especially when they exist in a declining industry or a stable environment.
> ***Prospector Strategy.*** Organizations implementing a prospector strategy are innovative, seek out new opportunities, take risks and grow. To implement this strategy, organizations need to encourage creativity and flexibility. They regularly experiment with potential responses to emerging environmental trends. Thus, these organizations often are the creators of change and uncertainty to which their competitors must respond. In such an environment, creativity is more important then efficiency.

Analyzer Strategy. Organizations implementing analyzer strategies attempt to maintain their current businesses and to be somewhat innovative in new businesses. Some products are targeted toward stable environments, in which an efficiency strategy designed to retain current customers is employed. Others are targeted toward new, more dynamic environments.

They attempt to balance efficient production for current lines along with the creative development of new product lines. Analyzers have tight accounting and financial controls and high flexibility, efficient production and customized products, creativity and low costs. However, it is difficult for organizations to maintain these multiple and contradictory processes. new product lines.

Reactor Strategy. Organizations that follow a reactor strategy have no consistent strategy-structure relationship. Rather than defining a strategy to suit a specific environment, reactors respond to environmental threats and opportunities in ad hoc fashion. Sometimes these organizations are innovative, sometimes they attempt to reduce costs, and sometimes they do both. Reactors are organizations in which top management frequently perceive change and uncertainty occurring in their organizational environments but are unable to respond effectively. Therefore, failed organizations often are the result of reactor strategies.

Stratego, the board game by Milton-Bradley, can be used as a teaching tool for business-level strategy—a critical skill for organizational leaders. Stratego is a military game that is similar to a combination of chess and capture the flag. The object of Stratego is to capture the flag of your opponent's army before he/she captures your flag. Using pieces of various ranks, players take successive turns moving their pieces to attack their opponent's army and also defending their pieces from attack. Over the course of the game, players will typically change their strategies as advantage sways and as the opponent's strategy is revealed. Stratego is simple enough for a child to play and complex enough for adults. The game is as deep and rich as the minds of the players allow it to become.

At the beginning of each game, participants will be told to think about their strategies before placing their game pieces on the board. While playing the game, participants will periodically be asked to stop playing and consciously think about their current strategy. When the games conclude, time is spent debriefing the experience and making sense of when and why strategies change during the game.

To show how environmental forces influence competitive strategy, a variety of rules changes can be introduced during the game sessions. Rule changes can be developed to represent a variety of technological, personnel, legal/legislative, training, illness, labor relations, employee turnover, and political influences. Games are always defined by their rules—and as rules change, so do the strategies to win.

Lesson Plan Description

This session will be spent playing Stratego in pairs or groups of four. A 90-minute session is ideal for this activity. It will provide plenty of time to describe the game and give tips and hints for playing. Time will also be spent talking about the Miles and Snow (1978) strategy types. During the game, rule changes will be introduced and participants will be asked to recommend additional rule changes. The final 15-20 minutes of the session will be spent discussing the experience, insights into the game, and how Stratego could be used in various leadership courses and training sessions.

Discussion of Outcomes/Results

I've used Stratego in my classes for 15 years. The days that we play Stratego in my leadership and management classes are some of the most fun and well-received of the semester. Many students request to meet outside of class to play with others and many have purchased the game for themselves after playing in class.

Students can quickly identify how the strategies of Miles and Snow apply to their play during their games. They are also able to identify the types of change (e.g., training, politics, technology, etc.) demonstrated through the rules changes.

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Modeling the Way: Leaders Teaching Leaders through Inclusive Pedagogies

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Abstract

Leaders lead by example. Research suggests that, in the same way, leadership educators model inclusiveness and facilitate learning environments that emphasize discussion-based pedagogies. This session will engage participants in dialogue about leadership educators' instructional strategy preferences, describe the transfer of classroom-based inclusive pedagogies to real world settings, and involve participants in activities that demonstrate the technique and allow for practice.

Introduction

Leaders lead by example. New research suggests that, in the same way, leadership educators are modeling inclusiveness and facilitating learning environments that emphasize discussion-based pedagogies. This session will share findings from a recent international study of leadership educators' instructional strategy preferences, describe the transfer of inclusive pedagogies as an instructional technique in the classroom to leading and relationship-building behaviors in the workforce, involve participants in activities that demonstrate and allow for practice with inclusive pedagogies, and allow for discussion related other inclusive strategies as well as methods for transfer to real world settings.

Inclusive pedagogies model the way for students and emphasize the use of empowerment in classroom leadership. Through an innovative approach inspired by recent research from an international study of leadership educators' instructional strategy preferences, this workshop will feature best practices for facilitating inclusive pedagogies in a variety of learning environments (including web-based). Through interactive audience participation and the sharing of best practices and experiences, an experienced professor of leadership studies and doctor of curriculum and instruction will demonstrate how instructors can facilitate inclusive pedagogies in their courses, create teaching and learning atmospheres that empower students to become active contributors in their classrooms and discussion boards, and become lifelong learners. Moreover, this session will provide strategies that show how inclusive pedagogies transfer from the classroom to students' own organizational settings, share research that supports the techniques employed, and provide a forum for questions, feedback, and additional discussion.

Review of Related Scholarship

Discussion-based pedagogies model inclusive behaviors, emphasize the use of empowerment in the classroom (Cross, 2002), and are consistent with "inclusivity" as defined by Komives, Lucas, and McMahon (2013), as a means of understanding how different groups or individuals might approach issues from different perspectives, maintain attitudes that respect differences, and value equity and involvement. Being inclusive means having skills that develop members' talent and readily involves them, listening with empathy, and communicating with civility. Komives et al. (2013), posit that, "empowering environments are learning climates," in which people expect successes yet know they can learn from failures or mistakes. Equally, "it is important to establish organizational environments that empower others to do and be their best" (p. 94-95). Likewise, effective positional leaders know that their power and ability to be effective comes from the members of their group—their participants (Kouzes & Posner, 2012). Similarly, leadership educators empower students to be active contributors, adding their perspective and insight to the teaching and learning process. And, in the same way, hoarding power in leadership (or in the classroom) risks negative responses from others that contradict positive group goals and objectives.

Lesson Plan Description

Participants will engage in activities that contrast the differences between inclusive and non-inclusive pedagogies, demonstrate best practices for facilitating inclusive pedagogy through discussion-based and reflective techniques, and offer time for practice and feedback with others. Specifically, facilitators will engage participants in the following learning objectives:

- Share the latest research on instructional strategy use in leadership education from an international study of leadership educators
- Discuss the preference leadership educators have for inclusive, discussion-based, and reflective pedagogies
- Demonstrate best practices for inclusive pedagogies and allow for participant interaction in activities designed to practice these strategies
- Share techniques and illustrate connections between modeling inclusiveness in the classroom and the transfer to real world settings for student implementation

Discussion of Outcomes/Results (Experience with the practice and lessons to date)

The lead facilitator has practiced "inclusive pedagogies" in leadership studies courses since 2008. The specific activities spawned from the "Creating Learning Communities" section of the *Instructor's Guide For Exploring Leadership: For College Students Who Want to Make a Difference Second Edition* (Owen, Komives, Lucas, & McMahon, 2007) as well as some blog posts from *Faculty Focus* (e.g., Weimer, 2013). To date, student reactions have been positive and in fact, are often referred to specifically in instructor evaluations.

The heart of the approach is captured in Owen et al. (2007), as the authors suggest that, during the first class meeting, “It might be helpful to ask students to jot down ideas about what it would take to make this the best class or program they have ever had” (p. 7). In its purest sense, beginning a semester-long course by setting course expectations together, setting ground rules for things like discussion, and openly discussing acceptable and disruptive behaviors, creates an environment that both models and empowers inclusivity. Moreover, it implicitly and explicitly creates a dynamic where the instructor is modeling an environment he or she hopes the students will transcend to their own organizations. With respect to outcomes and results, multiple occasions and one on one conversations support the assertions that these practices not only work, but that students “get it.” In the same way, while students often experience or report dissonance from their first leadership courses and the inherent paradigm shift from much of the classroom environments of their other disciplinary coursework outside leadership studies to the inclusive, experiential environment in leadership education, it is clear that students see the value and aim to implement the practice.

Workshop Plan & Implications (How will you demonstrate or model this activity *for conference participants*? And, what are the foreseeable benefits to participants and potential for application?)

Sessions facilitators will model “Inclusive Pedagogies” through the following agenda:

I. Welcome and Introductions
II. Demonstration of “First Day” activities.
    a. Connection to leadership/followership and postindustrial paradigms.
III. Sharing of a synthesis of study results on instructional strategy use in leadership education from an international study of leadership educators and suggested implications that such practices can be transferred to participants’ classrooms and into their students’ lives.
IV. Large and small group demonstration and practice with multiple inclusive pedagogies that instructors can use to empower students in their own classrooms and beyond.
V. Facilitated discussion: Contrast the preference leadership educators have for inclusive, discussion-based, and reflective pedagogies, the differences amongst other disciplines, and what participants can do to modify these behaviors.
VI. Debrief
VII. Q&A
VIII. Conclude

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Training Supervisors of Student Interns to Utilize the Situational Leadership® II Model

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Introduction

Leadership education students are routinely asked to participate in experiential learning opportunities in which they are mentored by someone outside of academia. It is important to make these experiences as worthwhile, educationally and personally, as possible. One such experience is the student teaching internship. This is a key component of the teacher preparation process. Cooperating teachers play a vital role in the development of student teachers' competencies, confidence, and commitment to teaching.

We have experience teaching supervisors to utilize the Situational Leadership® II Model when working with student interns. The purpose of this workshop will be to demonstrate how supervisors of student interns can be trained to use this model and discuss its implementation to enhance the leadership scenario.

Learner Objectives:

1. Describe the Situational Leadership® II Model
2. Explain the four Leadership Styles included in the model
3. Explain the four Follower Developmental Levels
4. Discuss how to match the needed leadership style with each level of follower development
5. Create a plan to implement the Situational Leadership® II Model when working with student teachers

Review of Related Scholarship

The student teaching experience is crucial in the development of both skill and efficacy of the teacher-in-training (Young and Edwards, 2005). This experience allows student teachers the opportunity to experience the challenges and benefits of being a full-time agricultural education teacher first-hand. It allows an opportunity for students to develop their skills and competencies which will enable them to be successful after graduation and when they start their full time teaching career.

Other fields have opportunities for student's to experience careers first-hand. These experiential learning opportunities are a key component of many college academic degree programs. The experience of the workshop presenters has been focused on that of teacher interns.

Cooperating teachers are vital in the training and preparation of future teachers. The role of the cooperating teacher can be described as that of a supervisor (Kahn, 2001). There are several supervisory models which have been studied in connection with the student teaching experience.

Martin and Yoder (1985) promoted the use of clinical teaching analysis as the supervisory model cooperating teachers should use when working with student teachers. They outlined a procedure to help the student teachers have a successful student teaching experience. The success of the student teacher will depend on the supervisory climate of the student teaching site and "on the educational leadership abilities of the cooperating teacher" (p.21).

A supervisory approach of particular importance was developed by Ralph (1994) called 'Contextual Supervision.' He developed the approach from several prior research efforts, including Hersey and Blanchard's original Situational Leadership Model (1969). "In the Contextual Supervision model, individuals in a supervisory role match their supervisory styles to the contextual variables characterizing supervisee's situations" (Ralph, 1994, p. 354). He states the supervisor is the experienced educator (cooperating teacher, university supervisor, etc.) and the supervisee is "any professional or preprofessional educator who, in a relationship with a supervisor, intends to learn or improve a specific skill or task" (p. 354). Ralph (1994) professes the level of competence and confidence exhibited by the supervisee will influence how the `supervisor goes about supervising their experience and growth. The unique situational characteristics must be taken into consideration by the supervisor in order to help the supervisee develop and grow.

The contextual approach to supervision has been investigated in the agricultural education profession in the cooperating teacher-student teacher context (Thobega & Miller, 2007; Theobega & Miller, 2008). Thobega and Miller (2007) investigated the use of five types of supervision cooperating teachers may utilize when working with student teachers: clinical, contextual, differentiated, conceptual, and developmental supervision. Of the five types of supervision, Thobega and Miller (2007) found cooperating teachers most often used contextual, clinical, and conceptual models of supervision. Thobega and Miller (2008) reported student teachers prefer their supervisors use clinical and contextual supervision practices more than other types of supervision. Although there is not one best approach to supervision, it is important for supervisors to analyze their situations to determine the best supervisory approach (Thobega & Miller, 2008).

The Leadership Model

The model used for this educational workshop will be the Situational Leadership® II Model (Blanchard, Zigarmi, & Zigarmi, 1985). This second version of the model is very similar to the original model first proposed by Hersey & Blanchard (1969), but went through several revisions and adjustments between the late 1960s and 1982 (Hersey, Blanchard, & Johnson, 1996). Situational Leadership® II is displayed in Figure 1.

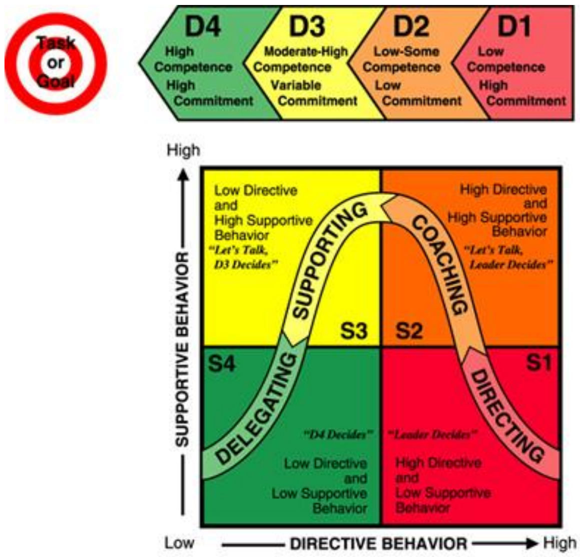


Figure 1.Situational Leadership II® Model. (Graphic from http://elmundopequeno.wordpress.com/2010/10/03/situational-leadership)

The first part of the model focuses on the leader and the two types of behavior they could exhibit when working with followers. Four fundamental leadership styles are identified from the combination of the two leadership behaviors: supportive (relationship) and directive (task) (Northouse, 2010). "A person's leadership style involves some combination of task behavior and relationship behavior" (Hersey & Blanchard, 1993, p. 129). The four leadership styles are: Directive, Coaching, Supporting, and Delegating. The relationship between the level of directive and supportive behaviors exhibited by the leader is the measurement used to identify the leadership style of the leader in the model (Northouse, 2010).

Leaders who utilize the Directing leadership style "provide specific instructions and closely supervise task accomplishment (Blanchard, Zigarmi, & Zigarmi, 1985, p. 30). The Coaching style is characterized by a leader who "continues to direct and closely supervise task accomplishment, but also explains decisions, solicits suggestions, and supports progress" (Blanchard et al., p. 30). The third leadership style in the model, Supporting, is when "the leader facilitates and supports subordinates' efforts toward task accomplishment and shares responsibility for decision-making with them" (p. 30). The fourth leadership style is the Delegating style. "The leader turns over responsibility for decision making and problem solving to subordinates" in this final style (p. 30).

The second component of the model is the level of follower development which will vary due to the competence and commitment of the follower on any given task. Followers should move from a D1 (low development) to a D4 (high development) as their level of commitment and competence on a specific task increases. As the follower learns more about the job, they can move through the levels until they reach the highest level possible (Northouse, 2010).

The four follower developmental levels are a combination of the competence and commitment a follower exhibits toward a particular task. Followers in the first level (D1) are described as "high on commitment and low in competence" (Blanchard et al., 1993, p. 27). Followers in this level are excited about the job or task ahead of them, but require assistance in developing the skills to perform it effectively.

A follower in the second development level (D2) is described as, "having developed some competence, but having low commitment" (Blanchard et al., 1993, p. 27). Followers in this level have begun to learn the competencies necessary to perform the task, but realize the amount of work ahead of them to become fully competent and may begin to feel overwhelmed and frustrated. This decline in commitment requires the leader to provide support and praise for the accomplishments of the follower (Blanchard et al.).

The D3 category describes followers as "high competence with variable commitment" (Blanchard et al., 1993, p. 28). Followers in this level will begin to welcome new responsibilities and challenges, but may begin to waver in their day-to-day commitment. Followers in this level need to be reassured they are doing a good job and encouraged to continue (Blanchard et al.).

The final follower development level is the D4 level. Followers in this level are also called "self-reliant" (Blanchard, 2007, p. 92) because they have developed to the point in which they are competent and committed to performing the particular task. Followers in this level are ready for the full responsibility of the task and should be allowed to continue to perform (Blanchard).

The overarching belief of the Situational Leadership® II Model is "people can and want to develop and there is no best leadership style to encourage that development. You should tailor the leadership style to the situation" (Blanchard, 2007, p. 88). In order to meet the developmental needs of a follower, a leader must consciously match their leadership style to the follower development level. Blanchard (2007) explains the process:

> There are four basic leadership styles in the Situational Leadership® II model: *directive* (S1), *coaching* (S2), *supporting* (S3), and *delegating* (S4). These correspond with the four basic development levels: enthusiastic beginner (D1-*low competence, high commitment*), disillusioned learner (D2-*low to some competence, low commitment*), capable but cautious performer (D3-*moderate to high competence, variable commitment*), and self-reliant achiever (D4-*high competence, high commitment*) (p. 89).

Lesson Plan Description

Title: Utilizing the Situational Leadership® II Model When Supervising Student Interns

Time: 90 minutes

Purpose: Train supervisors of student interns how to utilize the Situational Leadership® II Model when working with student interns.

Objectives:

1. Describe the Situational Leadership® II Model
2. Explain the four Leadership Styles included in the model
3. Explain the four Follower Developmental Levels
4. Discuss how to match the needed leadership style with each level of follower development
5. Create a plan to implement the Situational Leadership® II Model when working with student teachers

Teaching methods:

I. Introduction- 10 min
   a. Introduce ourselves and how we have utilized this model when working with student interns

II. Describe the Situational Leadership® II Model- 10 min
   a. Utilize the PowerPoint to describe the model and how it can be used when working with student interns

III. Explain the four Leadership Styles included in the model- 15 min
   a. Explain the four leadership styles: Directing, Coaching, Supporting, Delegating

IV. Explain the four Follower Developmental Levels- 15 min
   a. Explain the four developmental level: D1, D2, D3, D4
   b. Explain competence and commitment

V. Matching the needed leadership style with each level of follower development- 20 min
   a. Provide examples of how the two components can be assessed and implemented to more effectively work with and develop student interns

VI. Create a plan to implement the Situational Leadership® II Model- 15 min
   a. Lead the participants in a discussion of how they see this model implemented with leaders and followers they work with

VII. Conclusion- 5 min
   a. Wrap everything up

PowerPoint slides and activity are included in the Appendix.

Discussion of Outcomes/Results

This educational workshop has been conducted twice with mentor teachers. The mentor teachers are those that work in an actual high school classroom to develop the competence and commitment of student teachers. The first training was conducted during the summer of 2011 with 13 mentor teachers in attendance. The second training workshop was conducted during the [state] agricultural educators' annual summer professional development conference. The workshop was presented twice during the conference with a total of 48 participants between the two sessions. Participants completed a paper survey instrument upon the completion of the workshop. The participants ranged in experience and number of years in the profession. The majority (62.5%) of the workshop attendees had worked with student teachers in the past (n = 30).

Participants responded to questions to assess their pre- and post-workshop confidence levels. Participants' confidence in performing each of the three steps to apply the model increased. On a scale of 1 = *no improvement* to 5 = *extremely improved,* participants (n = 39) reported a moderate improvement (M = 4.44, SD = .68) in their overall confidence in their ability as a cooperating teacher after attending the workshop. This is a good indication that this workshop is effective in improving attendee's confidence to apply the Situational Leadership II Model when working with student interns. Participants were highly satisfied with the workshop reporting an overall mean of 4.52/5.0 (SD = .72) on eight questions relating to their satisfaction with the workshop.

Participants offered additional advice to the workshop presenters in the form of written statement. There particularly found useful: *Realization of what to look for in strengths and weaknesses, To evaluate myself to become better, Realize all student teachers are different, Realizing the different levels of competency that student teachers may have, realizing there are factors that contribute to success, Seeing there are "levels" of student teachers and coop teachers.*

One participant wanted to know more about how the practice was related to scientific research. A participant also wrote, "Maybe give step by step example of the progression you would like to see used" which helped the presenters improve the workshop for future use.

Workshop Plan & Implications

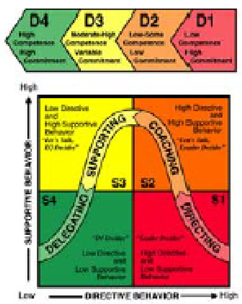
This educator workshop will be useful to leadership educators who work with leaders and followers on experiential learning experiences. Educating the leader on how to gauge the follower's level of development and the need to move them from a beginning (D1) to a highly-skilled (D4) follower is the end goal.

Participants will be introduced to the model and examples will be given on how to use the model when training supervisors of student interns. Opportunities to practice identifying followers' developmental level as well as determining leadership styles and matching the two will be a component of the workshop. Specific examples will be provided as well as encouraged from the attendees.

Effective communication tips and feedback strategies will also be shared to help participants work with future supervisors, mentors, and managers of student interns. Using the Situational Leadership® II Model as the model to help supervisors evaluate and meet the developmental needs of the student intern has much potential. Discussion will revolve around how leadership educators can utilize and implement this model to more fully develop student leaders.

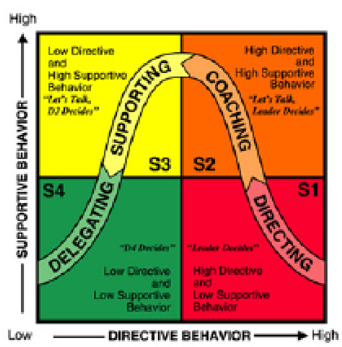
Appendices

Situational Leadership Model



Leadership Style

- Two types of behavior
  - Task (Directive)
    - Extent to which the leader engages in spelling out the duties and responsibilities of an individual
    - Telling people what to do, how to do it, when to do it, and who is to do it
  - Relationship (Supportive)
    - Extent to which the leader engages in two-way or multi-way communication
    - Listening, facilitating, and supportive behaviors



S1-Directing (Telling)

- High task focus, low relationship focus
- When the follower cannot do the job and is unwilling or afraid to try, then the leader takes a highly directive role, telling them what to do but without a great deal of concern for the relationship.
- The leader may also provide a working structure, both for the job and in terms of how the person is controlled.
- The leader may first find out there are any limitations in ability.

S2-Coaching (Selling)

- High task focus, high relationship focus
- When the follower can do the job, at least to some extent, and perhaps is over-confident about their ability in this, then 'telling' them what to do may de-motivate them or lead to resistance. The leader thus needs to 'sell' another way of working, explaining and clarifying decisions.
- The leader thus spends time listening and advising and, where appropriate, helping the follower to gain necessary skills through coaching methods.

S3-Supporting (Participating)

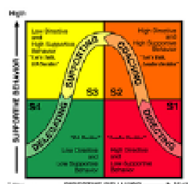
- Low task focus, high relationship focus
- When the follower can do the job, but is refusing to do it or otherwise showing insufficient commitment, the leader need not worry about showing them what to do, and instead is concerned with finding out why the person is refusing and thence persuading them to cooperate.
- The key is very much around motivation.
  - If the causes are found then they can be addressed by the leader.
- The leader thus spends time listening, praising and otherwise making the follower feel good when they show the necessary commitment.

S4-Delegating (Observing)

- Low task focus, low relationship focus
- When the follower can do the job and is motivated to do it, then the leader can basically leave them to it, largely trusting them to get on with the job although they also may need to keep a relatively distant eye on things to ensure everything is going to plan.
- Followers at this level have less need for support or frequent praise, although as with anyone, occasional recognition is always welcome.

What style are you?

- Make a guess as to what your style is the majority o the time
- What questions do you have about the leadership styles?

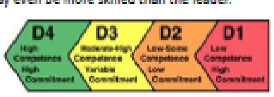


Developmental Level of Follower

- Based on interaction between two factors
  - Commitment
    - Combination of confidence and motivation
      - Confidence- measure of a person's self-assuredness
      - Motivation- a person's interest in and enthusiasm for doing a task well
  - Competence
    - Function of knowledge and skills
    - Gained from education, training, and/or experience

Development Level of the Follower

- **D1 – Low Competence, High Commitment –**
  - Generally lacking the specific skills required for the job in hand, but has the confidence and / or motivation to tackle it.
- **D2 – Some Competence, Low Commitment –**
  - May have some relevant skills, but won't be able to do the job without help. The task or the situation may be new to them.
- **D3 – High Competence, Variable Commitment –**
  - Experienced and capable, but may lack the confidence to go it alone, or the motivation to do it well / quickly.
- **D4 – High Competence, High Commitment –**
  - Experienced at the job, and comfortable with their own ability to do it well. May even be more skilled than the leader.



Developmental Level 1 Indicators:

- New to the task, inexperienced
- Eager to learn; willing to take direction
- Not performing task to acceptable level
- Being intimidated by task
- Being unclear about directions
- Procrastinating
- Not finishing tasks
- Asking questions about tasks
- Being uncomfortable
- Fear of failure

Developmental Level 2 Indicators:

- Has some knowledge and skills; not competent yet
- New task, no experience
- Anxious or excited
- Interested & responsive
- Developing and learning, needs reassurance that mistakes are part of the learning process
- Receptive to input
- Attentive
- Enthusiastic
- Listens carefully

Developmental Level 3 Indicators:

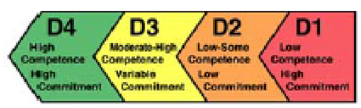
- Has demonstrated knowledge and ability
- Appears hesitant to finish or take next step
- Seems scared, overwhelmed, confused
- Seems reluctant to perform alone
- Solicits frequent feedback

Developmental Level 4 Indicators:

- Recognized by others as an expert
- Keep boss informed of task progress
- Can operate autonomously
- Is results-oriented
- Shares both good and bad news
- Makes effective decisions regarding task
- Performs to high standards
- Is aware of expertise
- Willing to help others
- Share creative ideas
- "take charge" of tasks
- Complete responsibilities on time and perhaps early

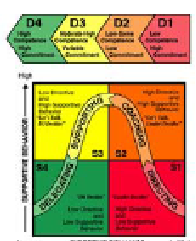
Follower Development

- How can you diagnose what level your student intern is in?



Now what?

- Combine your leadership style to meet the needs of your student teacher
- How is this done?



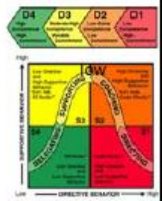
Steps in Situational Leadership Process

- 1. Make an overview with student teacher of his/her tasks
- 2. Assess the student teacher on each task (D1...D4)
- 3. Decide on the leadership style per task (S1...S4)
- 4. Discuss the situation with the student teacher
- 5. Make a joint plan (or at least an agreement)
- 6. Follow-up, check and correct

Matching Leadership Style

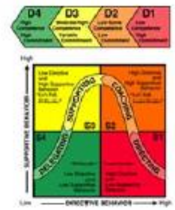
S1 - Directing

- This style is most appropriate for low developmental level (D1).
- It emphasizes high task behavior and limited relationship behavior.
- Provide high amounts of guidance
  - Little supportive behavior
- Most appropriate when follower is in competence, but high in commitment
- Effective behaviors
  - Telling
  - Guiding
  - Directing
  - Establishing



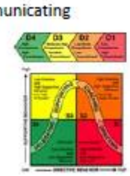
S2 - Coaching:

- This style is most appropriate for low to moderate follower development(D2). It emphasizes high amounts of both task and relationship behavior.
- Follower has some competence, but is low on commitment
- Leader is providing guidance and the opportunity for dialogue & clarification
- This stage answers "why" questions
- Effective behaviors:
  - Selling
  - Explaining
  - Clarifying
  - Persuading
  - Coaching



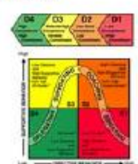
S3 - Supporting

- This style is most appropriate for moderate to high follower development(D3).
- It emphasizes high amount of relationship behavior but low amount of task behavior.
- Follower is able, but has just developed ability and hasn't had an opportunity to gain confidence to perform it
- Follower could also start to lose motivation
- Leaders major role is encouraging and communicating
- Effective Behaviors:
  - Participating
  - Encouraging
  - Supporting
  - Empowering



S4 - Delegating:

- This style is most appropriate for high follower development(D4).
- It emphasizes low levels of both task and relationship behavior.
- Individual is both able and willing (confident)
- Followers are both high in competence and high in commitment
- Effective behaviors:
  - Delegating
  - Observing
  - Entrusting
  - Assigning



Examples of Practice Scenarios

#1

- You have asked your student intern to complete some paperwork concerning the acquisition of new equipment for the office.
- She has previously completed similar work on time with encouragement from you.
- The paperwork is now overdue.
- **What style would you utilize?**

#2

- The Extension office you manage has been working hard to complete the annual report and evaluation.
- Your student intern has just arrived and must provide his input but knows nothing about the required format and system.
- He is excited and enthused about learning more concerning his role in the Extension office.
- **What style would you utilize?**

#3

- Recently, you have begun to have trouble with your student intern.
- You have assigned him to design a leadership workshop for youth.
- He has become lackadaisical and is preparing for the workshop only with constant prodding.
- Because of your experience during the semester, you suspect he may not have all the expertise needed to teach this workshop effectively.
- **What style would you utilize?**

#4

- Your new student intern is feeling insecure about facilitating a meeting you have assigned to her to lead.
- She is highly competent and you know she has the knowledge and skills to lead the meeting successfully and efficiently.
- **What style would you utilize?**

#5

- You have recently been assigned a new student intern.
- It will be his first job to supervise a group of youth during a leadership development activity.
- Even though he is inexperienced, he is enthusiastic and has the confidence to do the job.
- **What style would you utilize?**

#6

- Your student teacher is reluctant to take on the responsibility for planning a leadership program.
- She has had little experience in the area and hasn't ever planned one from start to finish.
- She has done a good job with other assignments and projects you have given her.
- **What style would you utilize?**

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Fort Hays State University's *Seven Principles of Good Practice for Effective Global Leadership Education* (GLE)

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Abstract

This proposal highlights a plan for faculty from the Leadership Studies Department of **Fort Hays State University (FHSU)** to present *Seven Principles of Good Practice for Effective Global Leadership Education* (Appendix A) at an Association of Leadership Educator's 2014 educator workshop. Global leadership education is an emerging and necessary concern for a variety of higher education entities, including International Leadership Association, AASCU, AAC&U, and the National Leadership Research Agenda, among others. An outline for the proposed workshop, including a review of the relevant literature, the desired outcomes, and workshop plan, are included.

Introduction

Chickering and Gamson's *Seven Principles of Good Practice for Undergraduate Education* (Appendix B) was published in 1987 and has served as a model for sound, research-based pedagogy in higher education ever since. Subsequently, other researchers and practitioners have used "seven principles" as a framework for effective practice in other settings (ACE, 1990; Sorcinelli, 1991; Graham et al, 2001; Bangert, 2004).

In this educator workshop, a team of **Fort Hays State University** faculty will present *Seven Principles of Good Practice for Effective Global Leadership Education,* drawing from the institution's many years of experience designing and delivering multi-dimensional and multi-modal global leadership programs and will challenge participants to use the model to implement similar quality programs in their respective organizations. This goal will be met through interactive development of an action plan specific to each participant's leadership program.

Review of Related Scholarship

One of the primary missions of higher education is to educate students so that they are equipped to address the needs of the community and organizations (Boyer, 1987; Colby, Ehrlich, Beaumont, & Stephens, 2003; Longo & Gibson, 2011). Higher education has the opportunity to make a direct impact on the development of globally engaged citizens across the world. The role that higher education plays is both direct and indirect, in the classroom and through co-curricular programs. These experiences give students an opportunity to foster the development of knowledge, skills, and attitudes that prepare students for work and life. The implications of decisions made as citizens in an increasingly more complex world are further reaching than across traditional borders. As Mendenhall and his colleagues describe, these citizens will need to work in a "context involving multiple cross-boundary stakeholders, multiple sources of external cross-boundary authority, and multiple cultures under conditions of temporal, geographical, and cultural complexity" (Mendenhall, et al., 2013, p. 20). As a result of these implications colleges and universities must expand both curricular and co-curricular programs to include global competencies. Now more than ever, higher education must reinvest in educating citizens in a way that expands one's global perspective (National Task Force 2012).

Multiple organizations who support the mission of higher education have ventured into the notion of global education as a critical component of student development in higher education. The American Association of Colleges and Universities (AAC&U) has committed to diversity, global engagement, and social responsibility as being priorities on college campuses across the nation. AAC&U's recent Liberal Education and America's Promise (LEAP) project is championing the agenda for a 21st century liberal education. Two major learning outcomes addressed as priorities in that agenda are local and global civic knowledge and engagement, as well as intercultural knowledge and competence (AAC&U, 2011). Also emphasizing global education in higher education institutions is the American Association of State Colleges and Universities (AASCU) with one of its strategic priorities focused on inclusion and diversity. This global focus can be found in general education, study abroad, international partnerships, and other programs, both curricular and co-curricular. Leadership education has a responsibility and opportunity to take on this challenge of preparing global citizens.

Leadership programs across the country have a responsibility to educate students to be global citizens. As leaders, followers, and lifelong learners, students will be required to effectively lead in organizations across the globe. In order to prepare students to understand and function in our more complex world, comprehensive educational opportunities can provide an experience in which students can begin to understand the inner complexities of organizational life in the world. Institutions will increasingly be called upon to grow the global reach of their programs, as well as ensure the outcomes of those programs include a variety of global competencies.

Articulated through the National Leadership Research Agenda, global and intercultural leadership is indicated as priority seven for the next five years of leadership education research (Andenoro et al., 2013). Including the development of the learner, educator, and organizations, research initiatives should explore the development of global and intercultural competencies in these contexts. At the forefront of these initiatives should be leadership educators. "Leadership educators will be challenged to created innovative paradigms and practices along with educational curricula that will create the impetus for the development of future global leaders" (Andenoro et al., 2013, p. 26).

The International Leadership Association also addressed the importance of global content and context in its Guiding Questions (2009). This living document provides questions and justification for global education to be incorporated into leadership education and development. "The shift to a more globally focused leadership education includes nuances in shifting that include a shift from theory to practice, from parts to systems, from states and roles to processes, from knowledge to learning, from individual action to partnerships, and from detached analysis to reflexive understanding" (ILA, 2009, p. 13).

Fort Hays State University's Department of Leadership Studies has worked to incorporate these elements into the curricular, co-curricular, and administrative components of several international initiatives. This workshop provides a foundational framework for practice that can help guide other practitioners to be more effective at developing, delivering, improving and expanding their global leadership education programs.

Lesson Plan Description

Faculty members in **Fort Hays State University's** Department of **Leadership Studies** will present an overview of several international programs/initiatives and describe the various components of those programs and how they relate to the agendas of AAC&U, ILA, ALE, and AASCU. In particular, a concept map of the curricular, co-curricular, and administrative components of **FHSU**'s international offerings will be highlighted (see Appendix C), with particular emphasis on its cross-border and experiential learning opportunities as well as select co-curricular programs.

An interactive discussion of best practices in global leadership education will be facilitated via small groups, through which presenters will share **FHSU's** *Seven Principles of Good Practice for Effective Global Leadership Education* model and will engage participants in specific activities designed to apply the practices in their respective institutions. The seven practices are listed briefly below. For a more detailed description see Appendix A.

1. Good GLE practitioners adhere to Chickering and Gamson's (1987) *Seven Principles for Good Practice in Undergraduate Education*.
2. Good GLE practitioners understand and are able to negotiate the complexity of all relevant organizational systems.
3. Good GLE practitioners exhibit cultural competency.
4. Good GLE practitioners demonstrate emotional intelligence across stakeholder groups.
5. Good GLE practitioners emphasize a multi-dimensional approach to teaching and learning.
6. Good GLE practitioners adapt the curriculum while maintaining quality.
7. Good GLE practitioners assess and monitor desired outcomes regularly and systematically.

Discussion of Outcomes/Results

The overarching goal of the workshop will be to explore how participants can *practically apply the practices in their own organizations* to implement programs that meet the challenges higher education institutions face in increasing their global reach. The specific desired outcomes for this workshop include:

- Exploring best practices within global leadership education, framed via a "lessons learned" lens at an institution with broad and deep global leadership education experience;
- Developing a deeper understanding of the multi-modal and multi-dimensional possibilities of implementing global leadership across departments in all types and sizes of campuses and institutions, including internships, cross-border programs, study abroad opportunities, increased global competencies within individual courses, and co-curricular initiatives.
- Performing a critical analysis of the various stakeholders and relevant organizational and administrative systems within the participants' individual contexts;
- Creating an action plan for implementing new global leadership initiatives that adhere to best practices within the participants' leadership programs.
-

Workshop Plan & Implications

The workshop will begin with an overview presentation that introduces the presenters, **FHSU**'s global leadership education initiatives, and **FHSU**'s best practices. This presentation will be interactive, with questions and answers encouraged throughout. Participants will break into small groups, determined by either size/type of institution and/or level of experience with global programming in their institutions, and will participate in three distinct activities (Appendix C) in which they will:

1) Critically analyze their organizations in terms of number, type and quality of current global leadership education initiatives and their relevant systems/stakeholders, via an original concept map;

2) Discuss **FHSU**'s *Seven Principles of Good Practice for Effective Global Leadership Education,* identifying their own organizations' strengths and weaknesses in terms of these practices, and
3) Develop an action plan for either implementing new, and/or improving existing, global leadership education offerings.

Five **FHSU** professors, all of whom have different specialty areas of global leadership expertise, will customize the focus of the small group sessions, depending on the interest/experience level of the participants. Each will be able to guide the activities, answer questions, and share their particular expertise in more depth, as needed, according to participants' individual needs.

Participants should leave the workshop with several ideas and concrete tools to take back to their institutions with the goal toward moving forward with improving and/or developing new global leadership program initiatives.

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Appendix A

FHSU's Seven Principles of Good Practice for *Global Leadership Education* (GLE)

1. **Good GLE practitioners adhere to Chickering and Gamson's** *Seven Principles for Good Practice in Undergraduate Education.*

Chickering and Gamson (1987) provide the foundation for good teaching and learning at the undergraduate level. Their principles in turn serve as a foundation for success in global leadership education. FHSU's GLE principles are dependent upon these seven principles being in place prior to engaging in global leadership education.

2. **Good GLE practitioners understand and are able to negotiate the complexity of all relevant organizational systems.**

Systems that affect global leadership education range from the physical infrastructure of the education program/department to the political differences in administration to financial capacity to organizational structure to geo-political issues. Understanding these differences is not enough; practitioners must be able to effectively negotiate among a myriad of critical, relevant systems to achieve multi-modal, successful global leadership education initiatives.

3. **Good GLE practitioners exhibit cultural competency.**

Working in the global environment requires a deep understanding of culture(s) relevant to each global partnership/program, as well as understanding stakeholders' readiness for leadership education. Understanding cultural differences for stakeholders both in and out of the classroom takes time and effort to develop, and should be a primary focus throughout global programming efforts.

4. **Good GLE practitioners demonstrate emotional intelligence across stakeholder groups.**

Knowing ourselves and how we interact with others helps us develop and manage interpersonal relationships. While helpful in our day-to-day life, Goleman's (1997) four tenets of emotional intelligence (*self-awareness, self-management, social awareness,* and *relationship management*) become essential when working in global leadership education, as working across cultures and organizational systems requires a variety of highly developed interpersonal skills.

5. **Good GLE practitioners emphasize a multi-dimensional approach to teaching and learning.**

Combining the complexities of leadership with curricular and co-curricular global education initiatives presents a need for a variety of teaching and learning methods. These methods should include components of active learning, experiential learning, service-learning, study abroad, internships, and other engaged forms of pedagogy. While each program will be unique, all programs benefit from more than one method of teaching and learning.

6. **Good GLE practitioners adapt the curriculum while maintaining quality.**

Leadership is viewed, understood, and practiced differently in different parts of the world. Often times, the need for adjustment in the structure and content of the curriculum is required. Finding a balance that allows for this flexibility without compromising the foundation of the curriculum is one of the challenges faced in global leadership education.

7. **Good GLE practitioners assess and monitor desired outcomes regularly and systematically.**

Along with the need for flexibility in adapting the curriculum comes the need to systematically assess the learning of students involved in global leadership education. Being able to measure and demonstrate increased competency in leadership provides support for the viability of the program. Assessment of learner outcomes should include multiple forms to provide a more complete understanding of learner progress and should be integrated with existing organizational assessment efforts.

Appendix B

Seven Principles for Good Practice in Undergraduate Education

Chickering and Gamson's (1987) work provides a foundation for good teaching and learning, no matter the type or institution, discipline or delivery modality. *"Seven Principles"* is a philosophical foundation upon which good learning is built. The original seven practices based on their work are:

1. Good Practice Encourages Student – Instructor Contact

Frequent student – instructor contact in and out of classes is an important factor in student motivation and involvement. Instructor concern helps students get through rough times and keep on working. Knowing a few instructors well enhances students' intellectual commitment and encourages them to think about their own values and future plans.

2. Good Practice Encourages Cooperation Among Students

Learning is enhanced when it is more like a team effort than a solo race. Good learning, like good work, is collaborative and social, not competitive and isolated. Working with others often increases involvement in learning. Sharing one's own ideas and responding to others' reactions improves thinking and deepens understanding.

3. Good Practice Encourages Active Learning

Learning is not a spectator sport. Students do not learn much just sitting in classes listening to instructors, memorizing assignments, and spitting out answers. They must talk about what they are learning, write about it, relate it to past experiences, and apply it to their daily lives. They must make what they learn part of themselves.

4. Good Practice Gives Prompt Feedback

Knowing what you know and don't know focuses learning. Students need appropriate feedback on performance to benefit from courses. In getting started, students need help in assessing existing knowledge and competence. In classes, students need frequent opportunities to perform and receive suggestions for improvement. At various points during college, and at the end, students need chances to reflect on what they have learned, what they still need to know, and how to assess themselves.

5. Good Practice Emphasizes Time on Task

Time plus energy equals learning. There is no substitute for time on task. Learning to use one's time well is critical for students and professionals alike. Students need help in learning effective time management. Allocating realistic amounts of time means effective learning for students and effective teaching for instructors.

6. Good Practice Communicates High Expectations

Expect more and you will get it. High expectations are important for everyone—for the poorly prepared, for those unwilling to exert themselves, and for the bright and well motivated. Expecting students to perform well becomes a self-fulfilling prophecy when instructors hold high expectations for themselves and make extra efforts.

7. Good Practice Respects Diverse Talents and Ways of Learning

There are many roads to learning. People bring different talents and styles of learning to college. Students rich in hands-on experiences may not do so well with theory. Students need the opportunity to show their talents and learn in ways that work for them. They can be pushed to learning in new ways that do not come so easily.

Appendix C
Workshop Activities

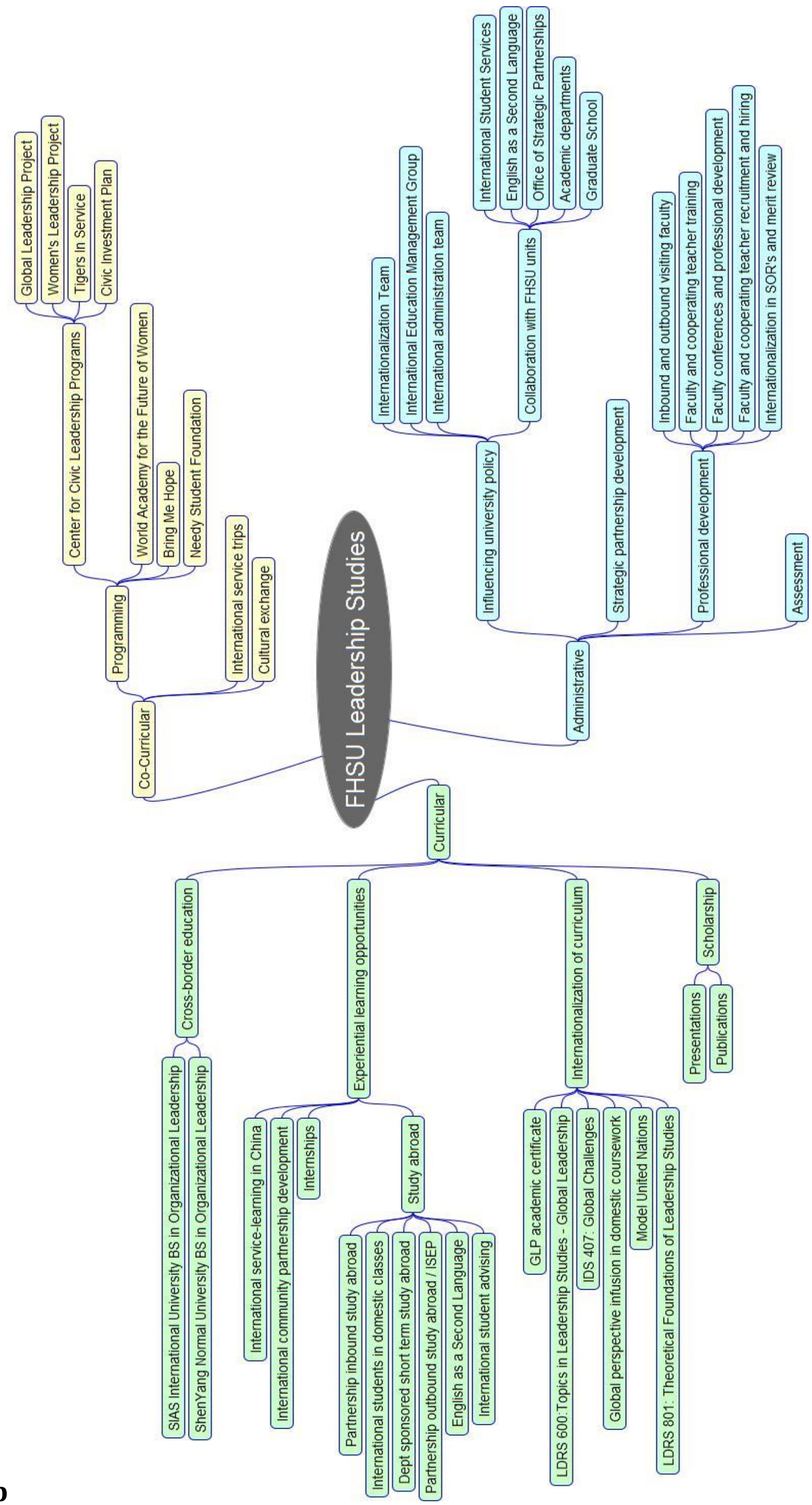
Workshop Activity #1: Mapping Relevant Organizational Systems/Stakeholders

1. Identify the GLE programs and initiatives that are currently offered at your institution.

2. Identify the key stakeholders associated with each of your institution's GLE offerings.

3. Use the space below to create a concept map of your organization, focusing on all the curricular, co-curricular and administrative systems relevant to GLE initiatives/stakeholders.

FHSU's Example Concept



Map

Workshop Activity #2:

***Seven Practices* Small Group Discussion**

Which of FHSU*'s Seven Principles for Good Practice in Global Leadership Education* is currently a strength in your organization? Which provides the most opportunity for improvement? Why? How can your organization leverage its strengths and mitigate its weaknesses with respect to *global leadership education* practice?

Workshop Activity #3:
Action Plan

Develop an *Action Plan* for implementing change within your institution with respect to developing new, or improving existing, global leadership education offerings. Outline the following:

- *What* actions or changes will occur?
- *Who* will carry out these changes?
- *By when* they will take place, and for how long?
- *What resources* (i.e., money, staff) are needed to carry out these changes?
- *Communication* (who should know what?)

Integrating Creativity and Creative Problem Solving into the First Year Experience

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Abstract

An emerging curricular practice by community colleges is to offer first-year experience (FYE) Student Success coursework for all first-time in college (FTIC) students. These courses help students build skills to effectively navigate the transition to college and the ability to succeed and persist in college. However, a couple of challenges that often confront FTIC students are a) getting actively engaged in the coursework and b) gaining a deeper level of learning of the course content. Meanwhile, researchers have described creativity and creative problem solving as a key leadership skill and one that is synonymous with facilitating change. As the student transition process is also synonymous

with change, the author presents a case for integrating creativity and creative problem solving into the delivery of Student Success coursework in order to have students increase their engagement in the course and gain a deeper level of learning. This in turn would not only lead to greater academic success and persistence but also an orientation to essential leadership skills.

Introduction

Colleges are increasingly seeking to implement innovative solutions to address student course and program completion. An emerging curricular policy in community colleges is providing first-year experience (FYE) Student Success coursework for all first-time in college (FTIC) students. These courses help students learn attitudes and strategies they can apply to their subsequent coursework in order to increase their chances of academic success and persistence. Specifically, one overarching goal of this course is for students to start learning how to solve problems encountered in the college environment. Secondly, the courses provide an early venue for initiating students into practices synonymous with leadership that students can also benefit from.

However, a challenge that new students can face at the community college is of not gaining a deeper learning into the content of their Student Success coursework. Furthermore, this is significant, given that one year retention rates at community colleges in Texas, average around 54-63% depending on full or part-time college going status (completecollege.org). Starting first year students on the right track by getting them engaged in the course content and having them gain a deeper level of learning in this essential coursework will not only serve them for success and persistence in future coursework but also will build essential skills synonymous with leadership development.

The presenter will make a case for integrating creativity and creative problem solving (CPS) training into the FYE curriculum/Student Success coursework and delivery mode of instructors in these courses. CPS is an evidenced based problem solving methodology with scholarly research providing evidence of its effectiveness. Implementing such practices will have a measurable impact on essential attitudes and strategies of student success and leadership including: having a proper mindset, idea generation, idea evaluation and development, and problem solving needed to succeed and persist in college and for gaining leadership skills.

Learner Objectives:
1. Learners will be oriented to and practice divergent thinking skills.
2. Learners will gain appreciation of idea fluency (i.e., ability to generate more ideas).
3. Learners will gain appreciation of idea novelty (i.e., new and useful ideas).
4. Learners will gain appreciation of idea flexibility (i.e., more categories of ideas)
5. Learners will gain appreciation of convergent thinking skills.
6. Learners will gain appreciation of cognitive and affective thinking skills that are synonymous with leadership skills

7. Learners will gain familiarity on how Student Success course objectives can be taught in a creative problem solving format.

Review of Related Scholarship

The trait theory of leadership has evolved within the past 100 years to a more contemporary view of leadership that is implicitly related to creativity (Puccio, Mance, & Murdock, 2011). For example, when asked to forecast leadership attributes needed in the 21st century, leadership experts gave descriptions that were highly similar to characteristics that described creative people. Additionally, in a survey of 1,500 CEO's from around the world, creativity was ranked number one as a way to emerge from the current economic environment of the time (IBM, 2010). Similarly, other researchers posit that a central task of leadership is to creatively solve problems (Mumford, Zaccaro, Harding, Jacobs, & Fleishman, 2000).

Within an educational context, Trilling and Fadel (2009) argue how creativity and innovation should be at the core of 21st learning in order to equip students with 21st century career and workforce skills. In light of the emergence of creativity as a core leadership skill, researchers have reported the decline in creative thinking across different age groups (Kim, 2011). Utilizing the Torrance Test of Creative Thinking (TTCT), Kim examined a decline in multiple creativity dimensions including fluency, originality, elaboration, and creative strength. Implications for not meeting the creativity needs of students at the high school level include risk for underachievement and dropping out (Kim, 2012).

Within higher education, Livingston (2010) posits that creativity can be developed and refined over time by moving away from lecture based pedagogies and toward interpersonal exchanges among students and faculty that allow students to be more inventive. Likewise, Kember (2008) examined student centered forms of learning across the university setting to address issues such as student passivity, lack of learning motivation, and a reluctance to engage in discussion and activities. Active teaching and learning environments were evaluated for practices that promoted student learning and capabilities.

Scott, Leritz, and Mumford (2004) conducted a quantitative review of the effectiveness of creativity training. Training in creativity contributed to divergent thinking, problem solving, performance, and attitudes and behaviors for a diverse age range of students and working adults. Scott et al. (2004) noted how training delivery should be based on real world experiences and allow people "practice in applying relevant strategies…" (p. 383).

Lesson Plan Description

The presentation will begin with a description of a first year experience course offered by a large community college located in the southwest part of the U.S. Next, the terms "creativity" and "creative problem solving" will be defined. The presenter will give a brief description of the Triune Brain Theory and of Accelerated Learning strategies. The presenter will then engage participants in a warm-up activity as a way to activate a creative mindset. The presenter will instruct participants on the ground rules of divergence and convergence skills, a keystone of creativity and CPS. The presenter will then facilitate a sample CPS session based on challenge faced within the content of a typical FYE course. Participants will serve as clients and resource group members in addressing the particular challenge designated. Utilizing the CPS process and specialized thinking skills tools, the facilitator will guide participants through the CPS session with goals of novel ideas and breakthrough thinking specific to the challenge.

Discussion of Outcomes/Results

An informal assessment of creative problem solving practices has occurred in a minimum of two classrooms of approximately 20 students each. Both classes were FYE Student Success courses that are required of FTIC students who scored in at least one developmental course (non-credit) in reading, writing, or math. The presenter was invited as a guest to present on the topic of career exploration and spent approximately 1 hour in each class. The presenter presented the objectives of the visit and guided the class in a series of warm-up exercises before engaging students in two creative problem-solving challenges. The presenter distributed an informal single handout survey of the participant's perceptions of the training (see appendix for sample survey handout). Responses to surveys in both classes were positive. In brief, students offered positive comments on various aspects of CPS including engaging in collaborative activity with peers, gaining insights and perspectives from peers, learning a tool to evaluate and develop ideas, and being able to generate a greater number of total ideas and ideas more likely to address a particular challenge.

Workshop Plan & Implications

Pending room layout the presenter will facilitate the following interactive exercises with attendee participation:

a. Brainstorming with post-its and hits
b. POINt to evaluate and develop ideas
c. Divergent and improvisation exercises

The presenter will offer warm-up activities to allow participants to practice divergent thinking by generating ideas for a given challenge task. Participants will then converge on given ideas to select a solution viewed as most profitable to addressing the challenge task. The participants will then attempt to evaluate and develop the agreed upon idea for addressing the challenge task by using the POINt thinking skills tool. Benefits to participants include insight into the value of integrating creativity and creative problem solving into their perspective institutions and organizations. Participants could apply ideas exchanged in a variety of situations including in academic curriculum and organizational development. Participants will be able to help their students and organizations foster creativity and creative problem solving skills both of which are 21st century career and workforce skills.

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Educator Workshop Proposal: Strategies for Women in Novice Leadership Positions

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Abstract

Participants will consider core issues encountered by newly engaged leaders in the 21st Century. The presenters have produced a white paper ([Authors], 2014) about women in novice leadership roles including a practical guidance model. Leadership educators will gain new topical insights and best-practice strategies for use in leadership training.

Introduction

Becoming proficient in any leadership role requires learning (Brown & Posner, 2001). The current proposal offers a learning module for all educators who wish to ensure a total quality perspective in their curriculum; or simply wish to add a new perspective to existing lessons. Historically, women in professional leadership positions felt pressured and were expected to change their physical presence and mental mindset in order to gain authority or manager-status (Bass, 1981). For centuries, women often gave up nurturing traits and other stereo-typical, female attributes such as socio-emotional instincts (Bissessar, 2011; Drucker, 1954; Wren, 1994; Wheatley, 1999). Presently, society has come a long way as more women hold the highest leadership positions than ever before and recent studies embrace female traits in leadership (Chin, Lott, Rice, & Sanchez-Hucles, 2007; Salbi, 2006; Schreiber, 2014). Today, there is a need for specific tools and guidance are needed for the novice women in leadership positions.

Review of Related Scholarship

A review of women leaders in the 21st Century gives the appearance that there is equity in role expectations (Bissessar, 2011; Schreiber, 2014). However, women leaders are often challenged by perceived ineptness (Cunningham, Miner, & Benavides-Espinoza, 2012) and are facing subtle objection to their work in management and leadership roles (Alsbury & Hackman, 2006). Young professional women entering novice leadership positions, particularly those between 24 and 36 years old, require specific guidance in order to overcome the problems they face (Blairn, 2007; St-Jean, 2012; Tenhunen & Leppisaari, 2010). Considerations include leader self-reflection (Alsbury & Hackmann, 2006; Dracup & Bryan-Brown, 2004), group dynamics (Kivilighan, 2010), attitudes/personalities (Church, 2006; Zinni, Mattei, & Rhodebeck, 1997), work ethic, and levels of professionalism (Blair, 2007) which evoke a workplace culture that can either be productive or toxic to leadership development and potential.

Despite the countless women in powerful positions and seeming equity among gender roles, women in novice leadership positions do struggle in today's world due to many professional norms and cultural values that are embedded in the workplace (Brown & Posner, 2001, Danzig, 1997; Eriksen, 2007; Marcy, & Mumford, 2010). Women in novice leadership require practical guidance (Eriksen, 2007; James-Ward, 2013; Tenhunen & Leppisaari, 2010) and experiential learning (Alsbury & Hackman, 2006; Blair, 2007; James-Ward, 2013; Tenhuneen & Leppisaari, 2010). Leadership growth and development and self-assessment are among the critical components (Tichy, 2002). An ethical response (Cohen, 2004; Dawson, 2004; Forte, 2004; Hume, 2003; James, 2003; Krishnan, 2001) to the adversities facing novice leaders today will provide opportunities for the entire organization.

Lesson Plan Description

The presenters will review the most common issues via case studies as the issues present in the modern day workforce. Throughout the workshop, the presenters will incorporate input from the group in order to provide an organic and thought-provoking experience for the participants. A review of how *leadership development* is widely recognized as a critical component of effective leadership, the topic of how women in novice leadership positions experience problems will be presented to set the stage for the workshop. The lesson plan introduction is specially developed to stir up motivation to find practical solutions for the specific dilemmas of the 21st Century workplace. The presenters will follow the outline below as they demonstrate and share ideas for participant consideration.

- **Review of the Problem.**
  - **PowerPoint: Introduction to the Topic**
  - **Case Studies (Past)**: **Presenter Case Study Presentations**
  - **PowerPoint & Discussion: The White Paper**
  - **Small Group Activity (Present)**: **Presenter Presentations**
  - **Case Studies (Future)**: **Presenter Presentations**
- **Sharing Tools & Strategies**

Outcomes:

4. **Leadership educators will be able to consider ways they can use the same or similar curriculum to simulate learning in their programs:**
   - Defining the Novice Leader (stereotypes and how women are interpreted)
   - Real-life Problems Women are Facing (in the workplace today)
   - How the Problems Influence Leadership Growth (individual development)
   - Solutions to the Development of Leaders (practical guidance)
5. **Participants gain awareness of the critical components to success:**
   - Integration of the topic in leadership education planning;
   - Practical ideas for guidance to change norms/expectations;
   - Thought-provoking themes for educators concerning these issues;
   - Use of the white paper in business/management courses, behavior sciences, in education.
   - How the topical area applies to any industry where leadership exists and evolves at multiple levels.

6. **Participants share and gain ideas for their leadership education planning:**
- Thought-provoking topical themes for educators about women and leadership
- New perspectives involving issues for beginner leaders in today's business world
- Consideration of the authors' guidance model for women in novice leadership positions
-

Discussion of Outcomes / Results

Presuming women are involved in at least 50% of an organization, the rise in women leaders cannot be overlooked. The literature and the case-study modules within the white paper best illustrate the multitude of ways and the intricacies involved in the role of women today. While gender equity and feminism are not the issues at hand, awareness of how those terms are accepted by society is useful.

Each presenter's first-hand experiences include divergent leadership perspectives including the trajectories from novice to executive positions at a major University and at a single-proprietorship early education school. The anticipated disparity and dichotomist views give way to a long list of similarities, which add value to their model for guiding women in novice leadership roles. The guidance is practical and universally applicable.

The presenters have successfully influenced staff and faculty at their individual institutions with their leadership development model and by using their backgrounds and leadership styles. They have combined their perspectives in order to write a white paper that can call attention to the area of need for leadership roles at various levels in an organization.

Participants will contemplate the various dilemmas presented; and gain awareness to the ripple effects of issues that are presented to newly appointed women leaders. The workshop will reveal the subtle yet specifically tailored issues that are present in the 21st Century (e.g. levels of tolerance for novice women leaders in the workplace; overall organizational success).

Workshop Plan & Implication

Problem Statement. Leadership development is widely recognized as a critical component of understanding effective leadership. Women in novice leadership positions require practical solutions for specific dilemmas that exist in 21st Century workplaces.

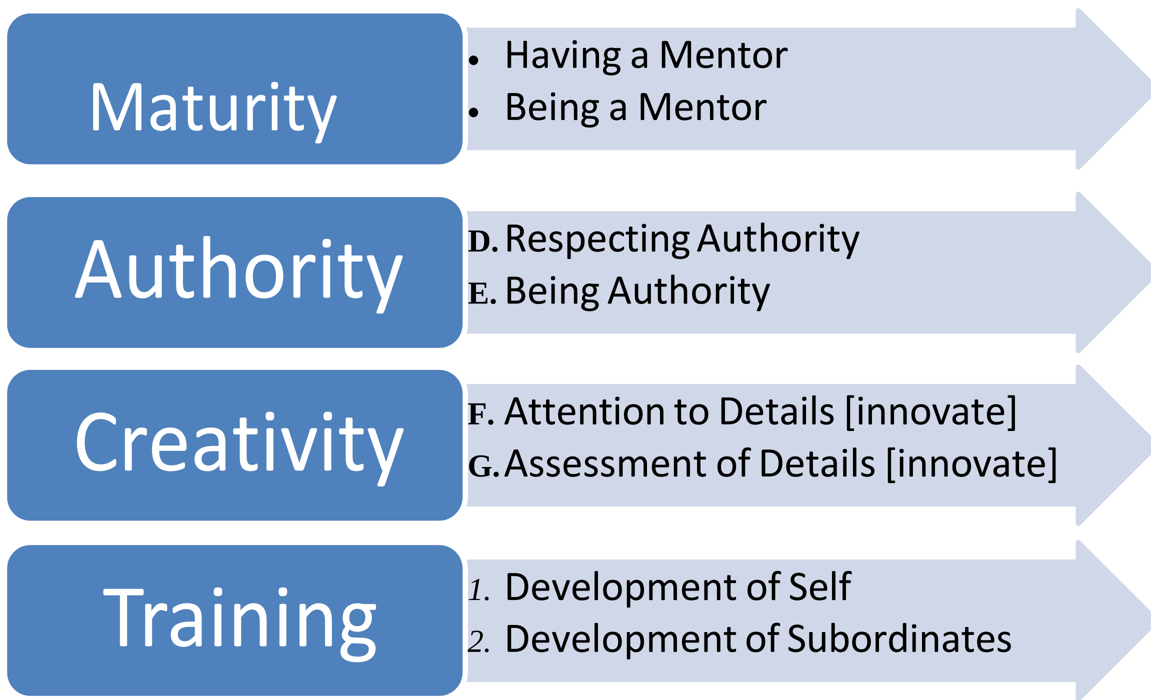
PowerPoint. Brief review of literature and statistics will help participants to conceptualize how and why the perceptions of women in positions of power can influence organizational success. An outline of components will be presented as a handout.

Case Studies of the Past. Case study presentations. Each presenter will showcase with personal narrative a case study involving a clear problem and set of variables involved. Each presentation will vary to include situations in small and large business settings; issues that occur for various levels of novice leaders and the ripple effect through an organization.

White Paper. A copy of the white paper will be shared with the group. Using the white paper as a tool in their leadership education endeavors will be encouraged with the goal of raising awareness of the gender specificities that affect women in novice leadership positions.

Small Group Activity. Participants will be split into smaller groups, of 4-5 people, in order to troubleshoot a mini-case study based in modern-day workplaces. The mini-case study provides an opportunity for participants to use critical thinking and collaboration to apply their skills to the related concepts of the workshop (e.g. self-development, group-development, stereotypes, emotionality, personality, and leader-efficacy of both women and men, who are mutually affected by organizational success or nonsuccess).***ase Studies of the Future***. As we look to the future, a paradigm shift is needed concerning newly appointed women in leadership roles. Specific tools and strategies can help young women in novice leadership positions with a practical way to move toward success. Using the presenters' white paper ([Authors], 2014) as a premise, the presenters will outline two final scenarios; and share the basis for their guidance model (Figure 1).

Figure 1. Guidance Model for Novice Leaders (Authors, 2014)



Sharing Tools & Strategies. The participants will learn how the recommended tools and strategies will guide female novices toward success. Next, a demonstration of how the concepts of the white paper apply to the female novice leaders of the future will ensue.

Concluding PowerPoint Slides. Although more women are holding some of the highest leadership positions in the business world, it is critical to deploy specific guidance for young female leaders.

The workshop will provide professional development and ignite new ideas for a wide array of course implementation strategies geared to novice leadership such as in: business/management courses, sales/marketing, communications, behavior sciences, education, and in any domain where leadership exists at all levels. Comprehending the influential factors that prevent attainment of organizational success is central to leadership education.

Outcomes.

- Leadership educators will consider ways they can use the same or similar curriculum to simulate learning about the Novice Leader in their programs:
    - Defining the Novice Leader (stereotypes and how women are interpreted)l-life Problems Women are Facing (in the workplace today)
    - How the Problems Influence Leadership Growth (individual development)
    - Solutions to the Development of Leaders (practical guidance to these problems)
- Participants will gain awareness of the critical component to organizational success:
    - Integration of the topic in leadership education planning;
    - Practical ideas for guidance to change norms/expectations;
    - Thought-provoking themes for educators concerning these issues;
    - Use of the white paper in business/management courses, behavior sciences, in education.
    - How the topical area applies to any industry where leadership exists at multiple levels.
- Participants will be able to share and gain ideas about women in leadership related to their leadership education training:
    - Thought-provoking topical themes for educators about women and leadership
    - New perspectives involving issues for beginner leaders in today's business world
    - Consideration of the authors' guidance model for women in novice leadership positions

Workshop Summary: Founded with a wide-array of supporting research, the white paper incorporates the integration of guidance and practical tools that will be influential in tomorrow's cultural understandings of women in leadership roles and to leadership development in the 21st Century.

The proposed educator workshop gives participants time to consider core issues encountered by newly engaged leaders in the 21st Century. The presenters share their own personal experiences in novice leadership roles and a practical guidance model. Leadership educators will likely reflect on their own development and gain new topical insights and best-practice strategies for use in leadership training.

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Resilient Leadership for Women – Strategies for Hope and Productivity

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Short Description

Women are faced with many challenges today, from managing the pressures of work and maneuvering through the leadership labyrinth to balancing personal wellness and family commitments. Without strategies for managing these challenges, women can more easily lose hope, get stuck in negativity and decrease their productivity. In this workshop, participants will engage in three unique exercises that are proven to help leaders overcome setbacks, focus on positive outcomes, and regain hope – keys to becoming strong resilient leaders!

Detailed Abstract

Women today struggle with many different challenges. There are the stresses of work and as Alice Eagly coins it, "The pressure for each woman to find her own way." (Eagly and Carli, 2007) In addition, women struggle with the need of being a superhero to all and as a result struggle with mental health issues balancing family commitments and personal wellness. In their research on emotional intelligence and resonant leadership, Richard Boyatzis and Annie McKee discuss the importance of self-regulation and motivation to managing stress and effective leadership. In their research they illustrate that resonant leaders are able to cope with stress and the negative emotions associated with it and have the ability to keep disruptive impulses in check and can motivate themselves to accomplish difficult tasks and overcome setbacks. Good leaders that begin to struggle however, under the pressures of responsibility, crisis, and dealing with daily threats, can succumb to those stressors and negative emotions and transition into dissonant leaders. The physical and emotional toll of the threats, crisis and setbacks can lead to "power stress" and render leaders out of control, leaving them feeling hopeless and less than productive. On the flip side, their research also shows that optimism leads to increased productivity and in a recent study of 229 businesses, they showed that a positive emotional climate was the most significant factor associated with company performance over an 18 month period. (Boyatzis and McKee, 2005)

So what does all this mean? The problem is that women today need strategies that are proven to help leaders become more resilient – to develop a means for handing the stresses, setbacks and pressures of everyday life in order for them to be more productive and effective at home and at work. The purpose of this workshop is to introduce and discuss well researched concepts and strategies that can help women become more resilient and engage participants in activities that they can take back and use in their own work and with their teams.

In the workshop, participants will engage in three unique exercises that are used for building resilience, reducing stress and increasing feelings of hope and self-control. These exercises have proven to be effective and led to increased productivity for individuals who have utilized them. Over 100 women that participated in these exercises at the Women's Conference at The Rochester Institute of Technology in 2012, reported that these activities were useful in terms of equipping them with tools to be more resilient and successful in dealing with stress and setbacks. The first exercise is from the book, “Quick Emotional Intelligence Activities for Busy Managers”, by Adele Lynn. The exercise is called, “Who Said That?” and gives individuals the opportunity to reflect on the conversations inside their heads that can either positively or negatively impact their emotions and their sense of hope and control. The second exercise is from Stephen Covey’s, “The Seven Habits of Highly Effective People” and encourages participants to reflect on their “circle of influence vs. their circle of concern.” When people feel that they are spending most of their time and energy in their circle of influence, taking action on items they can do something about, vs. wasting time in their circle of concern where they have no ability to influence an outcome, they feel much more in control, stress is reduced, and productivity increases. (Covey 1989) The last activity allows participants to reflect on the power of positive communication, by creating a “bucket” of positive actions they can take to support others and feel personally fulfilled and hopeful. Research from “How Full is Your Bucket”, by Donald Clifton and Tom Rath provides evidence to support the effectiveness of this concept. Lastly, research from Marshall Goldsmith’s , “Mojo”, discusses the impact of negative communication in the workplace and the decrease in productivity that occurs when employees become entrenched in negative communication.

In terms of the workshop design, below is a breakdown of topics and timeframes for an overall workshop time of 90 minutes.

1. Introduction of the Topic, Resilient Moments - 5 Minutes
2. Review of Resonant Vs. Dissonant Leadership Concept – 7 minutes
3. First Activity on “Who Said That?” – 18 minutes
4. Review of Proactive vs. Reactive Concept – 7 minutes
5. Second Activity on Circle of Influence vs. Circle of Concern – 18 minutes
6. Review of Positive Communication and Mojo Killers – 10 minutes
7. Third Activity on Positive Action – Bucket Filling – 15 minutes
8. Summary of Workshop – Models of Hopeful & Resilient Leaders – Fazia Kwoofi – 10 minutes

The learning outcomes for the workshop are as follows:

1. Participants will have explored critical concepts that can address how to increase feelings of hopefulness, control and resiliency as women leaders. Those concepts include: resonance and dissonance, positive and proactive communication, and mojo killers.
2. Participants will have identified strategies that most resonate with their personal needs for enhancing their resiliency.
3. Participants will have engaged in and learned three different exercises that they can use to increase their hopefulness, self-control and resiliency and share with others on their team.
4. Participants will have discussed current resilient leaders

In summary, participants will engage in critical activities that will allow for self-reflection and the development of personal strategies for enhancing their resiliency, hopefulness and productivity as leaders. This is an innovative approach in the way it combines current theories from leading experts with three unique interactive exercises that individuals can use to enhance their resiliency. By reflecting on these critical concepts and learning new strategies, participants will become more productive and will maximize their effectiveness as leaders, as reflected in the research by Annie McKee and Richard Boyatzis.

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Who Am I? Using SWOT Analysis to Teach Self-Assessment and Strength Recognition

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Introduction

"The challenge we face as leaders is to identify our own strengths as well as the strengths of others and then use these to make our organizations and followers more efficient, productive, and satisfied" (Northouse, 2015, p. 75). This statement by Northouse reinforces the belief that effective leaders are self-aware. Consequently, before a leader can lead others, they must know themselves. Therefore, an effective leader knows his or her strengths and weaknesses. The purpose of this educator workshop proposal is to outline a curriculum unit designed to increase an individual's self-awareness and be able to identify personal strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats to build effective teams.

Review of Related Scholarship

There is not a set formula for an effective leader (Northouse, 2013). This is fortunate, as this provides the opportunity for many individuals with different traits, characteristics, and skills to serve as leaders. Stogdill (1948) suggested there were no consistent set(s) of traits that would characterize or distinguish a leader from a non-leader. Therefore an individual who displays effective leadership qualities in one situation, might not be an effective leader in another situation (Stogdill, 1948). Consequently, a variety of people can be leaders in a variety of situations.

The psychodynamic approach to leadership claims a variety of personality types are better situated to certain situations (Northouse, 2013). Personality refers to an individual's consistent way of thinking, feeling, and acting (Northouse, 2013). Personality assessments have emerged as tool to categorize an individual's characteristics or traits. A variety of these assessments have emerged including the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator, the Keirsey Temprament Sorter, True Colors Leadership assessment, and the Big Five Personality test. These assessments have been used by businesses to assist with team development and have even used the assessment results to determine viable candidates for promotion into organizational leadership positions.

A study by Strong, Wynn, Irby, and Linder (2013) emphasized the importance of providing opportunities for students to develop leadership skills as many of these skills are desirable professional competencies. Furthermore, a national study of employers demonstrated the need for students to develop skills in leadership, communication, and teamwork while also demonstrating the ability to think critically (Crawford, Lang, Fink, Dalton & Fielitz, 2011). Therefore, as educators we should create opportunities for students to apply leadership theories, concepts, and methods to encourage students to further develop their leadership skills.

One method useful to personal leadership skill development is the personal SWOT (strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats) analysis. Traditionally, a SWOT analysis has been used by businesses or organizations to determine core competencies and identify potential pitfalls (Daft, 2002; Gorski, 1999). Additionally, SWOT analyses have been described as an “analytical tool, which should be used to categorize significant environmental factors both internal and external to the organization” (Pickton and Wright, 1998, p. 101). A study by Langone (2004) at the University of Georgia described the SWOT analysis as a tool to provide a clear and organized method of investigation and reporting into the make-up of a community, and allows ready communication among team members. “For undergraduate students, the SWOT analysis provides a clear, organized method for investigating and reporting the myriad aspects that make up and organized community. The tool is useful for team use as it allows ready communication among team members or division of tasks. It provides concrete steps and categories, which can be easily explained” (Langone, 2004, p. 84). Langone further explains SWOT analysis can give clear and candid ideas of internal and external perceptions, trends and opinions, and gives communities and organizations a method for planning or identifying areas where change is needed or ideas need to be stimulated for new programs, services or products.

Clearly, the SWOT analyses have been a useful tool in business and community sectors. But the SWOT analyses can also be a useful for individual analyses as well. Within the last five years, the concept of a personal SWOT analyses has emerged. A personal SWOT analyses uses all the traditional SWOT tools but applies them to an individual’s traits and characteristics. The benefits of a personal SWOT analyses include self-awareness, identification of potential personal pitfalls, and the ability to perceive personal opportunities bases on personal strengths.

Lesson Plan Description

The groundwork for this curriculum unit was derived from inspiration found in a study by Rosch (2013) stating leadership and other transferable skills are developed through various means, including training, personal experience, observation and reflection, and education. Therefore, students enrolled in an upper-level agricultural leadership development course at a southern land-grant institution were given a series of self-assessments to identify personal traits and characteristics. Six assessments were given including the Keirsey Temperament Sorter II, iPersonic test, True Colors Leadership assessment, StrengthsQuest assessment, task versus relationship orientation assessment, and introvert versus extravert assessment. The assessments were provided near the beginning of the semester (third week of classes) and used in conjunction with leadership lectures on the trait, skills, style, and psychodynamic approaches.

Each student was provided a folder as a means to organize assessment results. Upon completion of all the assessments, students were asked to develop a personal SWOT (strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats) analysis (Appendix A). The personal SWOT analysis helped students apply the results of all the assessments. Moreover, the SWOT analysis helped students identify types of individuals they should be looking for when selecting team members. The overall goal of students identifying their personal strengths, weaknesses and personality types was to showcase the necessity of understanding their own needs, but also the needs of others around them.

A major portion of the course focuses on the completion of a service learning project. Students are required to spend 20 hours working with a local organization to complete a project that has measureable impact on the community. Students are allowed to self-select teams for the project. However, the team membership must be justifiable based on the results from the personal SWOT analysis. For example, team members should complement one another: where one member is weak, another member should be strong. After self-selecting teams, members prepared a seven minute presentation to present to the panel of instructors (Appendix B). The presentation was to justify the make-up of the team. Instructors were provided each student's folder containing his or her assessment results. Not all teams were approved and the instructors reserved the right to reassign teams if strong justification was not provided. Five of the seven teams were initially approved and two teams were reconfigured by the instructors based on SWOT analysis results.

All seven teams successfully completed the service learning project. Instructor informal observations recorded less student complaints, higher student satisfaction with project results, and overall higher grades bases on superior project performances. Needless to say, this curriculum unit and activity will be implemented in future semesters.

Discussion of Outcomes and Results

Team projects are frequent in leadership education. The intent of the SWOT analysis activity is three fold. First, students become self-aware of their personality traits and characteristics through a variety of personal assessments including the StrengthsQuest assessment, True Colors assessment, Keirsey Temprament Sortter II, iPersonic test, task and relationship orientation assessment, and introvert and extravert assessment. Secondly, by identifying personality characteristics, students are able to complete a personal SWOT analysis to identify personal strengths, weaknesses, threats (what type of people they should not work with), and opportunities (what type of people they should seek to work with). Lastly, upon completion of the personal SWOT analysis, students should be able to formulate functional teams consisting of individuals who complement one another through their individual strengths.

This activity was used in an upper division leadership course at a southern, land-grant institution. The results of this activity yielded seven functional teams who completed a service learning project as a group over the course of a semester. While the students were allowed to self-select their team, they had to justify the team membership based on the personal SWOT analysis. This forced students to form teams based on needed personality characteristics and not the "buddy system." The end result was a reduction in overall group complaints (i.e., he did not do his portion of the work, I cannot get along with her, or he did not know how to communicate). Moreover, students reported the team project to be an enjoyable experience with team members working seamlessly together. Finally, the students informally reported using the SWOT analysis tactics to formulate teams in other courses as well as using the personality assessment results to promote themselves in interviews with potential employers. As instructors, we believe the implementation of this activity was a win-win for everyone: the students gained self-awareness, students were able to make applications and implement leadership concepts, and overall the teams performed better and produced a superior product when compared to students from previous semesters.

Workshop Plans and Implications

This educator workshop would allow participants to participate in a condensed version of the original course activity. The conference participants would complete a series of personal assessments, conduct a personal SWOT analysis, and form a team with other conference participants based on SWOT analysis results. Because of time constraints, only three assessments will be used during this workshop. However, all participants will be provided with a participant packet containing all six assessments to use as a reference.

The workshop is outlined in the table below.

Time Frame	Activity	Description
5 minutes	Introduction	Background of Personal SWOT analysis
30 minutes	Participants will complete a series of assessments: 1. Task vs. Relationship Orientation 2. Introvert vs. Extravert assessment 3. True Colors personality assessment	 • Participants complete questionnaire • Participants complete questionnaire • Participants complete True Colors assessment and tabulate results
15 minutes	Personality Debriefing	• Presenters describe the various results of each of the assessments.
15 minutes	Personal SWOT analysis (see appendix)	• Based on assessment results, participants complete the personal SWOT analysis worksheet. • Determine personal strengths and weaknesses as well as personal opportunities and threats • Results will determine what they are looking for in potential team members
20 minutes	Team Selection and Team Defense	• Participants will form teams based on SWOT analysis results • Teams members should complement one another's strengths and weaknesses • Opportunity for select teams to justify their membership will be given

5 minutes	Activity Debriefing	• Resource packets will be provided • Wrap up discussion of how the activity can be applied in leadership education team projects

Upon completion of the workshop, the presenters hope participants will be inspired to use this activity (or a modified version of the activity) to promote building effective teams. This activity is designed so that it can lend be used outside the leadership classroom. Other venues for this activity could include extension education, non-profit organizations (to coordinate volunteer teams), youth development programs, student clubs and organizations, and community leadership teams.

Appendices

Appendices A: Team Justification Presentation

Answer the following questions below. Please note: all answers should relate to your assessment results. Remember this is a self-reflection. There are no wrong answers.

Strengths: • What do you value? • What do you do well? • What brings you joy?	**Weaknesses:** • What are some of your personal pitfalls? • How can your personal traits be disruptive in a team setting?
Opportunities: • How can your traits be beneficial in a team setting? • What traits should you be seeking in other team members?	**Threats:** • What traits (in others) do you find frustrating? • What type of person should you avoid when selecting team members?

Appendices B: Team Justification Presentation

Proposed Team Members:
Team Member 1:

Team Member 2:

Team Member 3:

Team Qualifiers:

1. Did the team provide clarify individual personality assessment results?

2. Did the team explain why they would be a good “fit” based on their assessments? Was information conveyed from personal SWOT analyses? (Note: Students should use terminology from multiple assessments for justification.)

3. Did the team provide clear and concise team membership justification during the presentation? Did members identify potential pitfalls and how team members could provide solutions?

Team Membership ☐ Approved ☐ Denied

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Learning to Lead by Leading a Discussion

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Introduction

Imagine this: you're about to teach a senior level undergraduate leadership theory course. You've decided that one of your foci for the semester will be to use discussion as a way to engage your students in breaking down the theories of leadership for greater real life application. You want the students to not only participate in discussions, but also to facilitate and lead discussions regarding class content and its real life application. You do all of the preparatory work. You assign groups. The discussions take place. Then flash forward. The semester is over and you're reflecting on all that has occurred in the course. Unfortunately for you, the discussions you hoped would go so well, never really turned out as planned. The students, by and large, did not have the skills needed to successfully facilitate a discussion. While you pitched in to make sure the major content points were covered, you know that what transpired was not what you had hoped. Now what?

While communication skills overall are widely accepted as necessary for work, career, and leadership success, the more specific aspects of discussion seem to be less understood. Discussions are opportunities to use those communications skills and build working ideas, solutions, and conflict resolution skills. Being able to not only participate, but even lead and facilitate a discussion is an often overlooked, but much needed and valued competency. Leading a discussion is a skill useful in almost any field and essential in education, especially in leadership education where students must become well-versed in abstract theories and work with others to analyze and evaluate those theories in order to develop comfort with them and make meaning of them.

Review of Related Scholarship

Discussion is an excellent way for students to demonstrate not only content mastery, but also how specific content and the theories that support it are connected and can be applied. Students can reveal their thought processes. Arends describes this type of discussion as "externalization of thinking" (2004, p. 428). "It requires students to reflect on their understanding and can lead to changes and improvements in learning, thinking, and teaching" (Moore, 2015, p. 326).

Jenkins (2012) posits that discussion is one of the signature pedagogies of leadership education. If that is so, then it is imperative that both the instructor and the students understand and can execute the skills needed to engage in this method. Arends (2004) noted that strong support of discussion methodology comes from the studies of linguistics, communication, patterns of exchange, and other language fields. This familiarity with the process is one reason discussion can be successful in classroom settings (Bender, 2003). Even in a classroom setting discussions that are comfortable and informal are natural and intuitive ways for students to exchange ideas, and process the world and the theories about it (Brierton, 2011). Cognitive psychology research indicates that the depth to which content is processed affects our ability to remember that content. If listening and repeating are the techniques used the information is successfully stored, however, it is difficult to find or recall later (McKeachie & Svinicki, 2006). Instead, if the relationships between the new information and the familiar/previously stored information are identified or if the new information is discussed (explained, synthesized, evaluated), it is more likely to be remembered when needed (McKeachie & Svinicki, 2006).

A key component of quality discussion is questioning. The discussion leader must develop and ask questions that guide and focus the discussion, and must also be flexible enough to encourage and incorporate appropriate tangents. It is also imperative that discussants feel comfortable to contribute and to offer ideas not yet fully formed. The pace may be methodical or it may be dynamic with multiple students contributing and interacting. Facilitators need to take care, however, that questions do not illicit rapid-fire responses that devolve into class recitation. "Questions are like fire-starters - the purpose is to entice and engage students into a thoughtful discussion, one that allows them to ask questions of each other and the class as a whole" (Brierton, 2011, p.14).

Despite the fact that we ask questions all of the time and instructors ask their students thousands of questions, a good questioning strategy is difficult to design (Moore, 2015). Preparing to lead a discussion develops thinking, planning, problem solving, analysis, and synthesis skills. Anyone who has attempted to facilitate a discussion knows that it strengthens your own understanding of the content and that a successful discussion develops and deepens not only content understanding, but also encourages application and analysis. When students are charged with facilitating a discussion they should receive these same benefits. Bender suggests, "An interesting option to try later in the semester is that instead of the instructor asking the questions from the readings, the students are asked to develop discussion questions" (Bender, 2003, p. 71). [Equally], if discussion-based pedagogies are the most frequently employed instructional strategy used by instructors teaching academic credit-bearing undergraduate leadership studies courses, it is imperative that this strategy is utilized effectively (Jenkins, 2012, p. 17) shouldn't this strategy be taught to future leadership educators as well?

Facilitating a discussion requires organization, the ability to think on your feet, the ability to elicit engagement and interaction, the ability to roll with the punches, and the ability to establish a rapport with participants. Practicing via leading a discussion is leadership practice. It is hands on, but in a controlled environment.

LESSON PLAN

This lesson plan is for a senior level undergraduate leadership course.

SUBJECT: Organizational Behavior & Leadership Development

LESSON: How to Successfully Lead/Facilitate Discussion

OBJECTIVES FOR THE LESSON/TRAINING:

Upon completion of the lesson, students will be able to successfully…

a) Define discussion goals
b) Develop a discussion plan
c) Create a question strategy

MATERIALS NEEDED OR THINGS TO DO AHEAD OF TIME:

- Course textbook
- Copy of the Lesson PowerPoint
- Handout on Discussion Tips from the University of Oregon
- Handout on developing a questioning strategy
- Questioning strategy flowchart

INTRODUCTION TO THE LESSON:

Teaching content is a great way to assist students in learning that content. This lesson will help you be successful when it comes time for you to lead a day of class where you will need to review content, design and engage fellow students in an activity that will help them understand the course content, and finally lead a discussion to close out the day that will solidify that content. This lesson will help you focus in on the discussion.

OUTLINE THE LESSON:

Today's lesson will be three parts. First, we will define what a discussion goal is, and how to develop them. Next, we will identify the parts of a discussion plan, and help you draft one. Finally, we will identify the components of a questioning strategy, and have you each create one for practice.

ACTIVITY:

Students will engage in three different activities to reinforce the lesson content. Placement of the activities is shown in the lesson outline above. Those activities are:

a) Discussion Goals

Start with the class in pairs. Have them brain storm why discussion is a needed part of any lesson. Have one student be the "recorder" for each group. Then bring them back together to share and add in anything that wasn't in the pair share. Redo the pairs asking them what they want students to get from the discussion they lead. Bring back together and share again. In the final round, ask them to write some defined goals for their particular discussion. Bring back together for sharing and tweaking/critique.

Discussion Plan

Have large sticky notes around the room with various parts of discussion plans one on each post it. Divide students among the post it notes. Have each group of students then go to the post it and brainstorm ways to accomplish the part of the discussion they have chosen. They can then write or draw pictures of their ideas. For example, if you are at the intro post it, you might brainstorm ideas including YouTube clips, role play, simple intro, etc.

b) Question Strategy

Using large note cards write the parts of a questioning strategy, one per card. Hand out one card per student in the class. Then, have students stand in the flow order of the kinds of questions you would ask for a basic strategy. Allow them to talk and discuss what they think the right order is. Once they complete the basic strategy flow, throw out some different scenarios where they will have to rearrange their order.

ASSIGNMENT:

Using your assigned book chapter, plan a lesson that will include a review of content, related activity to help drive the content home, and a discussion to debrief and solidify content.

EVALUATION OF THE MATERIAL/LESSON:

Assignment Title: Discussion Facilitation Notes

Assignment Description

Another great way to learn something is to teach it! So that’s what you all are going to get to do—each of you will have the opportunity to lead group discussion throughout the semester.

Assignment Details

Each week there will be a learning activity to help solidify course content in your minds. Some of those weeks will be the assignments outlined above. Some weeks it will be up to you and your classmates to develop class discussion/activities to help assist in learning the course content. The SUNDAY PRIOR TO YOUR WEEK, you will:

a) Provide a synopsis of the case study(s) and chapter(s) for the week. Think of it like mini book reports.

b) Provide your preparation notes. This doesn’t have to be a formal lesson plan, but will outline what you have chosen to do with the class and why it serves to further understanding of the topic, and

c) Potential activities to start the discussion

d) Facilitate discussion, including potential guiding questions

Grading Rubric

Component	**Expectations for the Section**
Synopsis of case study and chapter(s) for the week	• Did you summarize the case study in a way that fellow students could understand? • Did you summarize the chapter(s) in a way that fellow students could understand?
Preparation notes/Plans for the Learning Day	• Did you have set goals for the day? • Did you develop a backup plan?
Learning Activities	• Did you communicate your goals to your learners? • Did the activities match up with your goals AND the course content?
Discussion Questions	• Did you develop a questioning strategy? • Did you ask relevant questions?
Group Evaluation	
Total	

Discussion of Outcomes/Results

The discussion piece of the course has been implemented for four semesters. The first semester, no instruction was given on discussion. The instructors took for granted that the students, upon reaching a 400 level course, would come to the course with the skills necessary to be successful in leading and participating in the discussions. When it became apparent that was not the case, this workshop became a part of the curriculum.

Since the inception of the instruction piece the instructors are encouraged that we can note two results. First, the students who receive the instruction on successfully leading a discussion have a noticeably greater comfort level with the role. While the discussions are still not where we'd like them to be in terms of higher order thinking and critical application, the students are making progress toward those goals. The second result worth noting, is that the students are recognizing that these are skills that they need to develop not just for class, but for life. Moreover, they are recognizing that a second set of skills exists, and should be taught, and that is how to PARTICIPATE in discussion. This has lead to the development of a partner lesson on the role of discussion participants and the skills needed to be successful in that role.

Workshop Plan & Implications

In this educator's workshop we will walk participants through the basics of discussion facilitation, and then taking it one step further, we will break down the teaching and evaluation of three skills necessary for successful discussion facilitation. At the end of the session, learners will walk away with handouts and strategies that will assist in the future teaching of the skills needed for undergraduates to be successful discussion facilitators.

I. Welcome & Introductions
II. What is discussion?
III. How does discussion fit into Leadership Education
    a. Post it notes and markers for participants in small groups
    b. Gather as a large group for consensus
IV. Leading vs. Following
    a. Audience questions:
        i. What does leading discussion mean to you?
        ii. What does participating in a discussion mean to you?
        iii. How are they different? How *should* those two things be different?
            1. Presenters lead audience in defining skill set for leading
V. Teaching the Skills
    a. Leading a discussion skill set
        i. Skill 1- Defining Objectives or Goals
        ii. Skill 2- Developing a Plan
        iii. Skill 3- Evaluation/Asking Questions
VI. Evaluating the Skills
    a. Leading a discussion skill set
        i. Skill 1- Defining Objectives or Goals
        ii. Skill 2- Developing a Plan
        iii. Skill 3- Evaluation/Asking Questions

The goal of this workshop is good discussion about this important teaching tool. And for the discussion that begins here to enhance the knowledge of workshop participants and instructors. We hope that participants can and will take these tools and ideas to their own settings, promote better discussion and student learning, and serve to further our discipline.

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Appendices

University of Washington: Leading a Dynamic Discussion

Developing a questioning strategy

Deciding on the key questions you want to address ahead of time can help ensure that your discussion stays on track and the learning goals you set for your students are met. One three-step approach to developing questions is:

1. Ask recall and comprehension questions to make sure that the students have grasped the basic data.

2. Ask questions requiring students to explain relationships among the units of information and to form general concepts.

3. Ask questions that require students to apply concepts and principles they have developed to new data and different situations.

University of Oregon TEP Program: Tips on Leading an Effective Discussion

Students create and follow group patterns. Without ever setting up a seating chart, you will find that students tend to take the same seats when they come to class. They will even be upset if someone happens to be in "their" seat. They also develop discussion patterns and it happens very quickly. In every group of 25-30 students there will be about six who are not afraid to speak up in front of the whole class. They will be the ones you can count on to answer your questions and relieve the silence. However, these people can soon become the "voice" of the class if you're not careful.

Help all of your students develop the skill of articulating their ideas within the context of a class discussion by trying some of these approaches.

- **Let students write** their thoughts down first before you ask them to speak up in class. This gets their wheels turning and gives them the security of having something written down to refer to when they get flustered by the act of public speaking.

- **Use small groups**. Pair students, group them in threes or fours, and let them wrestle with the question or topic as a small group. This allows more students a chance to speak up in a comfortable, less intimidating setting. It also helps students get to know each other and that's part of breaking down the barrier of silence. Use different strategies for the grouping depending on your goals - planned groups, spontaneous and random groups and student-determined groups.

- **Ask questions that students feel invested in answering**. Whenever you can, relate questions to something your students may understand in another context of their lives--an area of importance. ("How many of you took on work responsibilities at an early age? Maybe this helps you understand some of the controversy around Child Labor laws. How does your experience affect your perspective on this current controversy?")
- **Repeating and rephrasing questions** (suggestion from Stu Thomas in Math). (1) gives you the opportunity to recognize the student's contribution by saying, "That's an excellent question Jennie. Class, here's what Jennie asked. Jennie, tell me if I understand your question correctly. She wants to know if we embedded the chain rule in the quotient rule in this example." (2) I'm making sure I answer the question she really wanted to ask, and (3) bringing the entire class into the action.
- The more you **use student's names** in class, the more you break down the silence barrier and encourage participation.
- **Allow students who are shy and who may need more time to process** the opportunity to submit their contributions to class discussion to you through e-mail. Then when you feel the time is right, ask them if they would be willing to share their contribution with the class. Introduce this idea by saying (e-mailing) something like--"Ayesha, I thought you brought up a good point regarding environmental protection laws which we hadn't considered yet. Would you be willing to share this with the class tomorrow?" Once a student's contribution has been validated by the teacher, he/she may be more willing to speak up.
- **Make the value of participation clear to your students**. A meaningful percentage of students' grades for the course should be allotted to participation. With this, provide many avenues for earning this portion of the grade--speaking out in class, sending contributions through e-mail, coming to discuss topics further during an office hour with you, writing out comments and putting them in your mailbox.
- **Acknowledge contributions**. "Brandon has moved our discussion in a new and interesting direction. Thanks.", "Helena's point about the lack of focus in the study is well-taken. How does this affect the conclusion?" Your validation helps students feel comfortable, encouraged and valued.
- **Structure some kind of preparation for discussion**. Many teachers ask their students to bring questions covering the readings to class. Often these are collected and count toward the participation grade. Other ask students to write short response papers. Another strategy is to put your students in groups (planned group are recommended for this) and ask them to lead and facilitate a particular discussion topic.
- **Teach students to listen to each other**. Teach this by being a good example. Really listen when your students contribute and rephrase your understanding of what they said. When a student contributes, regularly ask another student to rephrase what was said. Help your

students get into the habit of listening to each other. One instructor asked for a paper based on some aspect of the discussions which happened each week. The topics were to be drawn from clearly-identified, student-generated ideas.

- **Talk less and facilitate more**. Your students should be doing most of the work. Try to draw the best you can out of each response. If a student's answer is too general, draw out more specifics. "Okay, Mark--it's clear that you don't feel this was a good decision. What would have done in their place?", "That's a good observation, Tomas, can you give me another example of kinship ritual?"
- **Never humiliate your students**. One of the biggest fears students have which keeps them silent is being WRONG. Curiously, it's their instructor's worst fear, too. The primary endeavor of teaching is learning. One of the most powerful ways we learn is from our mistakes, from being wrong. Find a way to make being wrong all right. "I can see how that would make sense to you, Jolene. For a long time people thought this nutrition plan would lead to optimal health. Can anyone help us out on what the recent research has uncovered?"
- **Have some "Plan Bs" ready to go** if your discussion comes to a logical end earlier than you had planned. Reflective writing works well for an end-of-the-period activity and helps students draw together what has taken place in class. Sometimes you might be able to show a relevant video clip or read a relevant passage from another text which pertains to the discussion.

CASE STUDY

Doing the Right Thing: Ethical Leadership and the Decision-Making Process
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Doing the Right Thing: Ethical Leadership and the Decision-Making Process

Bradley J. Burbaugh, D. Adam Cletzer, & Tinesha Woods-Wells
Virginia Tech University

Abstract

This case study examines the principles and real-world application of ethical leadership and decision making. Contextualized in the ongoing controversy of the "revolving door" between the Food and Drug Administration (FDA) and Monsanto Corporation, this case study asks students to identify core values and apply them to a real-world scenario using the Principles of Ethical Leadership and the Ethical Decision-Making Model as guides.

Introduction

The relationship between regulators and the organizations they regulate is complex, ambiguous, and often fraught with the potential for conflicts of interest and other ethical dilemmas. In many cases, federal regulations are heavily influenced by relatively few leaders holding senior positions. In today's political climate, it is imperative for these individuals to lead their agencies with integrity, and to act without the perception of bias, in order to provide ethical leadership.

However, an ethical climate is often a difficult state to achieve inside government regulatory agencies due to the common practice of senior officials having previously held key positions in the very organizations they regulate (Schwartz, 1994). This practice is frequently referred to as the "revolving door" between regulators and industry groups; it raises ethical concerns for leaders, the agencies that employ them, and the resulting policies. Individuals who have served in industry bring valuable experience and insight to regulatory agencies; however, they are also made vulnerable to criticism surrounding their motives, loyalties, and ability to render a decision in the best interest of the American public. Therefore, it is important for leaders to understand the principles of ethical leadership, and be able to apply those principles to the complex, often ambiguous problems they will face.

This revolving door phenomenon is epitomized by the Monsanto Corporation's relationship with the FDA. The archetypical example of the conflict created by the revolving door was the case of Michael Taylor and the regulation of the Monsanto-created recombinant bovine growth hormone (rBGH) — the "first important product of agricultural biotechnology to reach the American market" (Schneider, 1994, para 2). In 1994, the FDA approved an rBGH-based, gene-altered drug, which caused milk production in dairy cows to increase by as much as 20 percent. Following approval, three FDA officials were discovered to have been paid by Monsanto to conduct legal and scientific studies of the drug prior to joining the FDA. Those same three individuals drafted the FDA's formal opinion of the drug, concluding that it was safe, and that "labeling dairy products from herds treated with the drug was unnecessary" (Schneider, 1994, para 5). One of those individuals was Michael Taylor, then FDA Deputy Commissioner for Policy.

As a result of this and similar scandals, in recent years Americans have increasingly insisted "on higher levels of moral responsibility from their leaders," particularly in government (Northouse, 2013, p. 437). The leaders of the regulatory agencies that affect our food supply, such as Michael Taylor, have the potential to play a key role in fostering an ethical climate within their respective agencies, particularly in regard to making ethical decisions. Today, one chief example of these types of decisions being evaluated with great scrutiny is the case of the FDA and the ongoing debate over the regulation of GMOs, specifically the labeling of genetically modified organisms (GMOs). At the center of this controversy is, again, the Monsanto Corporation.

Monsanto is both the world's leading developer of GMOs, and the largest private-sector contributor to the FDA's top ranks — seven former Monsanto executives have moved into high-level FDA positions in the last decade (Bonnette, 2013). The revolving door between Monsanto and the FDA is at the heart of the question of whether individuals who have been employed by both interests can navigate ethical pitfalls and lead with integrity when making the important decisions related to the regulation of GMOs. Responding to this debate, Monsanto recently issued a statement on the topic stating that the notion of a revolving door between the two organizations leading to beneficial treatment "ignores the simple truth that people regularly change jobs to find positions that match their experience, skills, and interests" (Armour, 2012, para 15).

These two opposing viewpoints — unacceptable conflict of interest versus natural and beneficial practice — frame the debate on whether ethical leadership is possible in the situation surrounding the FDA, Monsanto, and the revolving door between them. The agricultural context, the impact on the American public, and the ethical ambiguity makes this an interesting case for exploring ethical leadership in a real world scenario.

Michael R. Taylor

The face of the revolving door between regulatory agencies and corporations is Michael R. Taylor. Mr. Taylor has spent more than 30 years serving Monsanto, the FDA, and the USDA in a variety of roles. He has provided legal counsel and developed policy documents on behalf of Monsanto, and, as a regulatory agency leader, he also drafted legislation and contributed to policy frameworks related to GMOs for the federal government. In the early 1990s, after representing Monsanto as an attorney with King & Spalding, Taylor returned to the FDA as the deputy commissioner for policy. At that time, he chose to "recuse himself for one year from taking part in any agency action dealing directly with Monsanto or any other King & Spalding clients" (Schwartz, 1994, para. 10). Nonetheless, it was during this time that the congressional General Accounting Office (GAO) investigated Taylor, along with two other FDA officials, for possible ethics violations regarding the approval Monsanto's rBGH-based drug (Schwartz, 1994). Ultimately, the GOA investigators found no wrongdoing, and Taylor left to work for the USDA, followed by a job as Monsanto's vice president for public policy. Today, Taylor serves as the FDA's deputy commissioner for foods and veterinary medicine (FDA, 2013a).

Monsanto Corporation

Monsanto is an agricultural corporation headquartered in St. Louis, MO, that employs 10,277 people in the United States with 146 facilities in 33 states. Primary products include agricultural and vegetable seeds, plant biotechnology traits, and crop protection chemicals (Monsanto Corporation, n.d.a). Monsanto has addressed the revolving door issue in its internal policy, as well as in the media via press releases.

Food and Drug Administration
The FDA is an agency within the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services responsible for the regulation and labeling all food products, with the exception poultry and meat. The FDA is "the oldest comprehensive consumer protection agency" in the U.S. government, and is charged with protecting the nation's health through regulation (FDA, 2013b, para. 1). Recently, the FDA has been viewed as struggling to keep pace with regulations related to the commercialization of biotechnology, and its attempts to do so have often been regarded as compromised by the number of industry insiders influencing the regulatory decision-making process from inside the FDA (Schneider, 1994).

Background

The ethical controversy surrounding the revolving door has most recently manifested itself in the debate concerning consumers' "right to know" if they are purchasing a product containing GMOs, particularly in regard to the labeling of GMO products.

The focus of this case study is not if GMOs are safe to ingest, or even if they are environmentally hazardous. The focus is on the integrity of the process used to arrive at a decision to label or not to label, and the ethical considerations therein for the individuals responsible for facilitating that process.

Many consumer groups are concerned with the FDA's apparent preferential treatment of Monsanto when regulating GMO products, as well as the revolving door's potential influence on the decision-making process (Greenfield & Cohen, 2013). Monsanto is strongly opposed to labeling its products (Monsanto, n.d.b). At the same time, consumers are showing greater interest in learning the sources of their food; increasingly, they are demanding greater transparency in the labeling of products. To wit, "consumers are understandably suspicious when food producers
and agribusinesses like Monsanto wages a $21.9 million campaign in the state of Washington to defeat a GMO-labeling ballot measure" (Labeling GMOs Editorial, 2013, para. 6). Monsanto offers a qualified position, opposing mandatory labeling in the "absence of demonstrated risks," out of concern that it may be perceived as a warning, or imply ingredients to be "inferior to their conventional or organic counterparts" (Monsanto, n.d.b., para 3).

A recent poll conducted by the New York Times found that 93% of Americans support GMO labeling (Cohen & Greenfield, 2013). Transparency, and a consumer's right to information about their food, were significant factors that influenced those who supported labeling. Cohen and Greenfield (2013) write "people deserve to know what ingredients are in their food and whose money is being spent to influence the laws" (para. 11). Although a significant portion of the U.S. population supports GMO labeling, many people feel powerless in influencing the process (Labeling GMOs Editorial, 2013). Additionally, "Monsanto's products, as far as anyone knows, are safe. And even if they weren't, information [i.e. labeling] didn't stop Americans from abusing tobacco, alcohol, and unsafe food" (CNN Editorial, 2013, para. 22).

This conflicting information and competing viewpoints throw into sharp relief the controversy surrounding the revolving door; many believe the revolving door still influences the regulation of the agricultural biotechnology industry (Ferrara, 1998). The public will likely continue to question whether decision makers are capable of providing ethical leadership, or making sound, moral decisions on complex, often ambiguous questions, after having traversed the revolving door between regulatory agencies and industry.

Scenario and Key Questions

For the leaders of government agencies, conflicts of interest create an ever-present ethical dilemma — one that, to navigate, requires a solid understanding of one's own values, as well as skills in ethical decision making.

Having been employed previously by Monsanto, FDA Deputy Commissioner Michael Taylor is confronting an ethical dilemma as he attempts to lead his agency through the current conflict surrounding the question of labeling GMOs in the food supply. By being more cognizant of the implications of his conflict of interest, Taylor hopes to avoid the controversy that surrounded him during the 1994 rBGH scandal, and its subsequent investigation by the Government Accountability Office (GAO).

In an effort to avoid a controversy, Michael Taylor has asked for your advice on how to proceed in his leadership role during this important debate on the nation's food supply. You will prepare a report addressing the following key questions using the Principles of Ethical Leadership (Northouse, 2013) and the Ethical Decision-Making Model (Rest, 1994) as a framework:

1. In regard to his ability to lead the FDA through the debate of GMO labeling, discuss the ramifications of his conflict of interest, if any, and make suggestions for mitigating these implications.
2. Using the Five Principles of Ethical Leadership, outline the advantages and disadvantages of Michael Taylor having traversed the revolving door, and discuss how it may affect his ability to fulfill his role as FDA deputy commissioner.
3. Using the Ethical Decision-Making Model as a guide, advise Michael Taylor why, or why not, he should participate in the decision-making process surrounding the labeling of GMOs?

Core Analysis

At the heart of the matter is whether the revolving door between regulatory agencies, and the corporations they regulate, compromises ethical leadership and decision making. Traversing the revolving door necessitates an increased moral capacity and the need for intentionality in promoting perceptions of ethical behavior. This increased capacity for ethical decision making is supported by Jackson and Parry (2011) who explain that leaders are often accountable to a higher level of ethical and moral standards because of the far-reaching impact of their work. Thus, the Five Principles of Ethical Leadership (see Figure 1) can provide a framework for leadership within the context of the revolving door. Northouse (2013) states that the five principles of respect, service, justice, honesty, and community can "provide a foundation for sound ethical leadership" (p. 430).

Despite the progression of leadership theory — from leader-centric approaches to more follower-centric approaches — the literature describing the ethical values expected of our leaders has changed little (Goodenough & Woodruff, 1981; Johnson, 1993). This is due to the fact that "in making and implementing decisions, we put widely accepted ethical principles, as well as our vocation, values, character, and spiritual resources into practice" (Johnson, 1993, p. 59).

Figure 1. Principle of Ethical Decision Making Model

Research has shown that people proceed through a series of stages when processing an ethical decision (Rest, 1994). To make an ethical decision, a person works through the stages in the process, moving from moral awareness to moral action. This four-step process is based on James Rest's model (1994). The Ethical Decision-Making Model (see Figure 2) begins with "initial recognition or awareness of morally salient features of environment — that is, problem situations — to a probing of possible courses of action that would resolve the problem, to an exploration of the consequences of the proposed solutions, and a resultant decision to act or refrain from acting" (Baker, Holmes, Ciccarelli, & Nayak, 2008, p. 31).

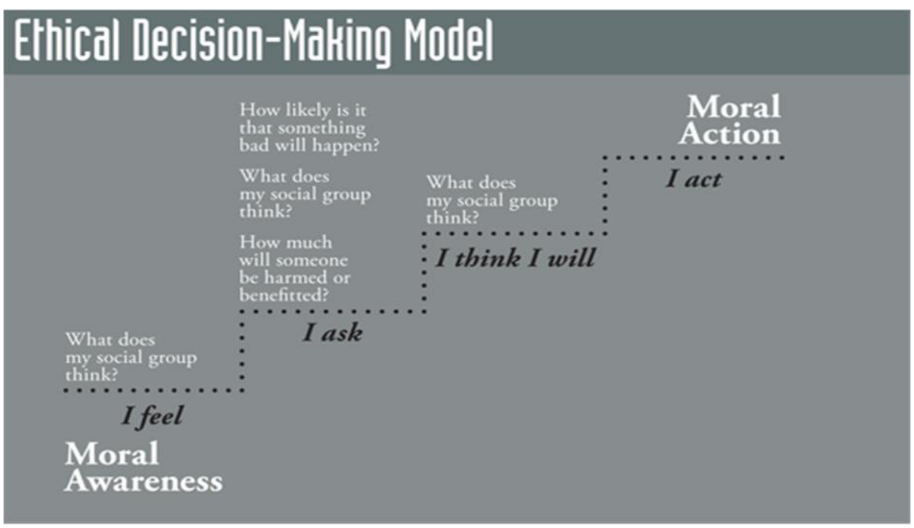

Figure 2. Rest's Moral Decision Making Model

Moral Awareness, as described by Rest (1994), refers to an individual's ability to recognize that a situation contains a moral issue. During this stage, there is gut-level recognition that the situation is morally charged. The decision-maker is answering the question: Is there something wrong here? There are "two moral intensity factors — proximity (how close the decision-maker feels to the people affected) and social consensus (whether a social group perceives a given action as right or wrong) — that can influence whether the decision-maker identifies an ethical issue" (Baker et al., 2008, p. 31). Recognizing a moral issue requires the individual's awareness that his or her actions have the potential to harm or benefit other people.

Moral Judgment assumes that the decision-maker has identified an ethical issue; he or she then begins to weigh various options in this second stage. The aim is to distinguish right from wrong, better from worse, and between competing obligations. This step in the process requires reasoning through the possible choices and potential consequences to determine which are ethically sound (Baker et al., 2008).

Moral Intention refers to the intention to choose the moral decision over another solution representing a different value. In this stage the decision-maker will commit to the moral value(s) that will guide the decision-making process (Rest, 1994). The "moral intensity factors such as magnitude of consequences (how much someone is harmed or benefited by the decision-makers action), probability of effect (the likelihood that predicted circumstances and expected level of harm or benefit will occur), and social consensus each play a role in this stage of the process (Baker et al., 2008, p. 32). For example, an individual may recognize two solutions to a dilemma, one that results in an increase of personal power and one that is morally right.

Moral Action refers to an individual's behavior. This component is the individual's action in the situation. This step involves courage, determination, and the ability to follow through with the moral decision. In this final stage, a person carries out his or her decision in spite of opposition or possible consequences (Rest, 1994). Using this model and the Five Principles of Ethical Leadership provides students with a pragmatic way to conceptualize the issue and successfully articulate their decision-making process while utilizing their value(s) as a frame of reference.

Tips for Resolution. In preparation for facilitating this case study, ensure the following:

1. Assign case readings to students; instruct them to read through the case and accompanying appendices thoroughly.

2. Be able to facilitate the review discussion of Monsanto Corporation, FDA, revolving door, controversy surrounding GMO labeling, Ethical Decision-Making Model, Michael R. Taylor, and rBGH.

3. Understand the strategy of the Three-Column Chart, Free-write, Turn & Talk, Poster Creation, and Gallery Walk activities. Also, ensure that all templates have been printed ahead of time, and that you have poster paper and markers for the last activity.

4. Have working knowledge of teaching using Anatomy of a Lesson: Assess Prior Knowledge (20% of class time), Direct Instruction/Modeling (20% of class time), Student Participation (45% of class time), and Assessment (15% of class time).

5. Monitor and adhere to the time allotted for activities. It would be helpful to have a timer that sounds; a music alarm would work nicely as well.

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Teaching Notes

The purpose of this case study is to provide students with a context and a framework by which to examine ethics, ethical leadership, and the impact of ethical leadership on organizations. By examining their personal values, learning to apply the five principles of ethical leadership, and employing the Ethical Decision-Making Model, students will be equipped to confront future ethical dilemmas.

Upon completion of this case study, students will able to: a) define ethical leadership and identify personal values; b) identify ethical implications surrounding the revolving door between Monsanto Corporation and the FDA; c) describe the steps in the Ethical Decision-Making Model and the Five Principles of Ethical Leadership; d) apply the model within the context of the case study.

The teaching notes are organized into lesson plans, each designed to address one or more case objectives. Each plan is a self-contained classroom lesson that includes: objectives, materials needed, interest approach, instructor directions, content outline, instructional procedures, key questions, and appendices, which include supplemental materials.

<table>
<tr><th colspan="2">Ethical Leadership and Decision Making</th></tr>
<tr><td>Lesson Title:</td><td>Ethical Leadership and Core Values</td></tr>
<tr><td>Estimated Time:</td><td>60 minutes</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Objective: Define ethical leadership and identify personal values</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">As a result of this lesson, students will be able to:
1. Define ethical leadership.
2. Provide examples of ethical failures of leaders.
3. Identify and understand the sources of their core values.
4. Reflect on the case study using their values as a guide.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Method of Evaluation:</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Completion of the core values worksheet and reflection questions.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Materials, Supplies, Equipment, References, and Other Resources:</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">YouTube video, Ethical Leadership PowerPoint, Core Values Worksheet</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Introduction (Motivation):</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Ethical Leadership Montage : As an interest approach have the students watch the linked YouTube video related to ethical leadership. Upon completion of the video, have students share their reactions. Use this opportunity to introduce the lesson topics: ethical leadership and values.</td></tr>
<tr><td>Instructor Directions / Materials</td><td>Content Outline, Instructional Procedures, and/or Key Questions</td></tr>
<tr><td>Prompt: What is ethical leadership?
(Think-pair-share, if necessary)</td><td>Definition: Ethical leadership is knowing your core values and having the courage to live them in all parts of your life in service of the common good.</td></tr>
<tr><td>Present Ethical Leadership PowerPoint Presentation (Appendix A).</td><td>Using the PPT presentation and information found in the notes section the instructor should frame the presentation with the following questions:
1. Who is the most ethical person you know?</td></tr>
</table>

	2. Why did you think of this person? 3. What are the characteristics you associate with this person? 4. Based your knowledge of the case study, is Michael Taylor an ethical person? Why or why not? Following this discussion, provide an overview of ethical leadership that includes the following points: 1. Leadership has a moral dimension because leaders influence the lives of others. 2. There is an obligation to work for the common good. 3. Almost everything a leader does has ethical overtones. 4. The way a leader goes about his or her work determines whether or not he or she is an ethical leader. Following the discussion, use the PowerPoint slide to help students understand the differences between ethics, morals, and values.
Activity: Identify your core values activity/assessment (Appendix B)	To frame this activity, begin with the prompt: Think of a time when you made a hard but "right" decision. Follow up with: What motivated you to make the "right" decision. Have the students share and use this as an introduction to values and how they influence decision making and ethical leadership. Based on the definition of ethical leadership, knowing your core values is essential to practicing leadership for the common good. This exercise will help students clarify their core values. Directions can be found in the worksheet in Appendix B.
Present Ethical Leadership PowerPoint Presentation (Appendix A).	Upon completion of the core values questionnaire, return to the PowerPoint presentation and help students make sense of their core values by providing the diagrams related to the sources of our values and how values impact leadership.
Reflection Questions: The following are reflections questions on your personal journey toward ethical leadership:	In an effort to evaluate learning, the following reflection questions can be asked aloud, or completed in written form. 1. Will you have the courage to live out your values when there is pressure to compromise or rationalize? 2. How do your values contribute to the common good? 3. Why it is important to use ethical behavior? 4. Why would someone want to be ethical in his or her own life or at work? 5. What steps should you follow to make ethical decisions?
Closure/Summary:	The lesson can be concluded by asking students how they will apply their core values, and then ended with this brief statement: Your core values can help you make difficult decisions, choose particular lifestyle, select employment, raise a child — the possibilities are endless; they can even help you find common ground with someone you disagree with. The most important thing is that you integrate them into your life as much as you can.

<table>
<tr><th colspan="2">Ethical Leadership and the Decision-Making Process</th></tr>
<tr><td>Lesson Title:</td><td>Ethical Implications of the Revolving Door: And Beyond</td></tr>
<tr><td>Estimated Time:</td><td>90 minutes</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Objective: Identify ethical implications of the revolving door.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">As a result of this lesson, students will be able to:
1. Articulate the details of the case study.
2. Identify ethical issues associated with the case study.
3. Reflect on the identified ethical issues using their values as a guide.
4. Describe their personal values to others.
5. Understand opposing viewpoints related to the case question.
6. Prioritize issues and key players of the case study.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Method of Evaluation:</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">To evaluate learning, students will complete “Sharing Out,” “Poster Creation,” and “Gallery Walk” activities.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Supplies, Equipment, References, and Other Resources:</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Handouts for this lesson can be found in Appendices C - F. They include: Sharing Reflection worksheet; Three-Column Chart; Instructor Notes; Sharing Out, Poster Creation, and Gallery Walk protocols.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Introduction (Interest Approach): (10 minutes)</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">To further interest students in exploring the ethical implications of the revolving door and the impact it decision-making process surrounding the issue of GMO labeling, lead in with one of the approaches provided below.
• Option 1: Show “Food, Inc.” (The first four minutes of the movie are sufficient)
• Option 2: Organize a brief debate during which teams argue both sides of the case — both advantages and disadvantage of the revolving door.</td></tr>
<tr><th>Instructor Directions / Materials</th><th>Content Outline, Instructional Procedures, and/or Key Questions</th></tr>
<tr><td>Discussion Questions</td><td>In order to elicit interest in this topic and review the case study details, the following discussion question should be posed at the outset of the lesson:

1. In light of Americans’ insistence “on higher levels of moral responsibility from their leaders,” using your values as a guide, should the revolving door be banned, regulated, or embraced (Northouse, 2013, p. 437)? Explain why or why not?

Instructor Notes: There is no right or wrong answer. Students should clearly state whether the revolving door should be banned, regulated, or embraced, and provide supporting evidence for their position. If they state that it should be regulated, student should also discuss who should be responsible for such regulations.

2. What leadership approaches, if any, could apply to the ethical dilemma?</td></tr>
</table>

	Instructor Notes: Students should draw upon other leadership practices or theories that they've studied in class that would apply to ethical leadership (e.g. servant leadership, authentic leadership, etc.). 3. What ethical considerations prompted the investigation into the involvement of Michael Taylor and two other FDA officials involved in the 1994 rBGH scandal, and how might those same concerns resurface in the current GMO labeling debate? Discuss these concerns within the context of the Five Principles of Ethical Leadership (respect, service, justice, honesty, and community) suggested by Northouse (2013). Instructor Notes: Answer will address each of the five and can/should vary from student to student based on their personal value system. The free-write should address each of the five principles to some extent.
Free-write Activity (5 minutes)	Working independently, students will complete a five-minute free-write about the previous discussion questions using the following prompt: Based on what I've read, and my personal value system, my opinion regarding the ethical implications for Michael Taylor is …
Turn and Talk Activity (8 minutes)	In order to understand other students' viewpoints related to the ethical dilemma, students will complete a 'Turn & Talk' activity with an elbow partner, discussing the opinions in their free-write. Allow four minutes (two minutes per partner), and then have them 'Turn & Talk' with their other elbow partner.
Reflection Activity (3 minutes)	In order to process the Turn and Talk discussion, students will have three additional minutes to complete the Sharing Reflection worksheet that provides an opportunity to note what they heard, affirmations, and wonderings about the ethical implications of the revolving door (see Appendix C).
Review Activity (15 minutes)	In an effort to synthesize the previous discussion, students will complete the Three-Column Chart© activity. This activity will allow students to review what they have learned about Monsanto Corporation, FDA, the revolving door, GMO labeling, the Ethical Decision-Making Model, the Five Principles of Ethical Decision Making, and Michael R. Taylor by establishing priority using the Three-Column Chart©. Instructor Notes: In the context of ethical leadership and decision making, students will prioritize issues and key players presented in the case study. Student should label the Three-Column Chart© (Appendix D) with the following: Most Important, Somewhat Important, Not At All Important. Students can work individually or in groups to complete this activity. See Appendix E for instructor review points.
Application: (52 minutes)	Sharing Out, Poster Creation, and Gallery Walk activities. To ensure that students utilize the information provided in the case study to

	identify ethical implications of the revolving door, each will complete the Sharing Out, Poster Creation, and Gallery Walk activities. Divide student into groups of five. The instructor should review instructions provided in Appendix F before students begin the activity.
Closure/Summary: (5 minutes)	Formative Assessment. Instructor calls for questions, clarifies any misunderstandings, and facilitates closing discussion.

Ethical Leadership and Decision Making	
Lesson Title:	Applications of the Ethical Decision-Making Model
Estimated Time:	70 Minutes
Objective: Apply principles of ethical leadership and decision making to a real-world scenario.	
As a result of this lesson, students will be able to: 1. Describe the steps in the Ethical Decision-Making Model. 2. Apply the model to multiple ethical dilemmas. 3. Synthesize case information, personal values, ethical dilemmas, and leadership practice by developing a written report with plan of action.	
Method of Evaluation:	
Students will complete a capstone report summarizing case information and develop a plan advising Michael Taylor on the ethical implications of his involvement in the decision-making process surrounding the labeling of GMOs.	
Supplies, Equipment, References, and Other Resources:	
Ethical Leadership Decision-Making Model scenarios worksheet, Post-it Super Sticky Pads, and markers.	
Introduction (Motivation):	
Carrousel Activity: Students should briefly share their thoughts on what is meant by “decision making.” (10 minutes)	
Instructor Directions / Materials	Content Outline, Instructional Procedures, and/or Key Questions
Decision-Making PowerPoint (Appendix G)	Using the provided PowerPoint, the instructor should explain the steps of the Ethical Decision-Making Model and questions that should be asked of oneself during each stage of the process. Supplemental information for the instructor and students can be found in the Ethical and Theoretical Considerations section of the case study narrative.
Scenario Group Activity (Appendix H)	Once students possess a basic understanding of the Ethical Decision-Making Model, they will develop a working knowledge of the model by applying it one of the provided scenarios. Independently, students should select a scenario from the handout and use the Ethical Decision-Making Model and their core values to arrive at a resolution. Each student will have 25 minutes to complete the activity. Upon completion of the activity, students should form groups based on their selected scenario. Allow groups with 20 minutes to discuss and

	arrive at consensus regarding the proper course of action for the scenario. On a large Post-It note, each group should recreate the model, including important details of their scenario, as well as their thoughts on the process. After discussion within groups, each group will have approximately five minutes to share their decision-making process and resolution with the class.
Context for Capstone Project	Instructor should share the elements of the case problem presented below in order to provide students with necessary context, and to prepare them to complete the capstone project. For the leaders of government agencies, conflicts of interest create an ever-present ethical dilemma — one that, to navigate, requires a solid understanding of one's own values, as well as skills in ethical decision making. Having been employed previously by Monsanto, FDA Deputy Commissioner Michael Taylor is confronting an ethical dilemma as he attempts to lead his agency through the current conflict surrounding the question of labeling GMOs in the food supply. By being more cognizant of the implications of his conflict of interest, Taylor hopes to avoid the controversy that surrounded him during the 1994 rBGH scandal, and its subsequent investigation by the Government Accountability Office (GAO).
Capstone Project	In an effort to avoid a controversy, Michael Taylor has asked for your advice on how to proceed in his leadership role during this important debate on the nation's food supply. You will prepare a report, including a plan of action, which addresses the following questions using the Principles of Ethical Leadership (Northouse, 2013) and the Ethical Decision-Making Model (Rest, 1994) as frameworks: 1. In regard to his ability to lead the FDA through the debate of GMO labeling, discuss the ramifications of his conflict of interest, if any, and make suggestions for mitigating these implications. 2. Using the Five Principles of Ethical Leadership, outline the advantages and disadvantages of Michael Taylor having traversed the revolving door, and discuss how it may affect his ability to fulfill his role as FDA deputy commissioner. 3. Using the Ethical Decision-Making Model as a guide, advise Michael Taylor why or why not he should participate in the decision-making process surrounding the labeling of GMOs?
Closure/Summary:	Following completion of the written report, students will prepare a 10-minute presentation outlining their suggested course of action for Michael Taylor.

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The Future is Here: A Dialogue on Developing Online Leadership Courses that Promote Multi-•-Dimensional Learning

Mary Filice
Columbia College Chicago

Beth Ryan
Columbia College Chicago

Introduction

Leadership is a fundamental element of the human. Wherever society exists, leadership exists (Hackman, et. al. 2013) and the soft skills of leadership − trustworthiness, teamwork, decision making, and problem solving − top the list of what today's employers want from their college recruits (Adams, 2013).

Rapid advancements in technology, globalization, and emergent and progressive social behaviors are resulting in more instances of digital meetings and teamwork that require distance leadership. Teaching leadership online is an opportunity to model this practice as we develop online leadership curriculum to produce 21st Century leaders and thinkers.

This roundtable will explore creative ways to align past and current leadership topics with 21st Century distance learning modalities. Participants will engage in a dialogue to investigate increasing student engagement in online leadership courses; the development of strong organizational, problem solving, and critical thinking activities that develop student's interpersonal leadership skills; the demonstration of emotional, cultural, and contextual intelligences; and the creation of online learning assessments.

Although debates continue regarding digital education and its status as a fad, trend, or revolution, the fact is that online courses are a reality. Confounding this reality is the existing myth asserting that it is easy to teach online (Palloff, et. al., 2011), that instructors simply need to write-•-up and post existing assignments to the learning management system and the transition to online teaching is complete.

However, this online delivery of a one-•-dimensional and one-•-way curriculum must be expanded to a multi-•-dimensional approach including cognitive, emotional, physical/kinetic, and social learning processes. As educators teaching in face-•-to-•-face learning environments, we use a variety of methods to engage our students and allow them to experience their disciplines through collaborative, active learning. This active learning approach allows students to vigorously participate in their education while reflecting on the processes and results of their academic work (Barkley, 2010). This is the methodology that needs to be included if we are to achieve this type of dynamic, active learning online, which is particularly relevant to leadership education.

Background

Combined, the co-•-presenters bring over 20-•-years of professional development, student coaching and mentoring, and teaching experience to this session. Having developed the leadership curriculum as a core requirement for their major, these educators teach both undergraduate and graduate leadership and continue to collaborate to ensure the relevancy and rigor of their trans-disciplinary leadership coursework. They have been researching and incorporating main themes from Goleman's work on Emotional Intelligence with the zeitgeist (Mayo, et. al., 2005) and contextual (Nye, 2010) theories of leadership to prepare students with the entrepreneurial skills needed for emerging industries.

In response to the increasing demand for online courses, the two co-•-presenters are leading a task force charged with developing an online leadership component of this core requirement. This roundtable will benefit from the knowledge and experience these two educators bring on the subject matter, especially pertaining to the creation of a distance learning leadership program.

Means for Discussion/Interaction

The Roundtable Discussion will be presented using the seven principles of the World Cafe method (Brown and Isaacs, 2005). Since our ancestors gathered in circles to solve problems and talk about the future, World Cafes are an excellent way to bridge the conference theme of reflecting on the past and focusing on the future.

Given the dynamic nature of leadership education, the dialogue will be exploratory. The facilitators will lead with prompting questions, guiding participants to ask questions, share best practices, and commit to furthering the conversation post-•-conference.

The following World Cafe Discussion Guidelines will accelerate the process.

1. Facilitators will lead with a series of questions to guide focused conversations.
2. Several rounds of participant dialogues will generate ideas, best practices and future topics for research and discussion
3. Participants will report back their key points for recording purposes.
4. Facilitators will collect information and share with participants post conference

Implications & Next Steps

This roundtable will use our understanding of past and current leadership theories and how they have been taught as a basis to explore the future of leadership education, which we propose to be a multi-•-dimensional and active learning focused online curriculum.

Ideas and themes that emerge from this session will help further identify creative practices for educators to more effectively engage students in online leadership courses. An ongoing objective is to create multi-•-dimensional learning opportunities to help students develop their leadership competencies as well as expand their knowledge of pertinent leadership topics in the 21st Century. Participants will take-•-away a range of meaningful ideas, methods, and tools needed to develop a multi-•-dimensional, active learning based online leadership curriculum, along with having established a network of like-•-minded leadership educators with whom to share their ongoing academic work post conference.

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The World Cafe About World http://www.theworldcafe.com/about.html

E-portfolios as a pedagogical tool for leadership education: Why do them? How to best use them? What do they produce?

Francesca Lo, University of Washington

Introduction

E-portfolios have gained prominence as a powerful pedagogical tool to help students articulate and integrate their learning across multiple experiences both inside and outside the classroom. This roundtable will provide participants an opportunity to discuss the questions of purpose, design, and outcomes of e-portfolios in the practice of leadership education. Whether having used e-portfolios extensively or contemplating their potential use, participants will leave this session with new ideas to consider in utilizing this exciting teaching and learning tool.

Background

E-portfolios have been transforming college students' educational experiences and have gained prominence as a powerful pedagogical tool to help students articulate and integrate their learning across multiple experiences both inside and outside the classroom. As a way to make students' own work the centerpiece of assessment, portfolios are an ideal format for collecting evidence of student work that also facilitate student reflection upon, and engagement with, their own learning over time (Finley, 2012). On a parallel track, the leadership education research shows that there is a need to better support students in adopting an accurate self-awareness regarding their leadership capacity, which includes better aligning their levels of self-efficacy for leadership with actual knowledge and skills (Dugan, & Komives, 2007). Therefore, a promising opportunity arises to utilize e-portfolios in fostering students' self-awareness of their leadership capacity.

University X's Leadership Initiative is utilizing this evidence-based best practice for teaching and learning in its leadership education efforts. The Leadership Initiative, housed in Undergraduate Academic Affairs, is a cross-campus effort that facilitates, deepens and expands student leadership education opportunities with the vision of cultivating the knowledge, skills and attitudes students need to be effective change agents and contributing members in their communities. Through the Leadership Initiative's capstone Leadership Certificate program, students create a leadership e-portfolio that integrates their leadership values, competencies, learning and long-term goals. In these e-portfolios, students provide evidence for developing and demonstrating specific leadership competencies, which include knowledge, attitudes, skills and behavior dimensions. Students are matched with a leadership mentor who helps them reflect upon and give voice to their leadership development. An optional credit- bearing "Leadership Portfolio" course also guides students through a series of reflective exercises that encourages them to identify deep connections between their learning, leadership development experiences and life goals. This course is adapted from the Integrative Knowledge Portfolio Process (Peet, M.R., 2012) and engages peer feedback and dialogue to help students articulate both explicit and tacit knowledge in relation to their leadership development. In the 2012-2013 academic year, 20 students participated in a pilot project that led to the Leadership Certificate's public debut during the 2013-2014 academic year with 55 undergraduate students developing leadership e-portfolios.

We have learned many lessons about how to best utilize e-portfolios in leadership education. First, peer/mentor feedback and dialogue have been instrumental in helping students articulate their tacit knowledge. Second, by guiding students to integrate and articulate their learning across multiple experiences, they are able to coherently articulate their values and strengths. Third, the variety of online platforms available today gives students the flexibility to creatively tell their unique story. Lastly, our experience has helped us see that leadership education takes place in a variety of contexts both in and outside the classroom and is largely implicit, and the e-portfolio process is what enables leadership education to be made explicit.

Means for Discussion/Interaction

I will launch this roundtable discussion by sharing how University X has utilized e-portfolios as a teaching and learning tool in leadership education in addition to lessons learned from this e-portfolio experience. I will then engage the participants in a lively dialogue around questions of purpose, design, and outcomes of this pedagogical tool.

The questions that participants will address during this roundtable session include: Purpose questions:

- What is the purpose of utilizing e-portfolios as a teaching and learning tool in leadership education?

Design questions:

- What are different design approaches in scaffolding an e-portfolio process for students?
- How do we address the tension between requiring students to demonstrate mastery in relation to specific, pre-defined leadership competencies versus being open for broad articulation of student learning?
- When is the best time in their education for students to engage in an e-portfolio creation process? Outcome questions:
- What is the impact of e-portfolios on student learning?
- How do we address the tension between developing a public professional e- portfolio versus a private learning e-portfolio?
- How do we address the pitfalls of e-portfolios when they may promote a notion of "bragging" and a focus on individualism in an era of needed collectivism?

Implications & Next Steps

As we ask our students who go through the e-portfolio process to reflect on their past and envision their future for leadership engagement, this roundtable discussion similarly calls for participants to critically reflect on this teaching and learning pedagogical tool while exploring future opportunities to further maximize the potential of e-portfolios in innovative leadership education. By discussing the tensions that arise with the use of e-portfolios, participants will co-construct new knowledge so leadership educators who use or aspire to use e-portfolios as a pedagogical tool can maximize their effectiveness.

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The Future of Leadership Education:
Enhancing and Evaluating the Facilitative Approach to Training Leaders

Yael Hellman, Woodbury University

Introduction

Most leadership educators concur that the most effective method for training adults to lead is facilitative. Such interactive, hands-on, cooperative, and learner-driven teaching best matches the needs of each mature learner (as adult educational theory suggests) and best integrates them with organizational needs (increasing worker cooperation; encouraging visionary and ethical leadership; improving communication with and responsiveness to the community and clients). Facilitative teaching calls on learners' life experiences and professional interests, and practices skills within a supportive group (following group dynamics theory). Such learning applies immediately to the work environment, and lets participants clarify their leadership vision and discover how to achieve it collaboratively with those they lead. So the overriding issues of this Roundtable, and the topics it will explore, are 1) how educators can achieve facilitative goals in their classrooms; 2) how educators can assess their success in the facilitative classroom; and 3) how educators can contribute to a reliable body of research on the real- life benefits of facilitative training in leadership.

Objectives, Topic One: How educators can achieve facilitative goals in their classrooms. The Roundtable discussion culls the best practices and resources, tried-and- true lesson outlines, and real-life accounts of the pitfalls and possibilities of facilitation. These practical instructions and “trade secrets” the facilitator and attendees will share illustrate the adult education, group dynamics, and leadership knowledge that makes facilitative teaching of leadership engaging and effective.

> **Experiential:** Participants will be asked to describe one “best practice” and one “worst practice” or failure in the classroom. Group discussion will cover how best to achieve their goals using their experience of best and worst practices.

Objectives, Topic Two: How educators can assess their success in the facilitative classroom. Discussion of this topic will include the value of anecdotal evidence and consider the use of end-of-class evaluations as well as formal follow-up surveys of alumni and their supervisors in assessing the applicability of facilitative learning to workplace leadership.

> **Experiential:** Participants will share how they know they are successful and how they identify areas needing improvements. Discussion will include class evaluations and any longitudinal surveys or follow-up questioning participants have done, and will consider how these can help program reviews (by tracking retention rates, referrals of others to programs, material alumni have incorporated at work).

Objectives, Topic Three: How educators can contribute to research on facilitative training in leadership. Attendees will debate the feasibility of tracking trainees' career advances and supervisor evaluations to assess the real-world benefits of the facilitative approach to leadership education. Instruments for consideration include trainee and supervisor surveys, sales records, and client feedback.

> Experiential: The group will discuss the lack of written substantiation of the efficacy of the facilitative approach, the need to further research, and how this might be done. In other words, participants will brainstorm ideas for further research aims and tools.

Background

Leading scholars in the field of private-sector leadership, including luminaries such as Heifetz, Linsky, Jenkins, Johnstone, Fern, Kegan, Lahey, Parks, Singh, Munchergi, and Yi, hail from the business community itself or from business think-tanks. But while they and scores of leadership scholars and business advisors champion facilitation as the optimal approach for executive development, similar numbers have decried the total absence of any objective proof or explanation of its success.

Clearly, the cultures of private and public sectors differ, and business employees and organizations have significantly different motivations and systems for advancing leadership skills than do public servants and organizations. But two essential points about group dynamics in the facilitative classroom ensure that it can be made to apply to either: First, every group (business or non-profit) creates its own culture; and, second, facilitative teaching actually requires adjustment to a group's specific culture.

Since the teaching approach can work in either sector, its efficacy can also be tested in either. So the multi-population, longitudinal, survey-based research I've completed on facilitative leadership teaching in the public sphere should be reproducible in business circles as well. While adjustments for the motivations and cultural style of each type of organization should be made--in fact, the flexibility of facilitation is its strongest suit--the future of leadership education depends on the ability of educators to rely on quantifiable indicators of its on-the-ground success. Whether that culture is corporate or civic, we can and must measure the power of facilitative education to create effective, ethical leaders (Miller and Mandzuk 2012).

Indeed, such instruments as I devised for my study (Hellman, in press, 2014) are not the only assessment mechanism available in the private sector that can reliably assess the worth of facilitative leadership education. Businesses can and do constantly measure themselves against their competitors or earlier performance. So private enterprises could also assess the success of their executive education in comparison to those used by other corporations. In addition to surveys of course participants, their supervisors, and the employees they direct, other built-in instruments to measure success and failure abound-- instruments that the public sector notably lacks. Although imperfectly quantifiable, businesses can and frequently do survey customers to capture their reactions to managerial intervention. They can ask how clearly a sales representative presented a product; how courteously sales staff handled requests; and how fairly executives resolved consumer complaints. In addition, private enterprises can track actual sales activity in a way that's not available to public servants: Customers vote with their wallets by choosing one store or company over another, but citizens must resolve their law enforcement problems at their own precinct. So even without any formal quantitative studies, private sector organizations could judge the success of facilitative education in leadership skills. It stands to reason that the nearly universal theoretical support for facilitative training of leaders within the business world would be confirmed by any of these quantitative and qualitative measures available to it.

The goal of this Conference, to focus leadership educators on the future of the field, would be very well served by a concerted attempt to evaluate the value of facilitative leadership training in the real world. Just as skilled facilitators bend techniques to motivate particular participants, they can and should apply universal research techniques, and those uniquely available to the private sector, to assess the efficacy of their teaching. Surveys of leadership candidates, supervisors and employees; customer questionnaires, and sales tracking provide realistic indications of a company's managerial success. All these instruments can help quantify the power of facilitative leadership education.

Means for Discussion/Interaction

After a short introduction by the facilitator, each 20-minute segment of the Roundtable will open with the facilitator's brief presentation of current theory and research in the specific topic. One of the facilitator's best practices, having paired attendees introduce each other to the group, will encourage immediate interaction, as well as illustrate the power of collaborative, hands-on, participant-led learning. In addition, each segment encourages direct participation in discussion and debate.

Implications & Next Steps

The focus of each of the three topics in the Roundtable discussion, in keeping with that of the Conference, concerns how we as leadership educators can build on past research and experience to enhance our facilitative teaching; to assess its value in our classrooms; and reliably to evaluate on-the-ground merits of facilitative training in leadership. Following the Conference goal, we will explore ways to build on minimal past research (and nearly universal anecdotal evidence) to analyze and quantify the power of facilitation to create effective and ethical leaders.

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Exploring the Dark Side of Service Learning and Servant Leadership Narratives

Nicholas Clegorne
Virginia Tech

Introduction

The objectives of this roundtable are two-fold. First, participants will be able to better articulate an increasing body of critical literature that often regards service learning as harmful related to social justice (Davis, 2006; Eby, 1998; Howard, 2011). Second the participants will share their own experiences and work cooperatively to imagine more socially just service experiences. In the presenter's experience, the latter objective supports the former. Evidence will be shared demonstrating that students exhibited alarming tendencies to colonize community spaces and members though service. Here "to colonize" is used as in post-colonial theory (e.g. Said, 1979) and refers to an active attempt by one individual or population to project their own values and expectations on a separate, sovereign community. Specifically, students shared narratives in which they privileged themselves as heroes while representing community members as beside the point or invalid. Ultimately we will explore curricula that disrupt hero-centered conceptualizations of service learning curricula in leadership education programs.

Background

Our current postindustrial paradigm is marked by the fact that more resources in our society are exchanged for services rather than products. It is easy to see how we might develop the sense that *service* has an self-referential inherent value and is thus always positive, useful, and, most importantly, desirable to the party that the provider determines to be in need. The language around service learning leads us to believe that service learners are providing solutions for needy communities much as an information technology firm might do for a bank. Critical analysis of service learning, however, highlights a taken-for-granted assumption of the value of charity among service learning proponents. Specifically, there is an assumption that service locations, or the communities in which service learners are inserted, are desperate for any help they can get. Recently, the notion of charity as an element of applied critical engagement has been troubled in service learning and social justice oriented experiences (Eby, 1998; Howard, 2011).

Many transdisciplinary programs in colleges and universities utilize service learning within the curriculum. It is claimed that such experiences provide students with the opportunity to observe so-called "troubled" or "needy" communities in a more authentic manner while also serving the public good. Leadership education programs often connect said experiences to models of servant leadership (Greenleaf, 2002) or social change (HERI, 1996) and assume service to be inherently benign, beneficial, and, indeed, heroic. Such viewpoints have been shared by our students after the conclusion of several co-curricular service experiences. Students appear to situate themselves as either heroes, martyrs, or both. Further, many seem to need to be told that they have saved someone or sacrificed selflessly in order to have some sort of altruistic itch scratched.

In the round table session we will imagine a curriculum wherein notions of who the server is and who is *served* are complicated and ever-shifting thereby challenging the traditional heroic narrative of charity. This is, in part, responsive to the recognition that students, on one hand, see themselves as providers of much needed aid and, on the other hand, expect certain "services" in return (e.g. gratitude, praise, etc.) My own local observations of such phenomena are far from unique. Critique regarding the negative consequences of such programs has ranged from unpacking unintended harm (e.g. Eby, 1998) to exposing sophisticated, brutal colonization tactics (Illich, 1968). Illich addressed the latter in an address to the Conference on InterAmerican Student Projects (CIASP) in Cuernavaca, Mexico, on April 20, 1968 sharing:

> "I am here to entreat you to freely, consciously and humbly give up the legal right you have to impose your benevolence on Mexico. I am here to challenge you to recognize your inability, your powerlessness and your incapacity to do the "good" which you intended to do."

In his sarcastic, scathing indictment of colonialism masked as service, Illich demanded that would be "do-gooders" should only come to what they would call "developing countries" to observe and learn so they can return home and benefit their own communities; but never to "help". He went on to suggest that any further action was an invasion or attack on the community that service workers often believed they were improving. Ultimately his critique was fair: *help* and *improvement*, to the privileged eye, means making the other look more like the privileged. This is a common narrative in post-colonial literature (e.g.Said, 1979; Spivak & Harasym, 1990). Such interactions focus on the privileged community's perceived strengths while fixating on the other's perceived limitations; from the viewpoint of the privileged, of course. In other words, a powerful post-industrial ideology that has come to be infused in service learning narratives is an a priori assumption that the site of the service is a *broken* community. In such a paradigm, it is difficult for students to assume anything other than that they are riding in on a white horse to save the day.

An alternative, then, is to authentically focus on the gifts of both communities; to assume each community is viable and sustainable on its own; and to recognize that all are sharing ideas and caring for each other equitably (e.g. Block, 2009). The benefits of the interactions described by Block are reciprocal and often the party formerly known as the "service provider" learns or benefits more than the community once known as "needy". This care is what Peter Block calls associational life and we would be remiss if we did not link the concept back to John Dewey's (2013) modes of associative living. This notion of associational life may be used to examine more contemporary corporate leadership trends like social entrepreneurship and corporate social responsibility.

From a curricular perspective, such a paradigmatic shift is a tough sell to college freshmen steeped in the nobility-masked, colonizing oppression of missionary-style service. Many have remarked that oppressive tendencies of human beings, particularly privileged people, cannot ever be truly resolved. Rather, they suggest that a "hygiene approach" is more appropriate. Here I am not speaking in the terms wielded by genocidal ethic cleansers, but rather referring to the habitual practice of keeping the potential to maliciously or unintentionally marginalize others in mind. This notion is opposed to the idea that some sort of diversity training or certification permanently inoculates one against being or becoming a racist, sexist, homophobe, or any other iteration of the oppressor (or combination thereof). Employing guided forays into critical theory and postcolonial theory in linked coursework may be a viable means of providing a method of hygiene which students can practice on the immersion experience and beyond.

Means for Discussion/Interaction

1. Brief review of terms and theoretical frameworks (5 minutes)
    a. Servant Leadership and the Social Change Model
    b. Critical and Post-Colonial Theory
2. Share presenter and participant personal experiences with service learning (pros and cons) (5 minutes)
3. Time set aside to image how conversations might change in order to create more social just service learning in leadership programs (10 minutes)

Foreseeable Implications of Discussion

When reflecting on past iterations of service learning, ultimately, much of the power which enables such objectionable outcomes derives from the manner by which roles are assumed within the service learning experience. Grohs (2012) explains that, at its best, such a model can espouse a paradigm wherein community engagement can be viewed from anyone's perspective as "about you and me and us all at the same time". Though the narratives the roundtable will engage, we will seek to disrupt situations in which many students fancy themselves in the center as server all-the-while expecting praise and ultimately marginalizing community members whom they would label "served". Ideally, such a disruption will generate a "ripple effect" as participants return to their universities and engage such complicated questions. If we all begin to recognize the harm present many service learning programs we might illuminate the dark side of service learning and create a future of community engagement that is brighter than ever.

Next Steps

By interrupting the notion that service is inherently always positive we may better recognize the care that is required for such educational strategies to be thoughtfully and respectfully implemented. Ultimately, each group will begin to think about critical pedagogies which utilize a post-colonial lens for keeping privilege in in check and socially just community at the forefront. Collaboration for further examination of colonization within service projects and more socially just service experiences may also emerge from the discussion.

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Finding Common Ground: Agricultural Leadership Educators Discuss the National Leadership Education Research Agenda

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Abstract

Have you considered how the *National Leadership Education Research Agenda (NLERA)* impacts your research program? The roundtable discussion will serve asa forum for agricultural leadership educators to compare the NLERA to the *National Research Agenda of Agricultural Education and Communication* and to discuss the impact on personal research agendas.

Introduction

Agricultural leadership is defined as "the study of leadership applied to the agricultural context" (Stedman and Pennington Weeks, 2013, p. 83). Rick Foster of the Kellogg Foundation wrote that the "need for effective leadership in an increasingly global, rapidly changing, and knowledge-based society is more apparent now than ever" (2000, p. 87). This statement is true for all disciplines, but especially true for the areas that comprise the agricultural sciences. With its far- reaching impacts, the food and agricultural sciences needs strong leaders.

The agricultural leadership educator is in the business of preparing future leaders for the food and agricultural sciences. The role requires faculty to wear not only the hat of the leadership educator, but also, that of the agriculturalist. In an effort to support professional development in both areas, many agricultural leadership educators hold membership in both the Association of Leadership Educators (ALE) and the American Association for Agricultural Education (AAAE). As such, the 2013 unveiling of the *National Leadership Education Research Agenda (NLERA)* (Andenoro, Allen, Haber-Curran, Jenkins, Sowcik, Dugan, and Osteen, 2013) has created a need to examine not only the recently announced NLERA, but also a need to reexamine the *National Research Agenda of Agricultural Education and Communication (NRAAEC)* (Doerfert, 2011) as compared to the NLERA.

Background

The *National Leadership Education Research Agenda (NLERA)* (Andenoro, et al., 2013) was shared with leadership educators at the 2013 annual meeting of the Association of Leadership Educators (Andenoro, 2013) and since then has been examined by more than a dozen colleagues in the 2013 special issue of the *Journal of Leadership Education*. Two manuscripts published in the special issue focus on the NLERA from the lens of the agricultural leadership educator (Birkenholz, 2014, Stedman & Pennington Weeks, 2014). Birkenholz (2013) contends that agricultural leadership educators, based on the NLERA, "will likely shift" (p. 78) their personal research programs to fit NLERA priorities. However, as the agricultural leadership educator begins to consider the NLERA, he/she must also consider the *National Research Agenda of Agricultural Education and Communication (NRAAEC)* (Doerfert, 2011).

To this end, Stedman and Pennington Weeks (2013) compared the NLERA to the NRAAEC to "provide a framework by which agricultural leadership educators can value the complementary nature of both the NRAAEC and the NLERA" (p. 86). In their comparison of the two national research agendas, Stedman and Pennington Weeks (2013) identify five research themes aligned with both agendas: teaching and learning, evaluation of programs, community leadership and change, our leaders, and change and innovation.

As an agricultural leadership educator, have you considered how the NLERA impacts your personal research agenda? Furthermore, have you considered the similarities and differences between the NLERA and the NRAAEC as it relates to your research program? The roundtable discussion will serve as a forum for agricultural leadership educators to discuss the NLERA, the demands of the NRAAEC, and what the two different national research agendas mean for personal research agendas.

Means for Discussion/Interaction

To introduce the session, the facilitators will briefly review each of the priority areas described in the NLERA and the NRAAEC. The *National Leadership Education Research Agenda (NLERA)* (Andenoro, et al., 2013) includes two pedagogical priorities described as "the applied how of leadership education" and five content-based priorities described as "the applied what and who of leadership education." The *National Research Agenda of Agricultural Education and Communication (NRAAEC)* (Doerfert, 2011) is comprised of six priority areas. Copies of both documents will be shared with participants.

After introducing the two different research agendas, participants will compare the two agendas seeking to identify common ground. The facilitators will use guided discussion to encourage participation from attendees. It is the goal of the facilitators to create a collaborative learning process in which all participants share their ideas, expertise, and experiences. The following questions will be used to guide discussion:

- What similarities and differences do you see when examining the two documents?
- What do you believe to be common ground among the two documents?
- How is your current research program related to either/both of the
- agendas? Will you shift your research program to fit NLERA? If so, how?

Foreseeable Implications

The roundtable discussion serves as an opportunity for agricultural leadership educators to examine the National Leadership Education Research Agenda in the context of agricultural leadership education and the NRAAEC. Potential outcomes include:

- Identification of current practices related to individual research programs.
- Identification of complementary areas of research between the NLERA and NRAAEC. The alignment of personal research programs with NLERA.
- A network of leadership educators interested in collaborative research efforts.

Recommended Next Steps

As the roundtable discussion concludes, participants will be encouraged to examine their current research program and how it fits within the National Leadership Education Research Agenda. Each participant will share their research plans as it relates to the agenda and have the opportunity to identify faculty with similar interests. Participants will also explore the need for future extended conversations regarding the two research agendas.

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Getting Along? Developing a Culture of Cohesion in a Department of Leadership Studies

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Abstract

Teaching leadership is a passion that we share, but how do we model what we teach in our respective department, units, and programs? This roundtable will give participants an opportunity to discuss ideas about how to build an engaging culture that incorporates elements of leadership studies.

Introduction

Building leadership programs has been the focus of leadership educators for well over thirty years (Riggio, Ciulla, & Sorenson, 2003). With leadership programs embedded into multiple university initiatives, it is critical to conduct extensive research of those programs and their impact on the development of student learning outcomes. These programs continue to focus on assessment of student learning outcomes and best pedagogical practices. However, one element that is critically important is that of the culture that those that teach the discipline create. How do we as educators model leadership on our campuses? Does the program teaching leadership utilize leadership processes and practices? How does the culture of a program impact its students and educators? This roundtable will focus on these aforementioned questions and the following objectives:

-Discussion of the elements of culture important to one public, regional institution
-Share best practices in creating a culture that models and fosters leadership development

Background

According to Schein (1992) culture is defined as "a pattern of shared basic assumptions that a group learned as it solved it problems of external adaptation and integration, that has worked well enough to be considered valid and therefore to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems" (p.12). An organization's culture is influenced by multiple factors – including the leader and its members.

In their book, *Corporate Cultures,* Deal and Kennedy (1982) identified that every organization has a culture and that strong cultures mean success for members. In turn, strong cultures can be a foundational component of change. These cultures are both product and process oriented. As a product, leadership program cultures are built from the legacy of wisdom. As programs mold and change, the culture becomes a process; malleable and rejuvenated (Bolman & Deal, 2008).

In its Guiding Questions document, the International Leadership Association (2009) discusses the importance of context to a leadership program. This context could include specific elements of culture within a respective unit. Arguably, a strong culture in a leadership program can reap significant dividends for its students and other stakeholders.

Means for Discussion/Interaction

Using Schien's (1992) elements of organizational culture, the facilitator will share one department's development of culture over its history teaching leadership. A culture deeply rooted in the value of "leadership for all" has led to a family-like atmosphere and the implementation of many leadership initiatives. Discussion with round-table participants will encourage guided reflection of individual leadership program cultures. The facilitator will share elements of organizational culture that have proven successful in this particular program. Possible questions that will be used for discussion are as follows:

-What does your respective program do to model leadership?
-Which elements of culture contribute to your organization's ability to teach leadership?
-What does a successful leadership program look like in terms of culture?

Foreseeable Implications of Discussion

By working collaboratively with other educators in the field, we could begin the process of developing best organizational practices for leadership programs across the country through the application of lessons learned. This candid discussion and informal sharing of ideas around the notion of creating a leadership-oriented culture can enhance leadership education.

Recommended next steps/Actions

We understand that leadership can be taught (Bennis, 1994); however, we must create atmospheres through which learning can take place through not only excellent pedagogy, but also experiences in a highly functioning program. This roundtable can lead to the possible creation of best practices of those highly functioning entities.

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Leadership and Communication:
Intentionally Merging Communication with Leadership Education

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Abstract

Although there is an indication in the leadership literature that communication skills are critical to leadership, current research on the curricular design of leadership programs indicates that there are very few dedicated communication courses commonly included as curricular requirements. This roundtable will provide an opportunity to discuss the importance of communication skills to our students and what this means for the future curricular design of academic leadership programs.

Introduction

As leadership education moves past infancy, it is important to look at the range of knowledge and competencies we are presenting to our students (see Brungardt, Greenleaf, Brungardt & Arensdorf, 2006). As leadership educators who are responsible for the delivery of academic programming, we need to focus on both the specific details and the general concepts that will align our students with success in the leadership opportunities they will encounter during their collegiate time (Murphy, 2013) and in their future endeavours.

While it is impossible to discuss the total range of implications that communication skills may have on current and future leaders (see Emanuel, 2007 and Morreale, Osborne & Pearson, 2000 for a review of the relevance of communication skills), we can discuss the possibility that without providing or ensuring the provision of communication skills education, that we run the risk of graduates leaving our institutions with new knowledge about leaders, leadership theory, and "best" leadership practices but with limited knowledge on how to practically apply this information. Jenkins (2011) noted over 90% of instructors surveyed indicated that "application" was an extremely important focus for learning goals in their courses. If we, as a discipline, are committed to our students being able to apply what they have learned in our courses, then it is essential that we expose them to the tools necessary to apply their knowledge in a real-world setting.

The key objective of this session is to encourage leadership educators to engage in discussion about the importance of intentionally blending communication competencies with leadership education and to discuss how we might better integrate this information into our programming so that students can directly relate the learned communication skills into productive leadership practice. We need to question how we can increase the relevance of our programming, moving forward, if we fail to include these basic core competencies. After all, while it is possible to communicate without leading, it is impossible to lead without communicating.

Background

We learn, through our interactions with other people, how to communicate (e.g. Rider, Henricks & Lown, 2006). For example, most individuals are born with the ability to hear but we are taught to listen and while most are born with the ability to make sounds, we learn to speak a language. Most of the 'training' we have in communication skills, however, is informal. The majority of major and minor Leadership programs that include communication skills courses in their curricular requirements rely on courses delivered outside the Leadership department (Gerhardt & Diallo, in press; Gerhardt & Diallo, forthcoming). Furthermore, there is little consistency in the communication skills courses required across major and minor Leadership programs (Brundgardt et al., 2006; Gerhardt & Diallo, in press; Gerhardt & Diallo, forthcoming).

The link between communication and leadership has been discussed by numerous authors such as Bertleson & Goodboy (2009), Bolden & Gosling (2006), Daft (2008), Flauto (1999) and Kouzes & Posner (2007). Nonverbal communication and leadership has been discussed by Riggio, Riggio, Salinas & Cole (2006) in an article that also contains a great review of past literature connections between leadership and communication. Listening and leadership have also been linked in articles by Bechler & Johnson (1995), Johnson & Bechler (1996), Russel & Stone (2002 and Wolvin & Coakley (1985).

Northouse (2013) authored what has become one of the most widely used textbooks for leadership education. It is assumed, that students will communicate to solve case studies found in the text and through teamwork in courses using this text. Although there is a clear indication that communication skills are required for competent leadership outside the classroom, the fact remains that there is no single chapter dedicated to communication and leadership and formal communication training is absent in the text.

Rosch and Anthony (2012) referenced key leadership models often used in leadership education programs, one of which is the Social Change Model of Leadership (SCM) (HERI, 1996). The SCM is widely used and creates a well-rounded curriculum for students to learn about self, groups, and citizenship (Buschlen & Guthrie, 2014). Embedded in the group values of the SCM are tenets such as collaboration, shared common purpose, and conflict management (HERI, 1996). We cannot assume, as leadership educators, that these values can be met simply through discussing them in class. Communication must be advanced with the same rigor as any academic discipline. Communication competencies must be strategically enhanced through praxis, interventions, trainings, and theory as well as opportunities to engage in practice simulations.

Means for Discussion/Interaction

This session will begin with a brief introduction of the topic including the range of communication skills, the connection between various communication skills and leadership, and finally a highlight of some curricular research that has found a lack of dedicated communication skills courses in academic leadership programs. Following this brief introduction, the facilitators will begin by posing questions for several rounds of discussion. A list of potential discussion questions is included (see Appendix 1).

Implications and Next Steps

Recommendations and ideas expressed in this session will serve to inform future discussions regarding the importance of the integration of communication skills and competencies into leadership curriculum. Interested participants will be asked to supply contact information for the purposes of sharing responses to the discussion questions and any possible recommendations that come out of this session. A social media link will be created and shared with participants to insure this important dialogue continues.

Our hope is to stimulate enough discussion that participants will consider the design of their own leadership programs (majors and minors) and whether or not we are missing the opportunity to graduate students with the necessary skills. We also hope to have faculty members reflect on their own communication skills training. We find it almost impossible to envision a successful future for growth in academic leadership programs and further success of existing programs without including specific instruction for how our student can share their knowledge with others.

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Appendix 1

Discussion Questions: **While we doubt that in any given roundtable session that we will be able to pose and discuss all the questions below, we want to keep open the possibility that we can alter the direction of potential discussion based on the responses of earlier groups.**

1. Whose responsibility is it to ensure that students graduating with a Leadership major/minor have been exposed to critical information regarding successful leadership practices?
   a. If it is ours, how would we ensure that a graduate of one of our programs had been exposed to this academic material/knowledge?
2. Do leadership educators assume that our students can communicate effectively enough to be successful leaders?
   a. If we do not make this assumption, why do very few programs specifically require advanced communication skills courses as part of their curricular requirements?
3. Does your program require a listening course as part of the requirements for graduation?
   a. If so….why?
   b. If not….why?
4. Does your program require more ‘writing’ courses than ‘other’ communication skills courses?
   a. If so……why?
   b. If not…..why?
5. Please comment on the fact that your students could graduate from your institution with a leadership degree or leadership minor with no more concrete leadership oriented background regarding communication skills (such as Listening/Nonverbal Communication/Conflict Resolution/Group Dynamics/Shared Visioning) than when they arrived as a freshman.
6. Please comment on the fact that the only communication skills courses that your students may be exposed to are limited to those required by your institution as a General Education requirement and therefore do not have a specific leadership focus.
7. Does your program require communication skills courses as part of the requirements for graduation (not as an elective)…..Y/N
   a. If so…which one(s) and why?
   b. If not……why not?
8. Why do you think Leadership programs, in general, have a distinct lack of focus on dedicated communication skills programming?
9. If your program requires a course focused on communication skills, does the Leadership faculty deliver the course, a communication skills expert deliver the course on behalf of the Leadership program or is it part of a Gen. Ed. Requirement?

Reflecting on Service-Learning Experiences, Implications for Future Classroom Use

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Abstract

Implementing service-learning and/or service experiences in the leadership classroom merits opportunities for students to apply classroom concepts through meaningful work within a community. This roundtable discussion will focus on sharing past experiences with this pedagogy, reflection of best practices, and consideration of implications these practices could have within leadership education.

Introduction & Background

College is a time of both intellectual and personal growth for undergraduate students. Throughout their tenure in an institution of higher education, students have a wide variety of opportunities to hone their leadership skills for future careers or pursuit of advanced degrees. New industry hires are expected to have polished communication skills, as well as leadership and teamwork skills, initiative, interpersonal and social networking skills, and problem solving skills (Employers, 2010). In a study for the Association of Public and Land Grant Universities (APLU), Crawford, Lang, Fink, Dalton, and Fielitz (2011) concluded that universities are providing the necessary technical skills for students to succeed in industry, but are deficient in providing ample opportunities for students to gain the soft skills necessary to be successful in the 21st century work environment. Service- learning experiences are a pedagogical tool that can benefit the development of leadership skills while contributing to the local community.

Service-learning has a long standing history in America. The service-learning terminology was coined in the 1970’s; however, many of the tenets are built upon educational scholars such as Dewey (Speck and Hoppe, 2004). Implementing service-learning and/or service experiences in the leadership classroom merits opportunities for students to apply classroom concepts through meaningful work within a community. This roundtable discussion will focus on sharing past experiences with this pedagogy, reflection of best practices, and consideration of implications these practices could have within leadership education.

Means for Discussion

The facilitators will share personal experiences related to the use in leadership courses at their respective universities. Discussion will flow out of the examples and lessons learned through experience and multiple semesters of quantitative and qualitative student data and feedback. Participants will be encouraged to share personal experiences of using service-learning in their own classroom settings.

Implications of Discussion & Next Steps

At the conclusion of the roundtable discussion, participants will have an understanding of: (1) various means of utilizing service-learning within a higher education classroom; (2) best practices of these experiences; and (3) potential connections for collaboration of research and how service-learning will or will not continue to be a leadership education pedagogy tool in the future.

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Teaching Employee Engagement: Moving from Good Ideas to Great Results

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Abstract

Research has uncovered a troubling pattern among American workers. A majority of American workers (approximately 70%) feel that they are either not engaged, or actively disengaged from their organizations. Leadership education addresses employee engagement with many high-potential recommendations and still the issue persists. The negative impact that employee disconnectedness has on an organization has been widely documented (Gosney, 2013; Paterson, 2013; and Bierla, 2013). This roundtable will provide a forum for going beyond simple ideas for teaching engagement. In this roundtable presentation leadership educators will be asked to 1) Identify new and unique ways to improve employee engagement and 2) consider strategies for implementing these methods in the workplace.

Introduction

A foundational tenet of Kouses and Posner's leadership model is that leaders 'Inspire a Shared Vision." There are few who would argue that this is an important quality of leadership and yet, how to accomplish this is not well understood. Lack of mission clarity, differing priorities, and employee-level issues are just a few of the reasons cited for why employees do not feel connected to their work world. There are no-doubt many more reasons for lack of employee engagement. The important knowledge point is not, however, to identify these reasons, but rather identify the strategies that will overcome these reasons. Not only this, but also identify the methods for implementing these strategies in a way that will create lasting, transformational changes among organizational members. This is the desired outcome of the roundtable; to discuss not only the strategies that are known to improve employee engagement but also the methods leadership educators can share which will help leaders find success in this work.

Background

According to the Gallup organization, approximately 70% of American employees are not engaged or actively disengaged in their workplace (Gallup, 2013). Galllup reports that this figure has remained essentially unchanged since they started tracking this metric over 12 years ago. Page 12 of the 2013 report provides five suggestions for improving worker engagement:

1. Focus on engagement at the enterprise and local levels
2. Select the right managers
3. Coach managers and hold them accountable
4. Define engagement goals in realist, everyday terms
5. Find ways to connect with each employee

These recommendations are not new. Kouses and Posner (2013), Lipman-Blumen (2005), and others have written about these ideas for many years. Still, even though worker engagement strategies are known, self-reported levels of employee engagement have remained essentially unchanged for more than a decade. It is clear there is a disconnect between worker engagement knowledge and effective engagement practice in the workplace.

In-line with the 2014 conference theme, Reflecting on the Past, Focusing on the Future, this roundtable will provide an opportunity for leadership educators to discuss the absence of engagement in the workplace, and what it will take to attain higher work place engagement.

Description of the Practice or Discussion Interaction

In this session participants will be asked to provide input targeted at creating and teaching how to create lasting employee engagement in the workplace. To this end, the proposed roundtable will follow these steps in each 20-minute session.

1. Participants will learn the state of employee engagement today as reported by Gallup (2013)
2. Participants will be put in pairs and given one of the five recommendations put forth by Gallup (2013) and after a few moments of reflection each pair will be asked to provide recommendations for implementing the given recommendation in an organization.
3. Participants will discuss recommendations and suggested implementation strategies towards a better understanding of how they can a) accomplish this in workplace settings and b)teach future leaders how to accomplish this in workplace settings.

Implications and Next Steps

Recommendations arrived at during this session will be useful to participants as they return to the classroom to teach future leaders about employee engagement. Participants will return to their workplaces with both a new strategy for teaching workplace engagement and fundamental understanding of the topic as they work with their students.

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Teaching the Impact of Mentoring on Leadership: Development in a Virtual Environment

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Abstract

There is substantial evidence to suggest the mentoring process has significant advantages and benefits for new and aspiring leaders. Teaching this process in an online setting has significant challenges because mentoring has traditionally taken place in a face-to-face environment. This roundtable will provide a forum to discuss and explore the qualitative research model to teach mentoring in the challenging virtual environment.

Introduction

Mentoring may be an integral aspect and contributing factor of leadership development and career success. The mentoring experience may also have a significant impact on leadership development, given the essence of and operational constraints on today's leaders. Utilizing various qualitative research methodologies, students may gain a unique perspective on leadership development as it relates to mentoring and its unique relationship.

Teaching leadership development, specifically the mentoring process, in an online environment presents some unique challenges. Many younger students have not yet been through the formal or informal mentoring process. This process has typically been initiated in a face-to-face atmosphere. Today's students need to gain an understanding of the mentoring process using a pedagogical methodology in the online environment that will engender their understanding of the critical roles of both the mentor and mentee.

One such approach uses various qualitative research methods to help students understand the relationship that needs to exist between the mentor and mentee. One of the reasons to use the qualitative method of inquiry is to offer students a "complex, detailed understanding of the issue" (Creswell, 2007, p.40). Qualitative research is especially effective in obtaining culturally specific information about the values, opinions, behaviors, and social contexts of particular populations. Using this method in the virtual environment affords students the opportunity to fully explore this leadership issue (the mentoring relationship) using several common qualitative accepted methodologies including phenomenology, ethnography, grounded theory and ethical inquiry.

Background

Most of the successful business leaders or other role models of society that we admire today have probably, at one time or another had a genuine mentor to thank for their success. Mentoring has been defined as the matching of a novice with a more experienced person in the same role (Reiss, 2007). Many academics and practitioners have endorsed the importance of mentorship in promoting leader development (London, 2002; McCauley & VanVelsor, 2004). Scholars and researchers have extensively studied mentoring for many years (Ehrich, Hansford and Tennent, 2004). These studies have included the effects of mentoring as well as the process of how mentees best learn (Hezlett, 2005). Many researchers have discovered the social capital benefits of mentoring on a multidimensional scale that includes psychosocial support, career and job advice, and information about an organization and its history, especially informal aspects (Feeney and Bozeman, 2008). Leadership development occurs within a specific organizational context. No one leader can possibly make sense of this complexity or alone enable an organization to adapt to it. Therefore, *shared meaning* is essential. Creating a shared meaning for use in leadership development, as well as the mentoring relationship, presents substantial challenges for the new or aspiring leadership student.

Means for Discussion/Interaction

Using an "expert-led topic choice and discussion model", the goal of this roundtable session is to promote a general discussion of teaching the mentoring relationship (as it pertains to leadership) in a virtual environment. This will be accomplished by having the group discuss the following questions:

1) Introduction of the problem: Teaching the impact of mentoring on leadership development in the online environment
2) Roundtable conversations will be used to generate qualitative themes to identify possible other areas of teaching mentoring and its impact on leadership development.
3) Key assumptions regarding the online environment and the limited time available for specific assignments will be discussed at the beginning of the session.
4) Participants will report back key themes generated from their discussions.

Foreseeable Implications of Discussion & Recommended next steps/actions

Themes generated from this session will assist in the further identification and development of various methods to teach diverse leadership pedagogy in the virtual environment. We believe this program directly relates to this year's conference theme, "VISIONS OF LEADERSHIP:

REFLECTING ON THE PAST, FOCUSING ON THE FUTURE" because mentoring (and its role in leadership education) has traditionally been conducted in a face-to-face environment and the virtual classroom is growing at a rapid pace (Lepi, 2013). Teaching in the online environment presents many unique challenges including restricted interaction amongst instructors and students, limited interaction between students to promote and stimulate new ideas and time restrictions based on variable class sizes and semester length. Creating new and innovative techniques to assist leadership students in this virtual environment is paramount. The implications for future online curriculum and instructional design are evident and will be discussed.

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The Future of Education Reform: The Role of Emotional Intelligence for School Leaders

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Abstract

With the demands for better outcomes and greater change from school leaders such as superintendents, principals, central and building-level administrators, there is a need to understand how emotional intelligence can help these leaders meet new demands in the near future. There are three models of emotional intelligence from Daniel Goleman, Salovey, Mayer and Caruso, and Bar-On that may have benefits to offer school leaders. The facilitators currently teach in an Executive Leadership Doctoral Program and wish to gain insights from program graduates who are current leaders in their fields. However, before a study is developed, it would be helpful to discuss and gather advice from others interested in this topic to best capture ideas and perceptions on the study of Emotional Intelligence to enhance training for school leaders.

Introduction

In a recent article in the Harvard Business Review, Daniel Goleman (2013) wrote about the need for leaders to focus attention on three areas: oneself, others and the wider world. Goleman believes this type of focus is important because the challenges of today's world require leaders to direct their attention more skillfully. In addition to more purposefully directing one's focus and attention, leaders must recognize empathy and its three types. The first, cognitive empathy, is the ability to be curious about and understand others' perspectives. The second type of empathy is emotional empathy, or the ability to feel what others are feeling. The third type of empathy is empathic concern, or how one senses what others need (Goleman, 2013, p. 55).

The HBR article and other studies on Emotional Intelligence (EI) spark questions about the needs of today's leaders. Furthermore, the potential benefits of EI come to mind when considering the daunting role of the school leader in the 21st century. Given the extensive pressure of school reform in the United States today, school leadership roles demand changes in direction and in skill. Is EI a resource for school leaders trying to navigate change and uncertainty in the midst of current reforms? Would a leader's ability to demonstrate focus, attention and empathy help move schools forward?

Background

EI has been described in three primary ways by key researchers. One of the models of EI is the result of studies by Salovey, Mayer and Caruso (2004). These three researchers define emotional intelligence as "the capacity to reason about emotions, and of emotions, to enhance thinking. EI includes the abilities to accurately perceive emotions, to access and generate emotions so as to assist thought, to understand emotions and emotional knowledge, and to reflectively regulate emotions so as to promote emotional and intellectual growth (2004, p. 197)." Salovey et al. (2004) look at EI as having multiple parts. They refer to these parts as the four-branch model. Salovey et al. (2004) divide EI into: the ability to perceive emotion, use emotion to facilitate thought, understand emotion, and manage emotion.

The Goleman model of EI encompasses interpersonal awareness and social facility (Goleman, 2006). By these terms, Goleman means that the brain can attune itself to others and cause one to adjust and interact in alignment with others. The ability for adjusting and aligning includes self-awareness, self-management, social awareness and relationship management (Qijie, 2014). The importance that Goleman places on interpersonal understanding has implications for leaders, including school leaders.

In Bar-On's model of EI (2010), there is an array of 'interrelated emotional and social competencies and skills that determine how effectively individuals understand and express themselves, understand others and relate with them, and cope with daily demands (p. 57)." Bar- On's competencies and skills include an individual's adaptability, stress management and dispositions (Qijie, 2011).

When thinking about school leaders and the complex demands for accountability today (Bushaw & Lopez, 2013), it may be valuable if school leadership training included a more direct focus on EI skills and competencies. Goleman suggests that a school's culture and climate is the synopsis of the interactions and decisions that take place every day (Goleman, 2006). If this is the case, then the understanding of the impact of daily interactions and their effects on decision-making is imperative. Knowledge of the areas of emotional intelligence may be able to assist.

Among other school leaders, the school principal is a linchpin in school change and success. The school principal is a critical factor in the path to school reform (Moore, 2009). Additionally, Moore states that the role of the principal is becoming increasingly more difficult (2009). The ability of a school leader to recognize and understand the needs of teachers and staff during reform is significantly helpful in the reform process (Moore, 2009).

Leone (2009) identifies two key roles in the future of the principalship: the principal needs to be a bridge of knowledge and encouragement; and the principal needs to be a navigator (Leone, 2009). Principals need to be skilled in motivating others and being able to understand the needs of a variety of stakeholders in and outside the school environment (Leone, 2009). If principals are to be successful in these key future roles, preparation and practice must adapt.

Description of the Session/Interaction

The purpose of the session is to gather information from interested peers on the benefits of understanding EI for school leaders such as, superintendents, principals, central and building-level administrators. To focus on the future of K-12 education, it is important to review the models of EI in the literature from the past decade. What do these models have to offer school leaders and how can a better understanding of these models support change initiatives in instruction and management?

Session objectives:

- Briefly review the three models of Emotional Intelligence;
- Discuss how these models might help school leaders in the midst of change; and
- Gather information from Roundtable participants on how to further study Emotional Intelligence in order to help in the training of effective leaders.

Implications and Next Steps

The Roundtable facilitators are both faculty members in an executive leadership doctoral program that includes candidates from Higher Education, P-12 Education, Business, Health & Human Services and Non-profit Management. Given the urgency for better outcomes and increased accountability from K-12 leaders, faculty members are currently developing a study to gather experiences and ideas of program graduates to help inform curriculum and leadership training. The Roundtable session will help in the design of a new study by gathering advice from conference attendees interested in the topic of EI. Participant discussion and advice will help effectively design research whose participants would be recent program graduates who are leading schools and other organizations into a future where new skills are needed.

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The Millennial Student Will Rock Your World

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Introduction

The millennial generation has now emerged as the new non-traditional student population, melding with at least three other generations on the American college campus. Faculty and administrators, primarily from the traditionalist and baby boomer generation, will be faced with a stark contrast in behaviors and expectations with this generation as compared to the previous. Higher education professionals in academic and student affairs can benefit from learning how this generation develops and responds to technology, academic coaching, service and civic duty.

This roundtable discussion will contain research and implications about educating students from the millennial generation. It includes helpful information about effective teaching, learning, and academic coaching methods when working with these students. Participants will be able to identify effective ways of instructing, motivating and engaging multiple generations inside and outside of the classroom. Participants will be able to know the unique characteristics of the millennial generation in terms of developing more effective strategies for educating and retaining this new community of learners.

Background

As digital natives, millennials utilize technology in every aspect of their lives. To be effective and keep up with the times, faculty implement strategies including flipped classrooms as well as embracing iPads and computers in the classroom. Faculty use innovative and experiential teaching methods are to engender a greater depth of learning and motivate these students to stay in the course (Green, Coke, & Ballard, 2013). Learning technology by trial and error has prepared them to accept experiential exercises, such as problem-solving games, group debates, and projects relevant to real-world issues (Eastman, Aviles, & Hanna, 2012).

Leadership educators recognize that millennial students need to develop a sense of self, ability to work in teams and groups, and participate in a global society. Through the use of technology, we are now more connected than ever. Leadership for millennial students is based on the tenants of team leadership, servant leadership, and authentic leadership. Generation Y is exceptionally different from previous generations, where teams and individuality is appreciated and valued. Millennials, contrary to Generation X and Baby Boomers, believe they have a moral obligation to give back to the community and improving the well beings of others. Servant leadership is the heartbeat of the millennial leader. Taught at a very early age, millennials were infused about serving others for the good of society and have incorporated this in their leadership styles as leaders. The characteristic traits of Generation Y are the antithesis on the value they place on servant leadership as a leader. “Authentic leadership a very complex process and there is not a single accepting definition of authentic leadership and there are multiple definitions, each written from a different viewpoints of intrapersonal, developmental, and interpersonal” (Northouse, 2010, 206). Millennials are concerned about the leadership development of themselves, their team, and the leadership patterns of other leaders to improve as a leader.

Means for Discussion/Interaction

In this session, participants will engage in discussion facilitated by the presenters. The goal is to use powerful questions and interactive dialogue to co-construct new knowledge in the area of generational differences and millennial leadership development.

- Introduction of the problem: understanding generational differences and millennial leadership development
- Several rounds of table conversations will be used to generate discussion in the areas of teaching and learning, technology, service and civic responsibility
- Participants will report back key themes generated during their table discussions

Implications and Next Steps

This presentation fits perfectly with the 2014 ALE Theme, "Visions of Leadership – Reflecting on the Past, Focusing on the Future," because it will address characteristics and lessons from previous generations while focusing on the leadership development of the present generation. This discussion will address issues for teaching and guiding millennial students both inside and outside of the classroom and pose key questions for future research and practice with this generation of leaders.

The implications of discussion will emphasize empowering independent learners and leaders. Participants will gain knowledge and understanding of empowering versus enabling students. We believe this session will give participants the opportunity to explore ways to provide teaching and coaching strategies which will encourage students to take responsibility, solve problems, and develop coping skills. Discussion from this session will also help participants identify the use of technology and social media for doing social good. Discussion will foster the intentional use of social media to service and connectedness in the community.

Participants will be encouraged to apply strategies for empowering student learners and leaders by asking questions and coaching students through the process of developing plans and solving problems. Participants will also have the opportunity to reinvent their use of social media platforms to intentionally serve relevant causes and contributions in their communities.

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Women in Novice Leadership Positions

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Abstract

What is specific about first time leadership roles? What are the novice leader realities for women in particular? Synopsis of the presenters' White Paper will guide debate about core issues affecting women in leadership roles in the 21st Century. A practical Guidance Model will offer solutions.

Introduction

Presently, society has come a long way as more women hold the highest number of leadership positions than ever before and recent studies embrace female traits in leadership.

Specific tools and strategies that help young women in novice leadership positions can offer a practical way to move toward success (Bass, 1981). With the presenters' white paper as a premise, discussion will outline four topical areas for leadership educators to consider:

1. Defining the Novice Leader (stereotypes and how women are interpreted)
2. Real-life Problems Women are Facing (in the workplace today)
3. How the Problems Influence Leadership Growth (individual development)
4. Solutions to the Development of Leaders (and practical guidance to these problems)

The participants can offer their ideas and experiences on the topical outline. Possible outcomes for the participants include: 1) awareness of the critical component to organizational success; 2) integration of the topic in leadership education planning; 3) practical ideas for guidance to change norms/expectations; 4) thought-provoking themes for educators concerning these issues; 5) use of the authors' white paper in business/management courses, behavior sciences, in education. The topical area applies to any industry where leadership exists at multiple levels.

Background

A vision of women leaders in the 21st Century might give the appearance that there is equity in role expectations. However, women are challenged by perceived ineptness and are facing subtle objection to their work in management and leadership roles (Salbi, 2006). Young professional women entering novice leadership positions, particularly those between 24 and 36 years old, require specific guidance in order to overcome the problems they face.

Means for Discussion/Interaction

Several short, case-study modules, a white paper ([Authors], 2014), and a guidance model (Appendix A) will help to illustrate the multitude of ways that the problems can be presented.

Founded with a wide-array of supporting research, the white paper ([Authors], 2014) incorporates the integration of guidance and practical tools that will be influential in tomorrow's cultural understandings of women in leadership roles and to leadership development in the 21st Century. Those in novice leadership positions require practical assistance in order to clarify their own capabilities and limitations (Marcy & Mumford, 2010). Primary factors will be considered as presented in the white paper and guidance model.

Other topical areas include: guidance for how to communicate, negotiate, frame, identify, and transform "self"; guidance on how to build valued relationships. Women leaders have a wide array of personalities, professional roles, emotional intelligence, training, and not all women face the same issues (Chin, Lott, Rice, & Sanchez-Hucles, 2007).

Foreseeable Implications of Discussion

Leadership development is widely recognized as a critical component of understanding effective leadership (Bass, 1981). The round table will initiate thought and instigate solution-based responses for women in novice leadership positions in the 21st Century. The discussion might resonate in a wide array of opinions and relate to leadership education models. The ultimate goal is to stir up solutions and new ideas concerning the future of women in novice leadership roles.

Participants will be able to share and gain ideas for their leadership education planning:

1. Thought-provoking topical themes for educators about women and leadership
2. New perspectives involving issues for beginner leaders in today's business world
3. Consideration of the authors' guidance model for women in novice leadership positions

The roundtable discussion will relate to many content areas and disciplines.

Recommended Next Steps

Organizational success is a main outcome of leadership and leadership education (Schreiber, 2014). As women in leadership increase, a need for specific guidance is needed. Opportunities to continue discussion include two options:

1. Participants will be invited to join the white paper authors by partaking in an existing, ongoing blog, set up to provide two-way discussion on the topics involved in leadership positions.
2. The participants will have the opportunity to review and utilize the white paper in their leadership education endeavors.

The integration of guidance and practical tools will be influential in tomorrow's cultural understandings of women in leadership roles and the many influencers to leadership development (Alsbury & Hackman, 2006; Blair, 2007; Salbi, 2006; Schrieber, 2014).

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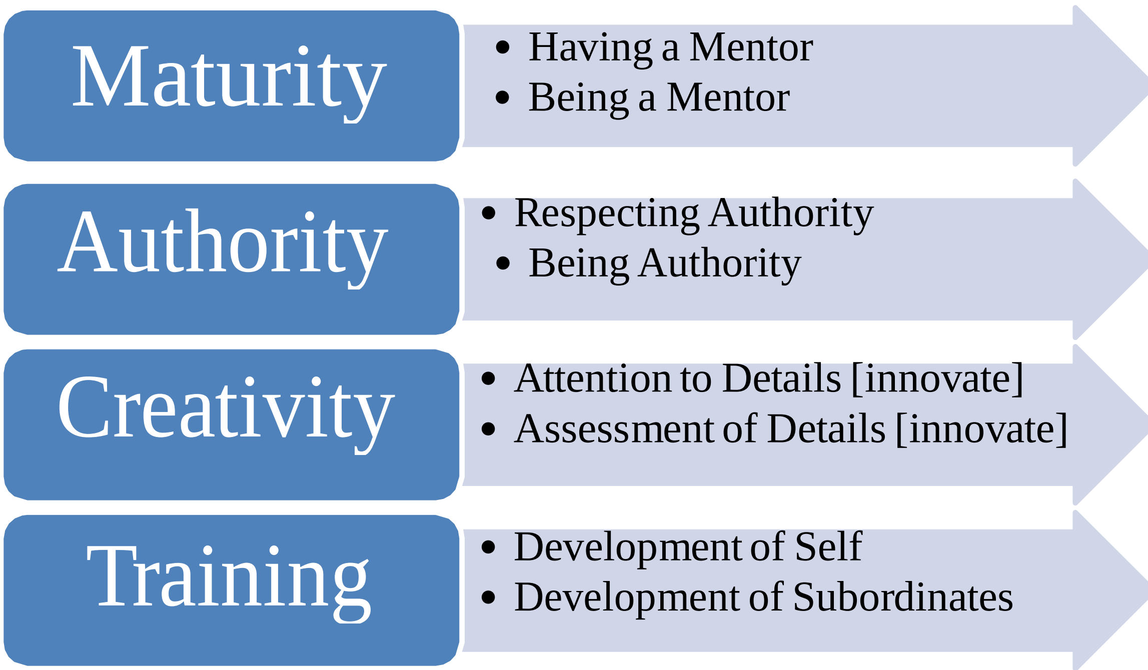
Appendix A. Guidance Model for Novice Leaders ([Authors], 2014)



Teaching Leadership Students How to Set an Organizational Agenda

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Abstract

One of the major teaching responsibilities of leadership educators is to instruct students set in developing an organizational agenda that guides and monitors the work of an organization. To what extent do leadership educators possess the theoretical and instructional skills to support students in this endeavor? This roundtable will offer participants the opportunity to discuss their understanding of setting an organizational agenda as well as to share teaching and learning experiences and ideas.

Introduction

The demand for change and innovation in leadership education is continual as there are numerous national issues and global trends constantly emerging. The constant change requires higher education institutions and faculty members to anticipate and be innovative in supporting and challenging leadership students. Colleges and universities must identify the significant trends, forecast future leadership direction, and construct plans to ensure leadership students have access to highly effective instruction and learning experiences. Regardless of the type of organization, the planning stages for setting an organizational agenda must be carefully thought out, with flexible timelines and strategies for getting more individuals involved in the process. (Santin & McDaniel, 2013). Therefore, leadership educators are responsible for ensuring that students in their care are prepared to engage in effective planning processes.

The Association of Leadership Educators (ALE) is an organization that prides itself on the serving the needs of leadership educators as well as leadership students. The overall mission of ALE is to strengthen and sustain the expertise of professional leadership educators (ALE, n.d.). Knowing that there is a collective and shared responsibility to the leadership community, ALE members work arduously to ensure that leadership students are provided the most effective educational experiences. This discussion will augment the body of knowledge related to leadership instruction and curricula development.

For current graduate leadership educators, there is an additional responsibility to provide future leadership instructors with course work that involves leadership theory and practice, andragogy, and best instructional practices. What instructional models and methods can promote student inquiry and experience in setting an organizational agenda? How can we prepare leadership educators to be more effective in this particular leadership learning? As we consider educating future instructors of leadership and leader preparation, the issue of setting an organizational agenda serves as the backdrop for this discussion. Figure 1 presents leadership models and methods that can be used to help students set an organizational agenda.

Figure 1. Instructional Models and Methods for Teaching Organizational Agenda Setting (Hollywood, Blaess, & Santin, 2013)

Background

Instructional models and methods that can be employed to teach leadership students about setting an organizational agenda are strengths based leadership and assessment (Rath & Conchie, 2009), framing and reframing (Bolman and Deal, 1997), Appreciative Inquiry and strategic planning (Hammond, 1998; Stavros & Hinrichs, 2009) and communication, conversation and collaboration (Groysberg & Slind, 2012). Each of these models offer leadership educators the opportunity to foster the personal and professional development of their students. Institutions of higher education need to ensure that their faculty members who serve as professors of leadership have a working knowledge and understanding of these models. As noted by Jenkins (2012), less than 25% of leadership educators have any formal training in leadership theory or development. In addition, fewer educators even have any formal education in models of teaching, pedagogy or andragogy. These models and methods are the theoretical frames for this roundtable.

Description of the Discussion/Interaction

This roundtable discussion will be facilitated by the authors in hopes of explaining and clarifying the role of organizational agenda setting and the 4 models that can be used to support this development.

1. A succinct overview of organizational agenda setting- role of leadership in using the 4 models to helping leadership students set an organizational agenda.
2. Table discussion will foster conversation of ideas, thinking, themes and patterns to inform:
    a. Further development of students’ understanding of leadership theory and practice
    b. Consideration of the use of the 4 models in leadership practice

c. Application and implementation of agenda
setting

3. Participants will report on concepts, themes, and application concerns

The participants of the session will benefit from this interaction by

- Understanding the importance of setting the organizational agenda.
- Appreciating the role of communication, conversation, and collaboration.
- Using strengths based leadership skills.
- Applying Appreciative Inquiry strategies.
- Integrating framing/reframing skills.

Implications and Next Steps

Leadership themes that may be generated in this session will further support the development of strategic teaching skills of current and future leadership educators as well as leadership students**.** The leadership themes will serve to inform the National Leadership Research Agenda as well as the leadership curricula of institutions of higher education which offer programs in leadership and leadership development. Participants will have the opportunity to explore and examine their personal understanding of the models and instructional methods presented in the roundtable discussion.

The presentation and compilation of comments, insights, and recommendations will be prepared for an article submission in an upcoming edition of JOLE.

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Advancing Qualitative Research in Leadership Education

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Abstract

Is there a space in leadership education scholarship for contemporary forms of qualitative research? How could advancing qualitative research support and enhance the National Leadership Education Research Agenda? This roundtable invites leadership educators to discuss personal experiences, observations, and interpretations of the challenges and opportunities for qualitative research in our scholarship and practice.

Introduction & Background

"Historically, leadership research has been grounded in the objectivist, positivist, quantitative paradigm" (Klenke, 2008, p. 3). Emerging emphasis on the socially constructed nature of leadership (Fairhurst & Grant, 2010) and education (Androetti, 2010) challenges researchers, educators, and practitioners to examine leadership in new ways. Klenke (2008) describes a call for "alternative paradigms and methods of inquiry … resonating in the leadership research community" (p. 4).

In his commentary on advancing the discipline of leadership studies, Riggio (2013) notes, "We are all using established methods, and if you don't believe that, just try to get a study published in a reputable journal using some unique or rare methodology" (p. 11). Indeed, rigorous research methods are valued in any field. But from a critical lens, who determines what is "sound" when one is working from/within interpretative, post-modern, or post-structural paradigms? There is no distinct set of methods or practices for qualitative research; multiple approaches, methods and techniques can be used to provide important insights and construct new knowledge (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011). Indeed, a qualitative researcher often finds herself designing a study with the methodological approach of "it depends" (for example, on factors such as the theoretical or substantive lens, the research question, and the context of the study).

While the *National Leadership Education Research Agenda* (NLERA) clearly outlines substantive research priorities, there is less emphasis on specific methodological advances in the field. The most specific reference to research approaches is found within research priority one, *Teaching, Learning, and Curriculum Development*, in connection to assessment efforts. Andenoro et al. (2013) note the usefulness of qualitative approaches to describe holistic perspectives of both students and faculty. Additionally, they list several other qualitative research approaches as opportunities, including: grounded theory, narrative inquiry, phenomenology, case-studies, ethnographies, action research, and field observations (2013).

A cursory, exploratory search through the past four issues of the *Journal of Leadership Education* (Summer 2012 – Winter 2014) revealed that of 29 research papers published, just about half (15) utilized what could be considered traditional "quantitative" research. Of the other half, 8 articles utilized what could be interpreted as mostly traditional "qualitative" research (e.g., case-studies, phenomenology, action research, or general studies utilizing document analysis, focus-groups, written reflections, or semi-structured interviews). Four studies were identified by authors as “mixed-methods”, while two studies reported responses to open-ended questions from survey research. *A bold interpretation of these observations could be:* While qualitative research is well represented in our field, as leadership educators we tend to play it safe when it comes to data collection, analysis, and representation. At times we even reduce our qualitative data into numeric forms (i.e., frequencies), perhaps so that our results are more accessible and accepted by those on the other side of the paradigmatic fence.

It seems clear that both quantitative and qualitative research approaches are valuable and needed to make progress on the NLERA. So, where do we go from here? The purpose of this session is to explore powerful questions to advance qualitative research in and for leadership education.

Means for Discussion

This session invites leadership educators to the table to share personal experiences, observations, and interpretations of the challenges and opportunities for qualitative research in our scholarship and practice. We will examine some examples/excerpts of journal articles that represent unique qualitative approaches from different disciples/academic spaces. Participants will have the opportunity to pose powerful questions for discussion; however, these overarching questions will provide a starting point:

- Is there a space in leadership education for contemporary, non-traditional forms of qualitative research? And, what types of research questions lend themselves to such forms?
- How could advancing qualitative research support and enhance the *National Leadership Education Research Agenda*?
- What are our go-to references for qualitative methods? How can we continue to draw from advances in the field of qualitative inquiry itself, as well as engage the cutting edge of educational research?
- What kind of graduate training and/or professional development is needed to encourage and support qualitative research?
- How do we address issues of rigor and trustworthiness in qualitative research?
- How can we as a field continue to legitimize unique or emergent methods through our own programs, conferences, and publications?

Implications & Next Steps

One important implication of this session is identifying colleagues who specialize, or are simply interested, in qualitative inquiry. Regardless of our scholarly history, we are all invited to co-create the future of qualitative research in and for leadership education. This roundtable will not only provide a space for idea sharing, but could potentially lead to the formation of a qualitative inquiry community of practice or interest group to serve as a resource for professional development and research collaborations.

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Advancing the Notion of Teacher Leadership – Holes From the Past and Opportunities For the Future

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Abstract

The relationships between teachers and students align with and are supported by numerous theories of leadership, but research on teacher leadership in this regard is minimal. Participants in this discussion will reflect on their own leadership actions as teachers and identify opportunities for conducting research on teacher leadership.

Introduction

Numerous practitioners have examined the leadership of teachers (Berry, Johnson, & Montgomery, 2005; Childs-Bowen, Moller, & Scrivner, 2000; Crowther & Olsen, 1997; Frost, 2003; Frost & Durrant, 2003; Harris, 2003; Smylie, 2005; York-Barr & Duke, 2004). These investigations, however, position teacher leadership as the roles that teachers assume within their schools and among peers. Few examined teachers as leaders of their students, carrying out the roles of leadership often associated with leaders of organizations. From the literature, it is clear that concepts of teacher leadership typically focus on activities including shared decision making, idea sharing, mentoring other teachers, and serving in roles such as department head or lead teacher, among others; however, an emerging body of literature on teacher leadership does position the teacher as leader inside the classroom, thus paving the way for additional discourse on teacher leadership and opportunities for related research. For this roundtable, teacher leadership will be defined as the influence of teachers on students in terms of instructional guidance, focusing on the influential relationship between teachers and students. Participant objectives for this roundtable discussion are: (1) discuss perspectives of teacher leadership, (2) review existing empirical literature on teacher leadership, and (3) identify opportunities for conducting research on teacher leadership.

Background

The relationships between teachers and students align with and are supported by numerous theories of leadership. When viewing leadership as a *process*, leadership "resides in the context of the interactions between leaders and followers" (Northouse, 2010, p. 5). Teachers hold formal positions of leadership, and are, therefore, assigned leaders – students are their followers. Furthermore, teachers are an example of people with the potential to influence others, and, consequently, have *power* (Northouse, 2010).

Additionally, studies indicate that the *traits* of teachers impact the classroom environment (Judge, Bono, Ilies, & Gerhardt 2002; Kent and Fisher 1997). The *style approach* is also relevant for teachers; some situations call for a more task-oriented approach, while other situations necessitate a relationship-oriented approach. The *situational approach* is relevant because teaching requires that educators evaluate teaching situations, consider the needs of students, and adapt teaching style to better support learning (Hunt, 1980; Hunt, 1981). The pragmatic nature of *path-goal theory* makes it fitting for teachers in the classroom who must attend to the needs of their students in order to foster self-efficacy and confidence (Northouse, 2010).

The number of leadership theories relevant for teachers is quite extensive. In addition to the previously mentioned theories, teachers could consider *Leader-member Exchange* (Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975), *Transformational* (Burns, 1978; Bass, 1985) *Authentic* (George, 2003) and the list can go on and on. Ultimately, the brief descriptions of the leadership theories provided support the position that teachers are leaders inside the classroom.

Means for Discussion/Interaction

The discussion of this session will follow an outline of the proposed objectives. First, the presenters will provide two competing thoughts of teacher leadership and then ask participants to share their perspectives on teacher leadership. Next, presenters will distribute a handout highlighting empirical studies of teacher leadership. After reviewing the handout, presenters will facilitate a discussion on existing literature and add to the list of literature using participant expertise. Finally, presenters will compare theories of leadership with existing empirical studies, identify theories that have not been empirically applied to teacher leadership, and discuss opportunities for potential collaboration among participants to conduct future research.

Foreseeable Implications of Discussion

The subject of teacher leadership has multiple implications for leadership educators. As suggested by the conference theme, the topic will allow participants to reflect on past perceptions, consider current theories, and focus future research efforts to contribute to gaps in the literature. Such research aligns with priority one of the National Leadership Education research agenda (Andenoro, Allen, Haber-Curran, Jenkins, Sowcik, Dugan, and Osteen, 2013) where transdisciplinary perspectives for leadership education could be developed in the context of educational psychology. As practitioners of leadership education, participants will also reflect on their own leadership actions as teachers and possibly alter teaching practice in the classroom as a result of the discussion.

Recommended Next Steps

The definition of teacher leadership employed in this roundtable discussion allows participants to expand on the influential relationship between teachers and students. While there is little research on teacher leadership in this regard, some (Alexander, Elsom, Means, & Means, 1971; Farr, 2010; Katyal & Evers, 2004; Larkin, 1973) have advanced the notion of teachers as classroom leaders. As a result of this discussion, a network of participants interested in collaborating on related research will be created. As the body of literature related to teacher leadership expands and the impact of teacher leadership on student achievement is substantiated through empirical evidence, the narrative of teacher leadership will shift. Such a shift will necessitate an intentional focus of leadership education in teacher education/preparation programs.

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Governance as Leadership in the Nonprofit Sector: A Vision for the Future

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Abstract

Effective leadership in the nonprofit sector requires the careful diagnosis of the complex problems facing organizations today. This roundtable will explore the parallels between leadership and governance as a means to address Tame, Wicked, and Critical problems (Grint, 2010b).

Introduction

Leadership is studied in different ways and from different viewpoints. However, most scholars define leadership through the lens of person, position, result, or process (Grint, 2005a; 2010a). In this roundtable, we focus on leadership as process—how leaders get things done that makes them leaders. Northouse (2013) specifies leadership as "a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal" (p. 3). As a parallel, we suggest that governance, defined as the "legal authority to exercise power and authority over an organization on behalf of the community it serves" (BoardSource, 2010, p. 15), is a process that mirrors leadership within the nonprofit sector. BoardSource (2010) articulates, "Governance is a group action. Individual board members do not govern the organization. Rather, meeting as a group confers governing status to the board as a whole" (p. 15). It is from this charge that boards confront problems.

The nature of problems facing the sector are complex and ever changing. Grint (2005b; 2010b) offers insights into the typology of problems that nonprofit leaders may face, providing a framework for the application of Chait et al.'s (2005) three modes of governance as leadership. As such, the purpose of this roundtable discussion is to describe a framework for examining leadership in the nonprofit sector; identify similarities and differences between governance and leadership; discuss how organizations in the nonprofit sector are different from organizations in the business or governmental sector; and, apply the idea of governance as leadership to an interactive case study framed within the context of the nonprofit sector.

Background

Organizations differ according to their raison d'être—their reason for existence—purpose, or mission. Public-sector organizations serve the public good through governmental entities. Private-sector organizations sell goods or services to provide a profit for owners. Nonprofit-sector organizations serve their constituents, promote a cause, or serve some other social purpose (BoardSource, 2010). As nonprofit leaders strive to accomplish their missions, they are faced with complex problems that require skilled diagnosis.

Grint (2010b) presents a typology describing leaders and the problems they encounter. Leaders confront Tame, Wicked, and Critical problems and respond to them with management, leadership, and command. Tame Problems are complicated but have been encountered before and can, therefore, be resolved with known solutions, often through a leader's management of the correct standard operating procedures (Grint, 2010b). In contrast, Wicked problems are complex, entangled within a larger environment or system, are new or chronic, bear no apparent direct relationship between cause and effect, and cannot be solved with a simple, clear-cut solution (Grint, 2010b). Wicked problems require a leader to ask questions and mobilize collective action—to provide leadership (Grint, 2010b). A third problem, Grint (2010b) suggests, are Critical problems, identified as self-evident crises that allow little time for consultation or discussion, require an immediate, decisive response, permit coercion for the public good, and are associated with authoritarianism. Critical problems demand that a leader provide an immediate command solution to solve the crisis (Grint, 2010b). Thus, Grint (2010b) suggests tame problems require employing a process; Wicked problems require asking questions; Critical problems require providing answers. Nonprofit leaders are charged with identifying the type of problem at hand, and providing leadership to ensure the organization's mission is accomplished.

Additionally, boards, to be successful, must operate equally well in three areas, thereby transforming governance into leadership (Chait et al., 2005). The first area concerns the board's fiduciary role—being responsible to steward the institution's resources. The second encompasses the board's strategic role—creating an effective partnership with management. Finally, the board performs a generative role—providing leadership for the organization. For Chait et al. (2005), generative governance produces a "sense of what knowledge, information, and data *mean*" (p. 84). This type of governance is the most difficult to employ and thus often neglected, but most closely parallels leadership as a process, focused on achieving the organization's mission.

Means for Discussion/Interaction

Participants will be asked to engage a brief case study aimed at identifying the three modes of governance described above, while examining the parallels to leadership as a process for organizational mission attainment. Following this exercise, participants will engage in a discussion with session facilitators regarding the commonalities between leadership and governance as a result of their experiences within the sector.

Foreseeable Implications of Discussion

Understanding the context in which governance as leadership is exercised is vitally important to nonprofit leaders. This discussion explores that context as well as the major issues of governance that must be addressed to produce nonprofit leadership, now and in the future. As a result of the discussion, participants will be empowered to exercise governance as a means of creating positive social change within their community.

Recommended next steps

Further discussion applying governance as leadership might address the other two sectors—the public and private: How would governance as leadership appear in each of these two other sectors? How would it be similar to the nonprofit sector? How would it be different? Similarly, one could apply a leadership lens other than process to understand governance as leadership from a person, position, or results perspective.

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The Inter-•-Association Leadership Education Collaborative: Bringing Organizations Together for Transdisciplinary Possibilities

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Introduction

Leadership educators across the United States are faced with the challenge of creating dynamic educational and developmental experiences for their leadership learners. To gain perspective for how to do this effectively, leadership educators often turn to their professional organizations. However, professional leadership organizations such as the Association of Leadership Educators (ALE) and the National Association for Campus Activities (NACA) often provide similar development opportunities and address similar needs for the field of Leadership Education. This was the impetus for the creation of the Inter-•-Association Leadership Collaborative (ILEC). In July of 2013, seven member-•-based Leadership Education organizations (ACUI, ACPA, ALE, NASPA, NCLP, NACA, and ILA) came together at the University of Maryland, to discuss ways of supporting, promoting and advancing the realm of Leadership Education and the professional development opportunities for leadership educators in higher education. This innovative summit created a foundation for dynamic transdisciplinary outcomes and the development of our field. This Roundtable Discussion aims to facilitate dialogue about gaps within the field of Leadership Education and create strategic direction for the transdiciplinary outcomes that ILEC aspires to achieve.

Participant objectives include but are not limited to:

1. Develop an understanding for ILEC within the Leadership Education community
2. Explore developmental and learning gaps within the field of Leadership Education
3. Explore dynamic opportunities for inter-•-association and ILEC initiatives aimed at the develop of the Leadership Education field
4. Create opportunities to engage participants in high-•-level conversations regarding the trajectory of Leadership Education and the learners it serves

Background

Collaboration is not a new term to the field of Leadership Education. However with the creation of new Leadership Education programs and professional development organizations, a synergistic and purposive trajectory is essential to maximize opportunities for leadership educators. Under this auspice, the Inter-•-Association Leadership Education Collaborative was created. Based on the notes from the inaugural summit held in July 2013, in order to understand how the ILEC could work together, it was first imperative to understand the individual organizations represented. Recognizing that true collaboration builds on the strengths of individuals to produce a strong collective, representatives highlighted the strengths, weaknesses, threats, and opportunities for their respective organizations. The discussion of these pieces invited representatives to explain what their organizations do well, and allowed for the other organizations to appreciate their niche in the realm of Leadership Education. The conversation yielded a firm understanding of the individual organizations and how the strengths of one group would feed directly into the weaknesses of another. Representatives also asserted that in order to effectively serve the members of their organizations, connecting these members to the relevant work in Leadership Education being completed by other organizations was necessary.

The current state of Leadership Education and practice were at the heart of the conversations at the Inter-•-Association Leadership Education Collaborative (ILEC) summit. Associations highlighted some concerns and needs in higher education with regards to students, leadership educators, and practitioners. Member associations of the Collaborative aspire to be a force to tackle these concerns. A few of the needs and concerns discussed are included below:

- Need for going past student development and attaining leadership development,
- Need for advancing students that are not in a curriculum based leadership programs,
- Need for supporting students that obtain their Leadership Education through off-•-campus activities,
- Need for being forward thinking about Leadership Education and keeping up with the continually changing leadership students,
- Need for expanding and synchronizing professional development opportunities for leadership educators,
- Need for bridging the gap between those in leadership academia and those practicing leadership,
- Need for more opportunities for collaborative leadership programs, for shared and supportive leadership research agendas and networking across associations,
- Need for incorporating leadership development education into higher education and graduate programs, and
- Need for guidance on standards and guidelines for assessing leadership programs and creating leadership curriculum.

The strength of the Collaborative rests in its mission. In addition to this, the impact of the ILEC lies in the breadth of its reach, its collective potential to influence, and communal access to resources. By incorporating multiple associations, the ILEC presents a more holistic picture of Leadership Education to scholars and practitioners. With intention and synergy of member associations, the Collaborative can stretch farther, allowing innovation of leadership organizations and programs. The following provides a conceptual model of the Collaborative, and its mission, vision, and objectives.

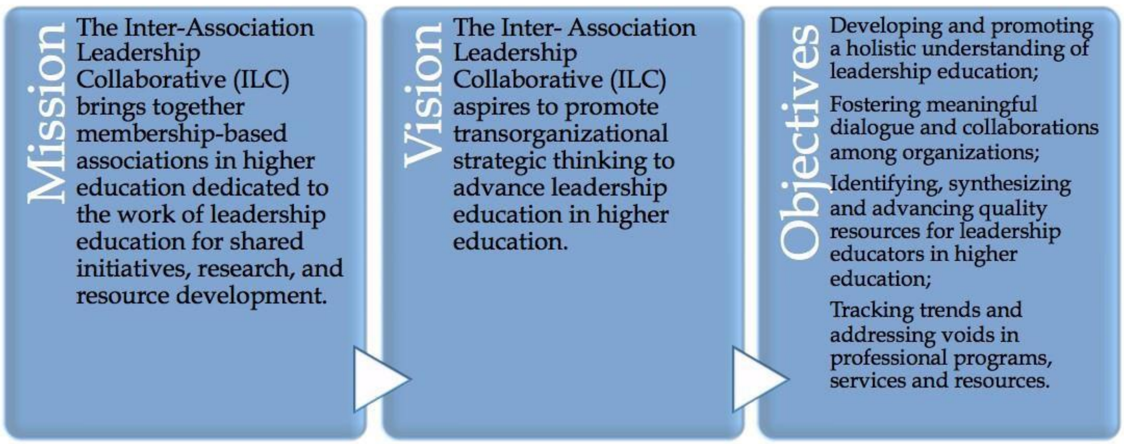

Figure 1. The ILEC Mission, Vision, & Objectives. Please note that the original name of the Collaborative was the Inter-•-Association Leadership Collaborative and then the term "education" was added to add congruence for the work that ILEC does.

Means for Discussion/Interaction

Dialogue in itself can be an outcome. The facilitators will encourage dialogue aimed at participants gaining perspectives about ILEC and the role that it plays in the landscape of Leadership Education. However the exploration of participant perceptions of gaps in the field of Leadership Education and opportunities for ILEC to impact the field provide tremendous reciprocation and could have broad implications for the leadership learner.

Incisive questioning (Kline, 1999) and constructive dialogue (Jokinen, 2009; Jokinen, erminen, Kaipainen, Jauhiainen, Wilcock, Turunen, Hakulinen, Kuusisto, & Lagus,2002) will create a foundation for quality outcomes grounded in the mission of ILEC and its potential contribution to the field. The first facilitation technique, incisive questioning (Kline, 1999) "removes the limiting assumptions, freeing [the learner's] mind to think afresh" (p. 54). By removing the limiting assumptions, or why a particular solution will not work, the learners are able to access their creative process and think critically about the given problem and its surrounding context. This process becomes paramount to developing a solution, because the problems that the learners are asked to solve within the courses do not have answers. When learners are open to dissecting the given problems and potential solutions without bias, they begin to understand how they can take parts from various solutions to create more holistic solutions. Incisive questions have two functional pieces, the assertion of a positive assumption and the redirection of the learner's attention back to their issue or goal (1999). Constructive dialogue includes, but is not limited to the following parameters aiding the facilitator in development of quality discussion based outcomes (Jokinen,2009).

1. There is clear purpose and intended outcomes for the meeting or feedback, one not based on hidden agendas.
2. Tough issues are appropriately addressed in a timely fashion, not avoided or sugarcoated.
3. Multiple perspectives are encouraged and examined, not discounted.
4. Problems are collaboratively resolved, not used as an opportunity for assigning blame.

5. Participants are held accountable for specific action items, not to ambiguous "will or should do's."

Foreseeable Implications of Discussion

The foreseeable outcomes linked to this discussion have broad, transdisciplinary implications for the field of Leadership Education. Specifically the following outcomes are plausible.

1. Contextualization of Leadership Education and existing gaps
2. A framework for potential transdisciplinary and strategic initiatives aimed at meeting those gaps
3. Perspective for who else in addition to the seven identified Leadership Education associations should be included in future ILEC discussions
4. Exploration of communal resources and professional development opportunities that could contribute to the development as Leadership Education as a field

Further, this idea connects to the conference theme *Visions of Leadership: Reflecting on the Past, Focusing on the Future* very well. The days of siloed perspectives and disciplinary teaching within are over. Our world requires systems thinking and strategic visioning with historical grounding to address the complex adaptive challenges that we face. ILEC fully represents these ideas and promotes the possibilities that can benefit Leadership Education as a holistic interdisciplinary field. This discussion informs ILEC's passion and direction while creating tremendous perspective for the participants about the innovative initiatives that set a foundation for our field.

Recommended Next Steps

ILEC applauds ALE in creating a collaborative, community-•-based atmosphere for the field of Leadership Education. This roundtable connects to that mission creating perspectives for conversations that could lead to strategic measurement of ILEC's progress and impact, discussions about what it means to have shared content in ILEC, possibilities of standards, guides, and evaluative measures for leadership educators, understanding for how to effectively connect members of different member organizations, increased relevance programs and opportunities in other associations, and possible grants, scholarships, or shared research projects. This conversation creates both form and function for transdisciplinary Leadership Education outcomes and significant benefits for the leadership leaners we serve.

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Exploring Individual Capacity for Development of the Five Practices of Exemplary Leaders in a High-Impact Undergraduate Program

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Abstract

This study examined how a [Student International Leadership Program] (SILP) contributed to the development of undergraduate students' five leadership practices. Analysis of student reflections revealed students attribute the [SILP] project, reflective writings, and topics discussed as influencing their highest scored practice.

Introduction

According to the National Leadership Education Research Agenda (NLERA)"traditional lecture-based teaching can often result in a gap between the content and how it translates to practice" (Andenoro, 2013, p. 6). This gap is detrimental to leadership education. High-impact practices are good instructional tools to close the gap left by traditional lecture-based courses. High-impact practices are those practices that provide a more in-depth look at the material being covered (Kuh, 2008). These high-impact practices allow students to take their education a step further by using critical thinking skills, honing their problem solving skills, and participating in the real-world application of what is being taught. Leadership educators can utilize high-impact practices to allow learners to apply and integrate leadership practices both inside and outside the scope of a program.

At Texas A&M University, [SILP] is a one-year, high impact course for junior and senior undergraduate students in any major with a specialized focus on international issues. To be selected a student must possess desirable leadership qualities, have knowledge of international news, and be willing to actively participate in the spring semester seminar series. Components of the [SILP] include weekly meetings, correspondence with mentor, and completion of an international challenge project. This project consists of two [SILP] students working together to design, strategize, and implement a high-impact project that will have three focuses: international, campus, and the sustainability of the project. Priority number one of the NLERA states "the intentional development of interdisciplinary connections is essential for the advancement of Leadership Education as a discipline" (Andenoro, 2013, p. 5). This study addresses priority one by examining the participant's development and use of leadership practices. The purpose of this study is to explore how students enrolled in the [SILP] perceive their leadership behaviors have been shaped by their experiences in [SILP].

Background

Based on research by Kouzes and Posner (1987), the 5 Practices of Exemplary Leadership model categorizes leadership behaviors into five practices used by individuals when they are most effective as leaders. These five practices are: model the way, inspire a shared vision, challenge the process, enable others to act, and encourage the heart. According to Posner (2012), "the more student leaders reported having both opportunities to be leaders and to develop their leadership skills the more they engaged in each of the five leadership practices" (p. 232). Frequency of leadership behaviors also appears related to opportunities for students to reflect on their leadership experiences and themselves as leaders (Posner, 2012). Posner (2012) also noted future studies to examine the impact of leadership programs on student leadership behaviors would assist in understanding how leadership is developed.

Methodology

This study examined the effect of participation in the [SILP] on students' development of the five leadership practices. Using a basic qualitative study design, this study sought to understand how individuals make sense of their experiences (Merriam, 2009) in the [SILP]. Students enrolled in the [SILP] program represented a criterion-type purposive sample (Patton, 2002). After completion of the Student Leadership Practices Inventory, students were asked to reflect on how being involved in the [SILP] has encouraged or helped them develop this [highest scored] practice. The data were analyzed using the constant comparative method (Glaser & Strauss', 1967). Trustworthiness was established using Lincoln and Guba's (1985) concepts of transferability, dependability, and confirmability. Data were coded (S1-S6) before the analysis began to ensure the confidentiality of the students; these data codes were included in the quotations to produce an audit trail.

Results/Findings

Students scored highest on only two of the five practices: challenging the process and enabling others to act. Specific components of their experience in [SILP] which contributed to their development of their highest scored practice were reported by students. Statements by students reflected three major themes of how they developed the practice: [SILP] project, reflective writings, and topics discussed. In regard to the [SILP] project, student S1stated "The [SILP] project allows me to enable others by developing different clubs in the project." Student S3 also noted "[SILP] has encouraged me to challenge the process by making me see what is wrong with the world and enabling me to help implement a program to fix it."

The use of reflective writings affected students' development of the practices. This is evidenced by student 6 who noted "…the reflective writings essentially allow us to research a topic and make our own decisions regarding what stance to take on an issue. I am certain that my opinions in certain reflections were definitely not mainstream views on those specific issues, so I think the reflection papers work as an effective outlet for this practice"

Students also noted how the topics chosen by the director of the program contributed to their development of the practices. Student 6 reflected "[SILP] has helped by bringing up topics of societal/economic/political significance that are far beyond the realm of my specific major." This student goes on to further note his participation in [SILP]: "[SILP] is definitely an exception to that trend because of the format of the class and the emphasis placed on exposure to a variety of perspectives."

Conclusions/ Recommendations

The results of this study highlight how a high-impact practice in leadership education can assist in transferring leadership learned into leadership practiced. As Posner (2012) concluded, the more opportunities students have to experience leadership, the more likely they are to engage in the five practices of exemplary leaders. While this study did not validate that reflection caused an increased in frequency of leadership behaviors (Posner, 2012), this study would suggest reflection be used to encourage students to evaluate their development of leadership behaviors in high-impact programs. Future studies should evaluate high-impact programs such as [SILP] and the positive implications on the development of leadership behaviors. High-impact programs similar to [SILP] can provide participants opportunities to go beyond the limitations of a lecture hall and expand their capacity to lead.

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Using Student Temperaments to Impact the Planning of Agriculture Leadership Coursework

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Introduction

At universities across the globe, non-retained students means lost revenue. Emerging research has focused on means to better educate and retain students within colleges of agriculture. This study joined previous research in the attempt to positively impact college of agriculture student retention and course planning. Limitations of the study included participants meeting specific study criteria, which resulted in a sample size of 49. Results were also not generalizable to all college of agriculture students. Since the purposive sample participants were enrolled in an introductory agriculture leadership course, recommendations for the use of the results were applied to agriculture leadership course planning.

This study compliments the 2014 ALE conference theme by urging leadership educators to use student's temperament preferences in the classroom to assist in the development of a well-rounded future leader.

Background

It is well known that traditional education is easier for some temperaments, while hindering others. Lawrence (2009) noted that "the outcomes of formal education depend so much on understanding student differences in motivation, interest, learning styles and attitudes" (p. 31-32). This study supports Paulo Freire's educational method to teaching leadership, "the means by which an instructor teaches leadership must match the kind of leadership the instructor intends to promote" (Kaak, 2011, p. 133). Freire's teaching method supports the study's recommendations that educators should teach leadership in a way that strengthens the four temperaments, while constructing coursework that also promotes temperament development and understanding. By doing so, instructors are providing students with a built-in opportunity to impact leadership skill and behavior development.

Methodology

Purposive sampling techniques were used in this study's descriptive quantitative research design. The population was chosen by the researcher for four purposive reasons: (1) enrollment in the College of Agriculture, (2) enrollment in the freshmen seminar [course] course, (3) academic standing as a first-time, full-time freshmen, and (4) completed the Beginning College Student Survey of Engagement (BCSSE) in the [year] summer new student orientation session. The participant's Real Colors® and BCSSE results were collected after informed consent forms were signed by participants. Data analysis procedures demanded that nonparametric statistical procedures be used due to the violations of assumptions (Morgan, Leech, Gloeckner, & Barrett, 2013). Descriptive and frequency tables were utilized to characterize, organize, and simplify the data. Mann-Whitney *U*, Kruskal-Wallis, Fisher's Exact, Chi Square, and correlational tests were conducted to explore for statistically significant relationships and associations between the data.

Results

Seventy-seven percent of the sample was retained to the second fall semester of college. Temperament results revealed the majority of students identified their primary temperament as Orange (41%), and secondary temperament as Gold or Blue (36.7% each). These findings were congruent with Barrett's (1985) that the Sensing-Perceiving/Orange type was the largest primary temperament group in the college of agriculture. When it came to education, the Orange and Gold temperaments expected to succeed in college. Orange, Gold, and Green primary temperaments differed significantly on their expected difficulty of making friends during the first year in college. A negative correlation was present between secondary temperament and the expected difficulty in paying for college. Based on these findings, educators were presented with the challenge to purposefully engage the largest reported temperament groups Orange and

Gold/Blue temperaments to increase learning and student retention. Barrett noted, and this study confirmed, “these findings may have major implications on the approaches used to improve teaching and learning for agricultural college students” (1985, p. 53).

Recommendations

Recommendations from the study were as follows. Agriculture leadership instructors should keep course assignments practical; provide hands on activities; relate coursework to industry, and encourage big picture thinking. “People are given opportunities to lead; it is how people seize these opportunities that can potentially make a positive or negative impact on others” (Moore, Odom, & Moore, 2013, p. 2). Without the development of supplementary temperaments, students may be uncomfortable responding to a leadership task that does not engage their primary temperament. To avoid this, instructors should provide students with well-rounded coursework and experiences engaging the four temperaments. Table 1 provides two examples of leadership course assignments and how each temperament may view the assignment.

Table 1

Examples of Temperament Views of General Types of Agriculture Leadership Course Assignments

Assignment	Temperament View of the Assignment
Service Learning Projects	• Gold = Appreciate the opportunity to use existing skills and develop new ones. May view the experience as a networking opportunity. Creating a SLP plan allows Gold’s to see what obstacles may be ahead to better know how to deal with them or resolve them before they become an obstacle. A reflection allows Gold’s to highlight accomplishments, and how they grew or “succeeded.
	• Orange = Viewed as an opportunity to hang out with other people while doing some good along the way. Planning gives awareness of obstacles they must crush to perform the best. Reflections allow for creative and artistic displays in how they viewed their experience. Will include pictures, videos, and stories. Was not about the grade or the “growth”; it was about the fun had and people met.
	• Blue = See value in the work as long as they make a positive difference. A plan allows Blues to think about the obstacles ahead and how to avoid them. Reflections will incorporate pictures and stories, focused on how they helped and how it made them feel. A portfolio would be like a diary, used to remember the service provided and the people they served with.
	• Green = Prefer to serve alone in a capacity that uses analyzing abilities. Will see value in the project only if future, practical uses can be derived from it. Planning aids in the exploration of possible obstacles and solutions prior to experiencing them. Reflections allow for visual processing and logical display of results. Portfolio serves as an outline of experiences and outcomes that could be useful in the future.
Mission/Vision Statement	• Gold = Will enjoy contemplating future successes. Serves as a roadmap to their personal definition of success. Highlight their traditions, values, responsibilities, and goal to be the best in their field.
	• Blue = Enjoy thinking about all of the good they want to do in the world. Will feature their dedication to a large network of friends, family, and others. May not be concrete as to specifically how, but know that they want to help make the world a better place.
	• Orange = Mention their dedication to family and tradition, while making a lasting impact through hard work and hard play. Mention a desire to best the best in their field.

- Green = There will be so many extraneous variables and unforeseen events that creating a concise personal mission statement would be a daunting task. Write in generalities with their values and desires that have been constant throughout their life up to that point.

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A Model for what Beef Industry Leadership is and how Leaders come to be

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Introduction and Background

Beef industry leaders are challenged to be the voice of their industry (Ball, 2000, Field, 2008, Speer, 2008). Regulations, costs of production, aging producers, policy, and competition are just some of the issues challenging beef producers today (Armbruster, Halbrook & Thompson, 2006; Olynk, Tonsor & Wolf, 2010), resulting in the necessity for volunteers to step into leadership roles, make decisions for membership industry organizations and represent their peers. Leadership has been deeply studied (Bass 2008, Burns 1978, Kouzes and Posner, 2002, Northouse, 2010, Yukl, 1998) yet; little research exists examining the role of volunteer peer leaders in non- formalized leadership roles in membership-based organizations. Volunteers are vastly different than employees because they are not rewarded with financial benefits for their work (Peters, 2010) however; volunteers are valuable to membership organizations (Handy and Hustinx, 2009). A prescription for a healthy beef industry includes more adequate beef industry leadership (Purcell, 2002). With many issues directly impacting beef producers' livelihood and the future of their industry, producers are fundamental to organizations — especially those willing to serve in leadership roles. The purpose of this study was to gain a greater understanding of what brings people to industry leadership roles and to identify future leadership needs of membership-based organizations. This project established a model for how beef industry leaders come to serve in formal positions of volunteer peer membership organizations, the value and role of volunteers as leaders, and how industry leadership is defined as a result.

Methods

A qualitative approach was used to explore the phenomenon of beef industry leaders (Creswell, 2008; Moustakas, 1994). Telephone interviews were conducted with 12 identified beef leaders (Plano-Clark & Creswell, 2010), using homogenous sampling techniques (Creswell, 2008) and broad, general questions (Richards & Morse, 2007). Transcripts were produced and common themes were developed (Moustakas, 1994). A model (Figure 1) was created based on themes identified by the phenomenon essence of the study and literature review of the beef industry structure.

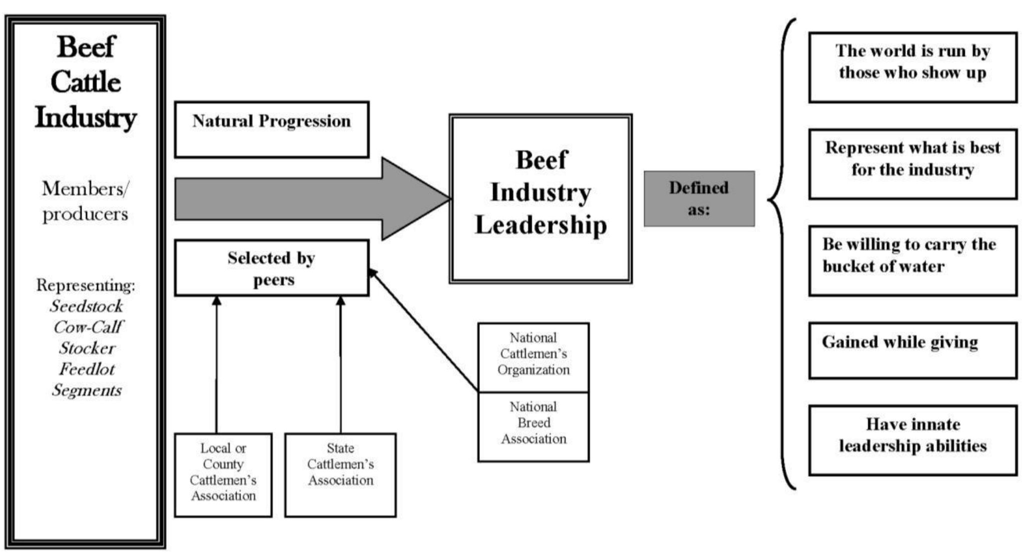

Figure 1. A Model for developing leaders and characterizing leadership in the beef industry.

Results

Figure 1 indicates the structure of the beef cattle industry and representation of the members/producers, selected from all industry segments: (seedstock; cow/calf; stocker; and feedlot). Interview participants indicated their roles were initiated by their early involvement at the local/county/state cattlemen's association, where they naturally developed a willingness to serve their industry. As a result they were selected by their peers to progress to additional leadership roles carrying on more responsibility and then serving in national leadership roles. Interviews of

identified national beef industry leaders resulted in seven main themes, presented in vivo, defined as 1) The world is run by those who show up; 2) Represent what is best for the industry; 3) Be willing to carry the bucket (of water); 4) Gained will giving; 5) Have innate leadership abilities; 6) A natural progression (to leadership) and 7) Selected by their peers. From these themes a definition of industry leadership was defined as: a role fulfilled by someone who is willing to serve their industry, with the best of the industry in mind and taking on the responsibility and challenges that come along with making decisions to serve and speak for their peers with integrity.

Conclusion/Recommendations

This model ties closely back to the model developed by Kouzes and Posner (2002), *Five Fundamentals of the Model of Leadership*, indicating many similarities to how beef (or association) industry leaders accomplish leadership roles through their behaviors as leaders. This study provides a framework previously limited in the research. The results can direct practical implications in the area of leadership development such as transitioning leadership from one generation to the next, educational leadership training, recruitment, clarification of roles for volunteers, a greater understanding of leaders in non-formalized systems, and the role of leaders in membership-based organizations.

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The Impact of an Ethics Class on Student's Cognitive Moral Development

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Introduction

As a result of the ethical breaches of the 1990s, courses in ethics began to proliferate undergraduate business and MBA programs (Arlow, 1991). Most leadership courses incorporated ethical principles into existing courses, but more programs are adding courses specifically focusing on ethics. Given the current neo-charismatic movement of leadership, combining leadership concepts with ethical theory gives students the proper scaffolding for being effective, ethical leaders. One way for students to begin learning and applying ethical theories to their lives is to create a personal code of ethics. While the literature has focused on organizational codes of ethics, the need to examine ethical foundations of leadership students is evident.

Purpose of Study

Students in a senior-level applied ethics in leadership course were asked to write their personal code of ethics; a document that outlines how they make moral decisions. The purpose of this study was to examine the level of sophistication of students' ethical codes of behavior.

Literature Review

Ethics is the branch of philosophy that deals with issues of behavior, of what is right and what is wrong (Pojman & Fieser, 2009). Pierce and Henry (1996) note that personal codes of ethics are not created in a vacuum. Moral maturity, the ethical culture of the workplace, and existing professional codes all play a role in developing personal codes of ethics. Ethical codes of conduct provide a connection between ethical theories and daily decision making. Codes of ethics establish expectations for behavior and a way to examine leadership decision-making (Dean, 1992).

Methodology

For this phenomenological study, the population consists of 135 leadership students enrolled in [course name at university]. As part of the course objectives, students are required to write a code of ethics. Each code of ethics paper was given a participant code before analysis began. The authors categorized student ethical statements according to Pojman and Fieser's (2009) categories of normative principles: morality, religion, law, and etiquette. Pojman and Fieser describe moral principles as concerning standards of behavior, what ought to be. Morality is the highest standard. Religious principles are established by divine authority. Moral principles need not be determined "on high," but can be ascertained from reason. Laws are established to promote well-being, but many laws are not moral. Etiquette concerns form and style – what is polite behavior (Pojman and Fieser, 2009).

In order to establish inter-rater reliability, all three researchers conducted separate content analysis. This triangulation of analysis, in which "two or more persons independently analyze the same qualitative data and compare their findings" (p. 560) adds to the reliability of data analysis (Patton, 2002). The same procedure of unitizing data was used by all researchers. Data units were extracted from the original sources, deductively analyzed, and then categorized using the conceptual framework (Lincoln & Guba, 1989).

Findings

Given the open-ended assignment rubric for the code of ethics, the codes varied in length and detail. Elements of Pojman and Feiser's (2009) framework could be seen throughout the students' work. Tabulating the 135 student papers revealed the most frequent statements fell into the Etiquette category (n=252). The categories of Moral statements and Other (those that did not fit any of Pojman and Fieser's categories) were tied with n=221 statements each. One Hundred Sixteen (n=116) statements were categorized as religious and 45 student statements indicated they utilized legal vernacular to describe their personal code (Legal).

Table 1. Frequencies for Pojman and Fieser's Normative Categories, N=855

Ranking	Normative Category	n
1	Etiquette	252
2	Morals	221
2	Other	221
3	Religion	116
4	Legal	45

Conclusions/Recommendations

The Code of Ethics assignment was given at the beginning of the semester. Because most of the statements in students' code of ethics were categorized as Etiquette, it may be concluded that students' level of cognitive moral development is still at a rudimentary level. It is clear that they haven't learned to distinguish between what guides their moral behavior and how to be polite in society. Further evidence of their level of cognitive moral development is their inability to distinguish between statements of moral behavior and what appear to be values (importance of family, a good work ethic, etc.) Because this university has traditional conservative Christian values, it can be expected that a high number of religious statements would be found.

Further research will investigate the "Other" category through inductive analysis to better conceptualize students' codes of ethics. The authors also recommend that this initial assignment be compared with the final code of ethics assignment to determine if students' levels of cognitive moral development changed after spending a semester in an ethics course.

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Evaluating the Community Impact of Service Learning: Preliminary Development of A Grounded Theory

Brent Goertzen, Justin Greenleaf, & Danielle Dougherty
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Introduction

Extensive research has been conducted examining the impact of service-learning projects from the perspective of faculty (e.g., Abes, Jackson & Jones, 2002) or focuses on the student (e.g., Giles & Eyler, 1994). However, comparatively little is known on the impact of service-learning from the community agency perspective. Several studies have attempted to examine the community agency perspectives of service-learning experiences however, these studies are often limited to perceptions of satisfaction with students participating in service-learning projects (e.g., Vernon & Ward, 1999; Ferrari & Worrall, 2000) or perceptions of involvement in the planning and implementation of service-learning experience (e.g., Miron & Moely, 2006). Miron and Moely (2006) tested for community agency perspectives of 'perceived benefit' from service-learning experiences; however, their study did not account for an in-depth understanding of the nature and type of the benefit. Other research sought to examine the impact of service-learning projects. For instance, Schmidt and Robby (2002) focused on the clients directly served through a tutoring program and found the program to enhance children's academic outcomes. Studies such as this are limited in scope since it focuses on a single type of service-learning project with a very specific aim. Worrall (2007) described a more expanded perspective on community agency perceptions of service-learning benefits by interviewing 40 representatives from 12 community based organizations. Worrall reported that community agencies entered into a partnership with an area university service-learning center in order to gain access to new or additional resources (e.g., labor) and to help expand the reach of their programs.

While these studies offer useful insights regarding the partnerships between community agencies and colleges/universities as well as aspects of possible impact of service-learning on the community, there remains a significant gap in our understanding of a generalized theory of community impact from service-learning. The purpose of the project is to conduct a grounded theory study of community leaders' perceptions of the impact of service-learning projects. The central research question driving the present study is: "How have 'service-learning project teams' impacted your organization and community?" The participants were comprised of community leaders who have supervised and worked with student project teams from a fieldwork in leadership studies course offered at a regional, public university. The fieldwork leadership course offers a unique learning experience whereby students, typically in teams of four or five, identify a community/civic issue, develop a strategic plan aimed at resolving the issue, and spend the entire semester implementing the strategic plan.

Community leaders are invited to present project ideas to students during the first two weeks of the course. Project teams are then determined based on student preferences. The community leaders who present the project ideas then serve as the project supervisor and guide the team throughout the semester. Examples of service-learning projects include working with the executive director of local Big Brothers/Big Sisters organization to launch and sustain an outdoor mentoring program; working in partnership with the executive director of domestic violence and sexual assault support organization to leverage community awareness to influence a regional hospital to offer enhanced medical services for victims of rape and domestic violence; and working with a community foundation director to promote community health by securing resources and providing labor to build a walking trail in a local park.

Participants were recruited initially by a letter requesting their participation. The recruitment letter described the purpose of the research project and detailed what they could expect as participants of the study. Seven days after mailing the recruitment letter, the researchers followed up with phone calls determining the participants' interest and involvement in the study. The researchers then arranged an appropriate setting to conduct the qualitative interview.

The interview protocol was designed to help the researchers determine the impact of service-learning program teams in organizations and communities. The instrument was designed around a central question and issue and procedural sub-questions (Creswell, 2012). The central question was designed to establish a broad understanding of the impact of the service-learning teams while the issue and procedural sub-questions were designed to provide more specific examples of impact. The issue/procedural sub-questions were developed using the different types of community capital as described by Emery and Flora (2006). Interviews ranged between 35 and 55 minutes in length and were audio recorded and transcribed. In order to retain the participants' language, the researchers primarily applied *in vivo* coding; however, a descriptive coding strategy was also applied which aided to the inventorying of topics during the initial coding process (Miles, Huberman & Saldana, 2014). At the time of submission of this poster session proposal, the research team completed seven of twenty participant interviews.

Utilizing a 'constant comparative' (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) approach to data analysis, preliminary findings reveal several categories of community impact from service-learning. The first category, *Financial Impact*, involves raising funds or in other ways securing fiscal resources. For example, a project team raised several thousand dollars by coordinating a 5K run that benefited an area shelter for victims of domestic violence. *Social Network Impact* refers to the development of interpersonal and inter-organizational connections within the community. For instance, a service-learning project team coordinated a summit that brought together representatives from numerous outdoor associations on behalf of the local Big Brothers/Big Sisters organization with the aim of creating an outdoor mentoring program to involve youth in outdoor activities. *Physical Environment Impact* represents changes to the community infrastructure as several service-learning project teams coordinated the development of resources and provided physical labor to build a walking trail in a community park. *Political Impact* is a domain of impact representing the increased voice and influence of residents. For example a service-learning team organized community rallies that raised awareness of sexual assault and leveraged that influence with a regional hospital to allocate necessary resources to provide medical and other support services for victims of domestic violence and sexual assault.

Further theory development and refinement is clearly needed. Research in this area holds tremendous implications for educators and community leaders. For instance, being able to clearly define impact on community agencies can help foster additional and deeper partnerships between colleges and communities. Additionally, continued theoretical and empirical development may also spur innovative service-learning project opportunities by which this experiential pedagogy may be embedded in additional disciplines. The researchers hope that other scholars join in the effort to explore this area of research on community impact of service-learning experiences.

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Employer Perceptions of Desired Leadership Competencies in Employees Post-Graduation

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Introduction

Because of the recent recession, the job market is very competitive. Additionally, having a college diploma no longer separates candidates in the job market as more and more students are completing higher education degrees. Furthermore, recent studies have demonstrated college graduates have not acquired the necessary skills for entering the workforce, and therefore, are not prepared for the careers they have chosen (Robinson, 2006). Making sure students are prepared to work in a highly competitive global market is essential in leadership education (Graham, 2001). Previous studies have analyzed needed graduate competencies in agricultural communications, agricultural economics, animal science, and general agriculture. However, a study has not been conducted specifically pertaining to desired leadership competencies. Therefore, the purpose of this emerging research proposal is to analyze leadership competencies desired by agricultural graduates at [university] University.

Background

Industry and higher education have a need to be partners and develop a mutualistic relationship (Graham, 2001). While higher education works to develop students into successful candidates for the workforce, employers are seeking employee candidates who are well trained and demonstrate the ability to be a good fit within the organization. Therefore, curriculum should be reflective of industry needs. A study conducted by Graham (2001) found the curriculum in colleges of agriculture to be out of date. Consequently, the study called for improvements to be made to the curriculum based on industry needs (Graham, 2001).

Agricultural leadership education is not exempt from these problems. This leads to the question, how can leadership educators make a larger impact on the level of leadership skills student possess when entering the workforce? A national study conducted by the Association of Public and Land-grant Universities (APLU) found employers want to see graduates with skills in leadership, communication, and teamwork while also demonstrating the ability to think critically (Crawford, Lang, Fink, Dalton & Fielitz, 2011). Moreover, a study by Robinson, Garton, and Vaughn (2007) found that employers desired decision making, critical thinking, and team work as entry level employee competencies emphasized (Robinson, Garton, Vaughn; 2007). Therefore, the purpose of this exploratory study is to determine what leadership competencies employers desire from College of Agriculture graduates at [University] University.

Methodology

For this study, the population will consist of employers of entry-level graduates from a southern land grant institution. The employers will be found utilizing the university alumni databases. Employers surveyed will represent businesses that hire students from all majors in the college. These majors include: agricultural business; agricultural education, communications and technology; animal science; biological engineering; crop science; environmental soil and water science; food science; horticulture; landscape and turf science; poultry science; apparel studies; hospitality; human environmental science; and human development. A letter will be sent to each employer to explain the importance and purpose of this study. The letter will let the employer know the answers they provide will aid in developing new curriculum as well as new programs to better prepare students for future careers, and consequently, provide a better pool of candidates to enter the workforce. Two weeks after employers receive the letter, they will receive the survey via email. The survey will go through a series of leadership skills including interpersonal skills, technical skills, character skills, and team building skills. In each section employers will rate graduates of the college on a scale of one, being unprepared, to five, being completely prepared. Then employers will rank the same set of skills in each series as to how important they are to their company with one being not important and five being very important. The data will be evaluated by calculating the mean difference of each skill in each category.

Discussion

Creating leadership programs and experiences for students is critical to ensuring students are prepared for the workforce. It is important for students have experiences (Kolb, Boyatzis, Mainemelis, 1999) to allow them to enhance their level of preparedness to enter the workforce. By analyzing employer perceptions of graduates as well as understanding the importance of different leadership skills desired will help to provide valuable insight to for further development of leadership education curriculum. Moreover, by working closely with industry professionals, educators can potentially give students a competitive advantage in the job market by ensuring critical leadership competencies are exhibited by [University] University graduates.

Future research could pertain to how to ensure the identified competencies are being implemented within the leadership curriculum. In addition to leadership courses, the College of Agriculture at [University] University has opportunities for students to gain leadership experience through internships, study abroad experiences, and various student leadership positions. However, do these experiences develop and reinforce the desired leadership competencies? By conducting further research, an opportunity is created to Find new and innovate ideas to cultivate new curriculum, opportunities, and experiences to improve leadership education and better prepare students to enter the ever changing workforce.

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Competencies in Leadership, Education, and Research: Roses by Other Names

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Introduction

There's something about a list. Grocery lists make shopping easier, packing lists keep us from wearing shorts to the Artic, and the To-Do list helps us complete our tasks. Believing order makes accomplishments easier we often like organizing thoughts and tasks into sequential or progressive forms. When learning a new skill or role we may make a list of the concepts or a task analysis of the steps, even job descriptions are presented as a list of competencies and responsibilities. It is no wonder that 'list-mania' is commonplace even in leadership education. In our zeal for a simple list of leader attributes that are easy to convey and easy to remember has the profession overcomplicated things? There's always a new or improved or contextually specific list being introduced. Are these many iterations of leader attributes lists really that different one from another? Or is the profession caught up in the wording, the naming? What's in a name - that which we call a rose by any other name would smell as sweet and inform as well. While names, semantics, and vocabulary are by no means unimportant it is prudent to ask if the words are getting in the way of the message. What does it take to be a leader, what are the key competencies of leadership? Are these so different from competencies of other disciplines, other researchers, educators, and thinkers? An examination of just a few respected and popular texts suggests there are core competencies shared by several fields.

Background

Three texts, each of which outlines core competencies for its represented profession were used as exemplars. These texts were *Qualitative Research*, by Sharan B. Merriam; *21st Century Skills*, by Bernie Trilling and Charles Fadel; and *On Becoming a Leader*, by Warren Bennis. *Qualitative Research* and *On Becoming a Leader* are both popular and often used text for introductory and advanced qualitative research methods classes and leadership education courses respectively. Based on the goals of The Partnership for 21st Century Skills, *21st Century Skills*, was created to outline the skills and competencies that would best develop k12 populations into work-ready adults (Trilling and Fadel, 2009). Each of these books represents research and thought consensus from each discipline and is able to offer competencies desired by working professionals in the field.

Methodology

Creswell (1998) describes content analysis as having three distinct stages, open, axial, and selective coding. Glaser and Strauss (1967) describe the first stage as the simple sorting of data into categories. In this case, we took the lists described above and sorted each individual list item into preliminary categories. Axial coding is when "the investigator assembles the data in new ways after open coding" (Creswell, 1998, p. 57). For this project, the thinkers took the original laundry list of categories and began to combine similar items together under new headings or names. This continued until cogent categories emerged that made sense to each of the thinkers and for the project context. Creswell (1998) describes the final step, selective coding, as the telling of the story using the categories identified in the previous step. In this case, the thinkers prepared a new list, using the knowledge created in the previous step.

Current Results and Recommendations

Careful reviews of the chosen texts lead to the formulation of five foundational competencies shared by the represented fields as essential for a successful leader. By stripping away the context specific wording, catchy phrasing, and flashy vocabulary the remaining concepts are easier to understand, easier to develop and practice in any setting and should be used as goals for student, leader, and thinker growth. These competencies are:

1. **Questioning and Observing**

Gerzon (2006) discusses the need to be curious. Researchers have long thought developing deeper understanding and meaning in all situations is the only way to move a society forward. By cultivating a questioning stance and developing a keen sense of observation, these leadership thinkers suggest that we would then be equipped to acknowledge all that we don't know and understand, but be able to start down a path of true understanding.

2. **Relationship Centered**

The very definition of leadership is focused on an influence relationship (Northouse, 2013). Bass (1990) tells us that developing interpersonal competencies is a keystone of leadership. However, we see it's not just leadership scholars who see the benefit of focusing on relationships. As we move fully into the 21st century, with technology at our fingertips, the drive to establish human connection is now, more than ever, incredibly important.

3. **Comfort with Flexibility**

"Learning to lead is, on one level, learning to manage change. … But unless the leader continues to evolve, to adapt and adjust to external change, the organization will sooner or later stall" (Bennis, 2003, p. 135) Chaos. Complexity. Change. Flexibility. These words would seem to be in direct conflict with one another, in truth they are partners to a common vision of leadership that believes not only must leaders be comfortable amid chaos, but that comfort should lead to the development of an acute flexibility. Just as it is important for leaders to know and understand followers as unique individuals, it's imperative for leaders to know and understand each situation as unique.

4. **Be Solutions Driven**

In 2006, Kouzes and Posner reminded readers that the "defining competence" of leaders would be their ability to look to the future and see the opportunities and possibilities that lie ahead (p.99). As we look ahead to a future that promises to only become more complicated and more complex, being able to imagine outcomes and then make those outcomes reality will be essential to effect real world change.

5. **Communication**

As Crawford and Strohkirch (2004) so elegantly tell us, "To say that leadership and communication is linked is simply to restate what is obvious and largely proven through much of the scholarship in our discipline" (p. 40). In this case, these leadership thinkers posit that communication isn't simply the encoding and decoding of messages, but more specifically, the coding and decoding of the messages that emerge from the four previous competencies.

It is recommended, as always, that the dialogue continue and that new wordings of skills and concepts continue to be offered and examined. It is also, however, recommended that sometimes the simple ways are best and that using these five shared core competencies create a foundation upon which all leaders, educators, and researchers can build.

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Examining the Developmental Influences that Impact Women in Sports' Leadership Identity Development

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Abstract

This study examined the developmental influences of current female leaders in sport. Three women leaders in sport contexts were interviewed to gain perspectives of developmental influences on their leadership identity development. Two themes emerged which were role of sport and the role of former coaches.

Introduction

There is a need for leaders and followers to develop perspective for self within an organizational and group context as indicated by priority three of the National Leadership Education Research Agenda (Andenoro, 2013). This study addresses this priority by examining the intricacies of personality and self-awareness, leadership identity development of women in sport who are in leadership positions.

Currently, the majority of sport management leadership scholars have focused on leadership styles and organizational outcomes (Burton & Welty Peachey, 2009; Burton & Welty Peachey, 2013; Choi, Sagas, Park, & Cunningham, 2007; Kent & Chelladurai, 2001), as well as the underrepresentation of female leaders in sport (Acosta & Carpenter, 2012; Sartore & Cunningham, 2007). However, a dearth of sport management literature has examined the leadership identity development and developmental influences of existing female leaders in sport. Sartore and Cunningham (2007) called for scholars to further investigate the self-concept and identity formation of women leaders in sport organizations. Thus, there is a need to identify the developmental influences of current female leaders in sport in order to identify strategies for overcoming existing barriers for women interested in pursuing leadership positions in sport. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to examine the developmental influences of current female leaders in sport. Results from this study will contribute to both leadership and sport management literature while helping intercollegiate athletic programs implement training programs for current female athletes.

Background

Komives, Owen, Longerbeam, Mainella, & Osteen (2005) developed the leadership identity development (LID) model using a grounded theory approach to "understand the processes a person experiences in creating a leadership identity" (p. 403). The LID model includes six stages of leadership identity an individual goes through while developing a deeper and more complex understanding of leadership and self in relation to others in the organization. As individuals develop through these stages,one of these is developmental influences. Developmental influences help foster development of leadership identity and include adult and peer influences, meaningful involvement, and reflective learning (Komives et al., 2005; Komives et al., 2009). Understanding the developmental influences of women in leadership positions in sport is critical to designing leadership trainings and programs to meet their needs.

Methodology

To fully investigate and understand the leadership identity development of current female leaders in the sport industry, qualitative methods were deemed prudent (Creswell, 1998; Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Interviews were guided by the theoretical framework of Komives et al. (2005) and included questions regarding: (a) their definition of leadership and own leadership philosophy; (b) the key influences in shaping their leadership styles; (c) the role of sport in their leadership abilities; (d) the critical challenges they faced along their career path; and (e) impactful experiences in their career that helped shape their views on themselves as a leader.

To date, three interviews have been conducted. Participant one is currently the Director of Athletics at a preparatory school and former D1 head basketball coach. Participant two is the Senior Associate Athletic Director at a D1 university and former assistant track coach at another D1 university. Participant three is the current head women's soccer coach, Assistant Athletic Director and Senior Woman Administrator at a D3 university. All participants have over 10 years of experience in leadership positions in sport and all three were intercollegiate athletes.

Guided by the LID model, data will continuously be analyzed and positioned in open, axial, and selective coding categories (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). Transcriptions of interviews were coded and examined by both the first and second author to identify and align views consistent with the LID model (Komives et al., 2005).

Results

Two dominant themes contributing to the developmental influences of the participants' leadership identity surfaced from the data: their meaningful involvement in sport and the role of former coaches in their lives. All three participants indicated their involvement in sport was the basis of their overall leadership identity. For example, participant two stated her "tenacity, endurance, and toughness" can all be attributed to her involvement in sport. Furthermore, sport "puts you in an environment of diversity, learning, and introduces you to things most people will never experience. Another claimed, "My leadership reflects my playing experience."

The role of former coaches, whether positive or negative, seemed to have a lasting impact on the participants' development of leadership self-efficacy. Two participants pointed towards positive experiences where former coaches encouraged them to pursue leadership positions. Another participant pointed towards a negative experience where a college coach discouraged her from continuing in her sport, but a conversation with a former youth coach inspired her to pursue a coaching position. This affirmation by former coaches encouraged these women to assume leadership positions.

Conclusions/Recommendations

Komives et al. (2009) suggested further examination was needed into the connection of competence and confidence across females' LID stages. By examining the developmental influences of LID in female leaders in sport, this study begins to address this need. Due to the underrepresentation of women in key leadership and decision-making positions in sport, this study also helps address key developmental influences for assisting women pursuing leadership positions in the sport industry. This study found meaningful involvement in sport and the influence of former coaches were instrumental developing influences for these female leaders. Future studies should address these developmental influences as well as additional group influences on the developing self. This study is limited in that only three female leaders from intercollegiate sports were interviewed, thus, future studies should examine a broader range of female leaders in sport (e.g. amateur sports, professional sports, international sports).

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Academic Freedom as Leadership in Higher Education: Foundations for Emerging Research

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Abstract

This poster examines academic freedom as leadership. It explains what makes universities unique, examines governance as leadership, reviews how Academic Freedom has been (re)defined, and suggests theoretical lenses for leadership in universities. The presentation draws conclusions and suggests possibilities for future research.

Introduction

One of the significant issues in higher education is academic freedom, which has been described as "the indispensible quality of institutions of higher education" (AAUP, 2014). Academic Freedom is the freedom of professors to conduct research, publish their research results, teach in the classroom, and speak as a public citizen (AAUP, 1940). The purpose of this poster presentation is to introduce emerging research that examines academic freedom as leadership in higher education. The questions this research seeks to address include 1) what are the constructs that form the framework for the exercise of leadership within institutions of higher education and 2) within these constructs, how do faculty members in higher education exercise Academic Freedom to produce leadership? The presentation addresses the features of colleges and universities that make them unique from other governmental or nonprofit organizations, examines how governance can be transformed into leadership, reviews how Academic Freedom—a key governance issue in higher education—has been established and defined over time, and suggests three leadership theories which may be used as theoretical lenses. The presentation draws conclusions based on this research and suggests possibilities for future research.

Background

Within the governmental and nonprofit sectors, institutions of higher education are unique (Vedder, 2007). First, colleges and universities combine charitable and commercial purposes to become "part church and part car-dealer" (Winston, 1999, p. 31). Like churches on the one hand, they are committed to doing good, to accomplishing their missions (Winston, 1999, p. 31); on the other hand, as car-dealers, they are committed to doing well, to rationally achieving their financial goals (Winston, 1999, p. 31). Second, faculty at colleges and universities organize themselves as guilds: professional societies based on apprenticeship, competency, collegiality, and shared governance. However, faculty members remain accountable to university governing boards comprised of trustees who are often laypersons outside the academic guild; a third characteristic (Metzger, 1961; MacIver, 1955). Finally, as a result of lay governance, faculty members have asserted a right to academic freedom to establish a sphere of independence within an institution governed by lay boards (MacIver, 1955).

Governing boards, to be successful, must operate equally well in three areas, thereby transforming governance into leadership (Chait, Ryan, Taylor, & BoardSource, 2005). The first area concerns the board's fiduciary role—being responsible to steward the institution's resources. The second encompasses the board's strategic role—creating an effective partnership with management. Finally, the board performs a generative role—providing leadership for the organization.

Historical & Theoretical Research

To perform successfully, leaders at all levels of higher education—including trustees, administrators, and faculty members—can benefit from an understanding of Academic Freedom, how it was established, and redefined over time. From the 13th Century, scholars at the University of Paris enjoyed the right of *jus* *non trahi extra*—an immunity from ecclesiastical or civil trial outside of the city of Paris (Hofstadter, 1996; Norton, 1971; Rashdall, 1936). Similarly in England, scholars possessed the *benefit of clergy*, which included partial exemption from civil trials while remaining under the jurisdiction of the church (Kirk, 1955). In addition, universities enjoyed a *liberty* that provided certain rights and granted autonomy to the institution (Nisbet, 1997). *Lehrfreiheit*—the freedom to examine evidence and report findings—emerged in the 17th Century, reaching its zenith in Germany in the 19th Century (Hofstadter, 1996; Metzger, 1961). In 20th Century America, *academic freedom* became defined by a professional association and was adjudicated by the courts (Spurgeon, 2007).

Faculty leaders in higher education can also apply leadership theories appropriate for this context within the sphere of independence created by academic freedom. Authentic Leadership—which addresses the alignment of values between leaders and followers and emphasizes the shared creation of leadership between leaders and followers (Northouse, 2012)—is one paradigm that higher education leaders might employ. Another possible leadership theory that might be embraced is Transformational Leadership, which raises the level of commitment and development of leaders and followers (Northouse, 2012). Finally, Servant Leadership, which employs influence through service (Northouse, 2012), is a third paradigm that higher education leaders might adopt.

Conclusion

Academic Freedom is a concept that has changed over time and is still evolving today. Nevertheless, faculty leaders have the opportunity to effect leadership through the exercise of academic freedom. How this occurs, however, is not fully understood. One possibility for research might be to develop a case study illustrating how faculty leadership develops; another might be to develop a grounded theory of how this occurs.

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"Don't Fix What Ain't Broke" Strategic leaders' utilization of entrepreneurial capability

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Introduction

Leadership educators may feel the need to help struggling organizations as fast as they can. This quantitative study was completed to observe all 30 of the National Basketball Association's (NBA) franchises and their senior leadership. Data was collected from transactions made by each organization, almost all of which are the responsibility of the General Manager (GM). Leadership development practices can utilize lessons learned in entrepreneurial capability to empower future strategic leaders in fast-paced environments. Priority 1 of the National Leadership Education Research Agenda states that leadership educators should explore the role of the individual learner. This study addresses the priority by providing a strategy for effective leadership that can be included in leadership training.

Research Objectives

- understand the construct of entrepreneurial capability (EC) and how it is utilized in this *quantitative* research project
- learn strategies used by strategic leaders to obtain assets through the exploitation of current resources
- consider ways to sense and synchronize opportunities within their own organizations
- consider entrepreneurial capability as a means to develop leadership and their ability to make game-changing decisions for their organization

Background

Organizations obtain and maintain their status as industry leaders largely due to the effectiveness of their strategic leadership. The competitive environment is uncertain and often requires new strategies (Hitt & Duane, 2002) Many leaders focus their organizations on developing innovative techniques to be the catalyst for ongoing success (Adner & Kapoor, 2010). One innovative leadership technique is entrepreneurial capability (EC), which encourages the creation of opportunities available outside the current resources (Abdelgawad, Zahra, Svejenova, & Szpienza, 2013).

EC is comprised of an organization's overall capability to sense, select, shape, and synchronize opportunities inside and outside of current resources to gain an advantage (Abdelgawad et al., 2013). That is, leadership must be able to create opportunities outside of its existing reach. EC is not delimited by the utilization of held assets, but rather mandates the potential exploitation of other capital that could be acquired. Leadership educators should recognize the potential of EC as a skill set for leaders to acquire.

Multiple dimensions of EC are used for leaders to institute game-changing ideas in their organizations. For NBA franchises, the General Managers have the wherewithal to use EC to their advantage. They are the leaders that can determine the status of the most key pieces for organizational success—the players and the coaches. These assets can be hired on short or long-term contracts (10 days to 5 years), and waived or traded at almost any point. There were 663 such transactions during the 2012-13 year, an average of over 22 transactions per organization.

Methods and Results

Transaction and performance data was collected from all 30 NBA franchises for the past three seasons. Transactions are publicly reported and consist of trades, signings, waivers, and reassignments. In this exploratory study, each transaction was recorded as an incident of EC (n = 1709), as it enacted each dimension of EC—sensing, selecting, shaping and synchronizing. Of those transactions, those that held future ramifications, e.g., a trade for next year's draft picks or signing a player to a multi-year deal was also specifically categorized as a synchronizing transaction. Synchronization involves a temporal aspect (Abdelgawad et al., 2013) which is of great importance in the marketplace. Performance was calculated by the win/loss record of the team.

Dynamic graphics will be used to showcase the analysis of the data. The results include a significant negative correlation between the winning percentage for the 2010-11 season and the number of transactions made for the 2011-12 season ($r = -.416$, $p = .02$). There was also a significant negative correlation between the number of transactions made during the 2011-12 season and their winning percentage during that year ($r = -.457$, $p = .01$). The same relationship continued through the 2012-13 season, but was not significant. There was also no relationship found between the frequency of synchronized transactions, i.e. those that held ramifications for future seasons, and the team's winning percentage.

Conclusions/Recommendations

This snapshot of EC enacted in a fast-paced environment shows its volatility. Leaders of organizations may use game-changing strategies, but may not experience success. A season of bad performance may not require the acquisition or trade of external resources, especially not in high quantities. The teams that made the most transactions were generally unsuccessful in the current and subsequent year. As leadership educators design trainings to assist the leadership in organizations like NBA franchises, it is important to note that there must be a balance in efforts to develop current assets and utilize EC, rather than resorting to EC after an underperforming period.

Future research could further delineate EC measures taken by leadership during successful seasons. Data could also be collected to capture the utility of each dimension over a larger period of time in an organization. These results could assist leadership educators in developing strategies for teaching EC.

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Lead the Way: Student Veterans' Perceptions of Military and Civilian Leadership

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Introduction

Currently, there are over 21 million veterans across the United States with roughly 1.8 million of those under the age of 35 (U.S. Department of Veterans Affairs, n.d.). Over 200, 000 veterans reside in the state of Mississippi (U.S. Department of Veterans Affairs, n.d.). The multitude of challenges facing veterans who are transitioning back to a civilian can be daunting. One such challenge is adjusting to the differences in leadership structure that veterans will encounter as they enter civilian organizations. The military offers a highly structured leadership doctrine. Leadership in the civilian world is much more broadly defined and far less structured. The purpose of this study is to investigate student veterans' and servicemen's perceptions of leadership in the military and in civilian life.

Background

Challenges facing American's veterans are well documented (Plach & Sells, 2013). Some of our military veterans returning to civilian life encounter more severe challenges than others. In addition, student veterans who return to higher education must overcome unique challenges (Ruman & Hamrick, 2010). Service injuries can compound the barriers student veterans encounter as they strive toward completing a college degree. Veterans' affairs professionals strive to assist and support student veterans, service members, and their families on university campuses across the nation in persisting to the completion of their degree.

Student veterans may perceive differences in the leadership structure espoused by the military and leadership espoused by civilian organizations. The military is a highly structured and regimented organization with well- defined leadership education (Department of the Army, 2012). Civilian organizations ascribe to a variety of leadership beliefs, styles and practices. These differences may present challenges and frustrations to veterans as they transition from military life to civilian life and to service members such as reservists and guardsmen who must perform in both a military and a civilian role.

Therefore, this research seeks to understand student veterans' and service members' perceptions of leadership. Specific questions guiding this research include:

1. How is leadership conceptualized in the military as perceived by student veterans and service members?
2. What are student veterans' and service members' perceptions of leadership in civilian organizations?
3. What specific differences do student veterans and service members encounter in terms of 'leadership' during their transition from military life to civilian life?

Methodology

This study is currently awaiting IRB approval. The proposed research will employ a qualitative methodology. Specifically, this is a case study utilizing student veterans and service members enrolled at *[university]*. Data will be collected using focus groups.

A purposive sample of student veterans and service members will be contacted with the help of the *[student veterans' affairs center at university]*. Merriam (2009) identifies purposive sampling as the most appropriate sampling technique for qualitative case studies. Veteran's affairs staff at the Center will contact potential participants via school email, inform them of the study, and invite them to participate.

All participation will be strictly voluntary. Once a student consents to participate, they will be asked to complete an initial survey collecting basic demographic information. Additionally, students will be asked whether or not they have enrolled in and/or completed a course in leadership at the University. Students will be placed in focus groups based on selected demographic characteristics and availability.

Focus group interviews will be conducted with student veterans and service members who agree to participate. Data from focus groups is socially constructed, meaning participants can respond to the interview question as well as to the information being provided by others in the group (Merriam, 2009). Focus groups will be digitally recorded and notes will be taken by the interviewer and a student assistant. Recordings will be transcribed and data analyzed and coded into themes.

Current Results

This research is scheduled to take place during the spring 2014 semester, pending IRB approval. At the time of abstract submission, no data has been collected. However, several outcomes are anticipated from this study.

It is anticipated that focus groups will reveal instances where student veterans and service members face potential difficulties in transitioning between military and civilian experiences with regard to leadership. These findings will contribute to the knowledge base for student affairs professionals and veterans' affairs professionals as they make programming decisions directed at assisting student veterans and service members on campus. Additionally, this knowledge will contribute to instructors' understanding of the prior leadership knowledge and experience possessed by student veterans and service members who enroll in leadership courses or courses with leadership components across university campuses. It is anticipated that the findings will aid in curriculum development to help student veterans and service members adapt military leadership knowledge and skills as they transition to civilian life.

A final anticipated outcome of this study is the expansion of this line of research to investigate the possibility of engaging student veterans and service members in applied leadership learning within the context of agriculture and eventually within the context of international agriculture and extension education.

Conclusions/Recommendations

The mere proposal of this research has already forged a unique and valuable partnership between the *[student veterans' affairs center]* and the agricultural leadership faculty in the *[department]* at *[university]* to include seeking additional extramural funding to expand the possibilities of this line of research and practical application in serving members of our armed forces and their families. Researchers recommend that leadership educators seek out peers across university campuses as well as outside organizations who possess similar interests in an effort to provide effectively tailored education, outreach and practical application opportunities in the discipline of leadership across a broad range of contexts.

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Leadership Assessments in Student Organizations

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Introduction

Today's universities have a common goal in mind: to prepare students to be leaders in their homes and communities (Holzweiss, Parrott, & Cole, 2013). These goals are achieved in different ways: leadership and ethics courses, internships, and study abroad experiences. However, the majority of students are exposed to leadership through campus organizations and clubs. Student leadership organizations on college campuses provide students with hands-on experience and leadership training.

Student leadership programs are on the rise. "In addition to co-curricular involvement and holding a formal leadership role, literature also focuses on the role of student leadership programs in developing leadership outcomes" (Haber & Komives, 2009, p. 133). Leadership programs have become important elements of higher education institutions as they can increase student satisfaction, retention rates, and even contribute to improved academic success (Kuh, Kinzie, Schuh, & Whitt, 2010). Therefore, many higher education institutions are recognizing the need for organizations that promote leadership development.

The purpose of this study is to analyze organizations that promote leadership development and provide leadership opportunities for students enrolled in the College of Agriculture at a southern land-grant institution. Additionally, the study will analyze the leadership skills and traits exhibited by members in the leadership organizations to develop a student leadership profile.

Research Question:

What are some common characteristics and traits of an agricultural student leader at [university] University?

Objectives:

1. Determine leadership organizations within the College of Agriculture
2. Utilize personality and leadership assessments to categorize traits and characteristics of student leaders

Methodology

Leadership organizations were identified with the College of Agriculture at [university] University by contacting each department head from the eight departments within the college as well as college administrators. A leadership organization was defined as an organization where members were selected through an application process to represent the department to prospective students, alums, and other constituents.

After the leadership organizations were identified, student members were contacted and asked to participate in a student leadership study. Participants were given a three-part assessment packet along containing the StrengthsFinder assessment, Task vs. Relationship assessment, and an Introvert vs. Extrovert assessment. A couple weeks after the initial assessment packet is given, students will be asked to follow a link and take the actual StrengthsQuest assessment to determine their top five strengths. Additionally, participants were asked to fill out a general demographics questionnaire to determine age, gender, major, self reported GPA, and previous leadership experience.

All participants were given a specific code to protect their identification. Once the data was collected, it was recorded in an Excel document. The data was analyzed using means, averages, and percentages. Additionally, comparisons were made by gender and major.

Current Results

After contacting department heads and the college administrators, four organizations were identified including three student departmental representative groups (Student REPS) and one college ambassador group (Ambassadors). The four groups have a total of 35 student members without any duplicate memberships among the groups. Student leaders tended to be extraverted females with a tendency to demonstrate relationship orientation. There was not a consistent result with the StrenghtsQuest assessment. However, this could be due to a variety of reasons including a small population and the 34 different strengths identified in the StrengthsQuest assessment.

Conclusions/Recommendations

This study did not yield a consistent profile for a student leader in the College of Agriculture at [university] University. However, leadership studies consistently demonstrate there is no one single formula for leadership (Northouse, 2013). However, the study did demonstrate that there were extraverted females in the leadership organizations. Therefore, further research could be conducted to determine why this is the phenomenon. Is it something about the application process, such as the interview portion that is more attractive to the extraverted personality? Is this personality always the best fit for the organizational duties (i.e., recruiting, working with alumni, promoting the department/college)? Future studies could also be conducted about how to develop recruitment strategies for new students leaders.

Additional recommendations would be for the College of Agriculture at [university] University to consider creating additional student leadership organizations, especially the five departments, which currently do not have a leadership organization. This would provide additional leadership training and experience for students in the College of Agriculture. Additionally, this study should be duplicated on a much broader scale at other agricultural colleges. This would allow researchers to generate a student leadership profile.

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Understanding Opinion Leaders of Agricultural Cooperatives: Examining the Role of Leadership in Global Food Security

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Introduction/need for research

Agricultural cooperatives are self-governing associations of persons connected to address individual economic, social, and cultural desires through a mutually owned democratic enterprise (Ortmann & King, 2007). According to the study performed by Wollni and Zeller (2007, p. 245), suggested that "values of farmer size suggest that the policy of free and voluntary membership does impose a cost. This problem may lead cooperatives to discriminate against the smallest farmers when trying to realize scale economies in production." Member activity and loyalty is crucial to a cooperative's success, the larger the cooperative the more successful it is, as in the opposite direction, the smaller the farmer, the less cooperatives are available, which causes less benefits in the long run. The policy of voluntary membership, for example, could be bolstered by having a special section within the cooperatives to address the specific challenges of serving the smallest of farmers (Wollni & Zeller, 2007, p.245). Opinion leadership is the extent an individual is able to influence others beliefs or actions in a preferred manner (Rogers, 2003).

Methodology

This was a descriptive study of eleven (N = 11) local farmers in [community] that were identified as opinion leaders by their peers. A qualitative research design using semi-structured interviews was the research paradigm. The researcher utilized field notes and camera recordings, and all interviews were performed face-to-face. The goal of this approach was to perform an ongoing data analysis throughout the study. Within this data analysis, results were constantly compared. Fraenkel et al. (2012) indicated the constant comparative method was one that is "a continual interplay between the researcher, his or her data, and the theory that is being developed" (p.220). Purposive sampling was used for the study, in order to meet the research objectives. Six (n = 6) of the eleven (N = 11) farmers in the study produced different crops, utilized different solutions for crop management, and marketed each product differently. The results should not be generalized to the population due to the qualitative nature of this study. However, the results do provide useful information for impacts of farmer cooperatives.

Results/findings

Emerging from each interview, key findings were reported. The results were classified in conjunction with the objectives of the study. Findings are described from R1 (Respondent 1) to R11 (Respondent 11). The first objective of this study was to initiate the need of cooperatives for farmers in the community. Seven (n = 7) of the eleven farmers revealed strong emotions towards assistance to farmers through cooperatives. One participant (R1) stated, "[community] has a need for cooperatives within local farmers; however the education and organization of such were not available." "The need for education, communication and organization is the lacking", R11 added.

The second objective of this study was to evaluate practices, techniques and products of small farmers in the community. Six (n = 6) of the eleven farmers exercised the use of a "middleman" as a way to sale their crop without having to actually go to the market. Even though this might have saved each farmer expenses in exchange for hauling his commodity, the buyer bought the cassava root for a dollar less than the buyer would take to the market and sale for a dollar higher.

Another participant (R6) only used his crops for personal use, not for sale. R10 stated, "This is my side job, and if it was for full-time of course I would do some things differently since we do not have a cooperative." Although, farming is more of a way of life and providing for his family, he still spoke extremely high of the need of a cooperative and the communication it serves to the people.

Implications/recommendations/ impact on profession

Results from this study derived initially from Wollni and Zellers' (2007) study establishing benefits towards cooperatives. Most participants established the need for education, organization, and marketing; but had no knowledge of how to reach their need. Results from this study prove an establishment of local cooperatives is a solution to achieving the need for education, marketing and organization as a community. Identified leaders of cooperatives have unique positions to influence large numbers of farmers to join cooperatives with the intent of addressing food security in respective communities and improving individual income. Additionally, the integration of smaller producers into cooperatives will enhance access to production practices and extended markets. This should lead to higher yields which will in turn provide more food to feed the world. As our world approaches 9 billion, we must look to unique ways to combat food security.

Further research is needed to examine how to establish cooperatives at the most efficient route. [University] can offer much assistance with the education portion of their need, which in turn strengthens the farmers marketing techniques, organizational skills, and establishing a trustworthy relationship. Universities are in a unique position to assist farmers in developing cooperatives to expand a customer base and to potentially get more food to citizens. This facet may strengthen ties between leaders, stakeholders and the public institutions they support. The organization of a cooperative opens opportunities through ownership to maximize profit for each individual within rather than just for the market itself.

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Exploring Leadership Skill Development and the Related Curricular Experiences in a Year-Long Leadership Development Program

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Abstract

The purpose of this research was to identify leadership skill development among students enrolled in a year-long leadership development program, and to provide curricular experiences related to the areas of leadership skill development. Curricular experiences related to the top five leadership skill areas developed are discussed.

Introduction & Conceptual Framework

In the search for a competitive advantage among organizations, business and industry, many entities have found leadership among their employees as the solution (Day, 2001; McCall, 1998; McCaughley, 2008; Vicere & Fulmer, 1998). Many of these entities are now actively searching for employees with a developed leadership skill set (McCaughley, 2008). The higher education experience has been identified as an optimal time for developing these coveted leadership skills (Astin & Astin, 2000). One of the primary areas of focus for leadership research is on identifying the most effective methods for developing leadership skills at the post-secondary level (Andenoro et al., 2013).

In order to identify effective methods for developing leadership skills, researchers must connect experiences and leadership skill development. Aligning experiences with leadership skills has been a gap identified by a variety of researchers in the leadership education literature (Allen & Hartman, 2009; Day, 2001; Goertzen, 2009; Jenkins, 2012; Morgan, King, & Rudd, 2013). In order to begin to bridge the gap between pedagogy and skill development, we must build our understanding of both concepts.

A number of researchers have studied different pedagogical techniques used in leadership classrooms (Albert & Vadla, 2009; Allen & Hartman, 2009; Conger, 1992; Day, 2001; Eich, 2008; Jenkins, 2012; Zimmerman-Oster & Burkhardt, 1999). Synthesis of this literature reveals four consistent strategies used to engage students in leadership development; the first of these strategies is experiential learning (Allen & Hartman, 2009; Daloz-Parks, 2005; Day, 2001; Eich, 2008). Experiential learning refers to the process of engaging in an activity, reflecting on your engagement, developing new ideas and implementing those new ideas (Kolb, 1984).

The second pedagogical strategy that emerged from these research studies is the use of assessment (Allen & Hartman, 2009; Day, 2001; Zimmerman-Oster & Burkhardt, 2009). The goal with assessment in leadership development programs is to develop self-awareness of strengths and weaknesses among participants (Allen & Hartman, 2009). Placing students with mentors was also identified as one of the four strategies commonly used in leadership development programs (Allen & Hartman, 2009; Day, 2001; Zimmerman-Oster & Burkhardt, 2009). The mentoring relationship offers students an opportunity to learn from someone who typically has more leadership experience, as well as to gain valuable feedback on leadership development. The final consistent strategy identified by this research is the use of reflection (Allen & Hartman, 2009; Jenkins, 2012; Zimmerman-Oster & Burkhardt, 2009). Reflection offers students an opportunity to review their experiences and learn from their own involvement (Allen & Hartman, 2009).

The pedagogical approach employed by the leadership instructor is also a critical component to the skill development of students (Allen & Hartman, 2009; Jenkins, 2012). The pedagogical approaches used in leadership education have been broken down into four categories: personal growth, conceptual understanding, feedback and skill building (Conger, 1992). Personal growth, as an approach to leadership development, was built on the idea that leaders are those individuals who “are deeply in touch with their personal dreams and talents and who will act to fulfill them" (Conger, 1992, p. 45-46). Furthermore, it can be asserted that in order to commit to the development and progress of others, you must first commit to your own personal development and progress. Conger's second approach to leadership development was conceptual understanding. Conceptual understanding refers to the intake of new information pertaining to leadership, including but not limited to, learning new leadership theories and models. Feedback, the third approach identified by Conger, is the process in which an individual learns their strengths and weaknesses as a leader. It can be reasoned that a leader who knows his or her own strengths and weakness will be more confident in their role as a leader and more prepared to continue their development as a leader. Conger's fourth approach was skill building, a necessary component to any complete leadership development program. Skill building refers to the process in which individuals develop skills to be used in different leadership contexts (Conger, 1992).

In addition to the development of leadership skills, the assessment of these skills is a critical component to the continual development of the leadership education discipline (Brungardt & Crawford, 1996). A variety of research studies have addressed the concept of leadership skill assessment (Blackwell, Cummins, Townsend, & Cummings, 2007; Brungardt & Crawford, 1996; Goertzen, 2009; Rosch & Carza, 2012; Rosch & Schwartz, 2009; Williams, Townsend, & Linder, 2005). Some studies have focused on the methods of assessing leadership skills (Goertzen, 2009; Rosch & Schwartz, 2009) while others have focused the assessment of leadership programs (Blackwell et al., 2007; Rosch & Carza, 2012; Williams et al., 2005).

Previous assessments of programmatic effectiveness towards the development of leadership skills have identified successful outcomes among participants (Blackwell et al., 2007; Rosch & Carza, 2012; Williams et al., 2005). Examples of these positive outcomes include: increases in leadership capacity (Rosch & Carza, 2012); leadership skill development (Blackwell et al., 2007) and self-perceived leadership knowledge (Williams et al., 2005). These studies provide evidence that leadership programs at the college level can be an effective tool in the development of leadership skills.

One potential method for the assessment of leadership skills with little exploration in the leadership discipline is a needs assessment. A needs assessment identifies individual's perceived needs by measuring the discrepancy between perceived importance and perceived competence of a skill (Borich, 1980). Borich's model for assessing the needs of individuals was initially intended for the development of teacher training programs. Utilizing this method in the leadership develop discipline has the potential to improve the ability of leadership programs to identify the needs of students engaged in a program as well as assess the development of leadership skills by measuring the change in perceived need once the program is completed.

The conceptual model (Figure 1) for this study outlines to proposed process for linking curriculum and leadership skill assessment, using a leadership needs assessment model (Borich, 1980).

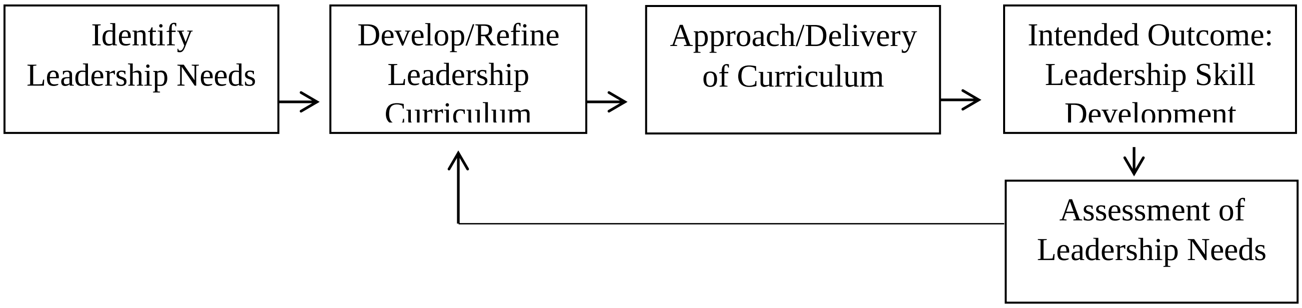

Figure 1. Conceptual model of the relationship between leadership curriculum and leadership needs assessment.

Research Purpose & Questions

The purpose of this research was to provide evidence of leadership skill development through a year-long leadership development program, as well as to provide a potential link between the leadership skills developed and the curricular approaches utilized through the experience. By completing this study, researchers' seek to provide evidence for the effectiveness of certain leadership development experiences as well as provide legitimacy for the use of a leadership needs assessment as a tool for assessing leadership skill development. This line of inquiry is supported by the Association of Leadership Educators Research Agenda Priority Area 1: Teaching, Learning and Curriculum Development, which recommends the exploration of curriculum development frameworks to enhance the leadership education transfer of learning (Andenoro et al., 2013). The development and execution of this research project was guided by the following research questions:

1. What are the perceived leadership needs of students when they enter a leadership development program?
2. What are the perceived leadership needs of students when they complete a leadership development program?
3. How do the perceived leadership needs of students change during a leadership development program?
4. What experiences did students participate in, through the leadership development program, focused on developing their leadership needs?

Research Methods

The population utilized in this research study was a cohort (N = 11) of students enrolled in a year-long leadership development program at a large northwest university. The leadership development program was housed in the College of Agricultural Sciences and was available to students enrolled in the College of Agriculture, College of Forestry and College of Earth, Ocean and Atmospheric Sciences. Students enrolled in the program ranged from sophomore to senior standing. Students completed an application and interview and were selected based on their potential for leadership development. The program consists of a two hour, structured class time (meeting once a week), pairing a student with a faculty mentor, and community and campus experiences.

Leadership needs and skill development were assessed using a leadership needs assessment. The authors modified and adapted a leadership self-assessment instrument (Ayers, 2010), which was intended to assess 13 different leadership constructs clustered within four key domains of leadership development including personal, interpersonal, group & organizational and community development. This 88 question instrument was modified to solicit student perceptions of importance and competence in 13 key areas: (*personal domain*) understands leadership, awareness of self, practices ethical behavior, sustains leadership, (*interpersonal domain)* values diversity, enhances communication skills, manages conflict, (*group and organizational domain)* develops teams, leads change, manages projects, (*community leadership domain*) practices citizenship, understands community complexity, and committed to serving others. In each of the thirteen areas of leadership, a mean weighted discrepancy score (MWDS) was calculated. MWDSs were calculated by determining the discrepancy between the perceived importance and competence of each item in the construct, that discrepancy is then multiplied by the importance mean and divided by the number of observations (Borich, 1980).

$$\frac{\sum [(\text{Importance - Ability}) * \text{Importance Mean}]}{\text{Number of Observations}} = \text{MWDS}$$

Each area of interest is then ranked based on the MWDS with larger MWDS indicating a higher level of need. A pilot test of the revised instrument revealed reliabilities, using Cronbach's alphas, on the four domains ranging from $\alpha = .89$ to $\alpha = .96$.

The first round of data collection was administered prior to student engagement in the leadership development program (Fall of 2012). The final assessment of leadership needs was administered by researchers one week after the completion of the leadership development program (Spring of 2013). On average students took approximately 15 minutes to complete the assessment. Data for both the first and final assessment were collected by researchers and analyzed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 20. In addition to the needs assessment, researchers administered a survey to the three faculty members of the program. Faculty members were asked to identify, for each of the seminars and experiences in the program, the two leadership need areas that were met by the objectives of that experience. This data was utilized to answer research objective number four "What experiences did students participate in, through the leadership development program, focused on developing their leadership needs?"

The leadership research pitfalls identified by Rosch and Schwartz (2009) were addressed by the researchers. The honeymoon effect, participants exaggerating the effects of a program right after its completion, was addressed by allowing a one week gap between program completion and the final assessment of leadership needs. The horizon effect, participants not adequately knowing their skills in a given area until they have gone through sufficient training in that area, was weakened by students involved in the program having adequate leadership experiences prior to the first assessment. Those previous experiences may have led students to a better understanding of their leadership skills prior to assessment. The Hollywood effect, participants ranking themselves strong in areas they feel they need to be strong in to be a leader, was potentially weakened by the needs assessment addressing the importance as well as competence in each skill. Therefore, if students felt the skill was important they could address that separate from their competence. The halo effect, the thought that outside observers feel that if a participant is good at one skill they are good at all skills, was addressed by using a self-assessment and students having adequate leadership experiences to understand the different concepts addressed by the instrument. Finally, the hallmark effect, individuals with little self-confidence will often score themselves lower in many areas, was potentially weakened by the motivation and self-confidence required for students to apply for a year-long leadership development program.

Findings

For each of the 88 questions, respondents' indicated a perceived importance and perceived competence scaled from 1 "Not at all Important/Competent" to 6 "Extremely Important/Competent." Once data were collected, the 88 questions were split to develop the 13 leadership constructs measured by the leadership needs assessment. Average scores for each of the participants were calculated and mean importance and competence scores are reported in Table 1.

In order to answer research question number 1: "What are the perceived leadership needs of students when they enter the leadership development program?" MWDSs were calculated for each of the 13 constructs, first for each individual and then an average for the cohort, summated averages are reported. The MWDSs are ranked from 1 to 13, a higher MWDS indicates a higher perceived need, therefore the leadership areas with the lower rank indicate a higher perceived need among the cohort of leadership development students (Table 1).

Overall students felt that the 13 leadership skills were very important. Students perceived ethical behavior (μ = 5.60), managing projects (μ = 5.42) and developing teams (μ = 5.40) as the most important leadership areas assessed. Alternatively, students perceived practicing citizenship (μ = 5.00), understanding community (μ = 5.03) and awareness of self (μ = 5.14) as the least important leadership skills assessed. Students perceived a higher level of importance than competence in each of the 13 leadership skill areas. The highest level of competence before the leadership development program was perceived in the areas of ethical behavior (μ = 4.78), valuing diversity (μ = 4.50) and sustaining leadership (μ = 4.39). The areas of lowest perceived competence among students were in practicing citizenship (μ = 3.70), managing conflict (μ = 4.05), and understanding community (μ = 4.13).

Table 1

Perceived Importance, Competence, MWDS and Rank of the 13 Leadership Areas Perceived by Students before Engagement in the Leadership Development Program

Leadership Area	Perceived Importance[1]	Perceived Competence[2]	MWDS[3]	Rank
Awareness of Self	5.14	4.40	3.84	13
Commitment to Serving	5.27	4.18	5.76	3
Developing Teams	5.40	4.36	5.62	5
Enhancing Communication	5.18	4.14	5.42	6
Ethical Behavior	5.60	4.78	4.58	9
Leading Change	5.24	4.36	4.57	10
Managing Conflict	5.16	4.05	5.72	4
Managing Projects	5.42	4.32	5.96	2

Practicing Citizenship	5.00	3.70	6.50	1
Sustaining Leadership	5.39	4.39	5.39	7
Understanding Community	5.03	4.13	4.53	11
Understanding Leadership	5.22	4.32	4.70	8
Valuing Diversity	5.27	4.50	4.07	12

[1]Items scaled from 1 "Not at All Important" to 6 "Extremely Important"

[2]Items scaled from 1 "Not at All Competent" to 6 "Extremely Competent"

[3]Mean Weighted Discrepancy Score, higher score indicates a higher perceived need.

The MWDS scores (Table 1) indicate that students perceived the largest need in the areas of practicing citizenship (MWDS = 6.50), managing projects (MWDS = 5.96) and commitment to serving (MWDS = 5.76). A higher MWDS identifies that these students valued these components of leadership as important, but felt relatively low in their competence towards these leadership components. Alternatively, a smaller MWDS identifies areas in which the gap between perceived importance and competence was smaller. The areas of lowest perceived need, measured before involvement in the leadership development program, were: awareness of self (MWDS = 3.84), valuing diversity (MWDS = 4.07) and understanding community (MWDS = 4.53).

Students completed the leadership needs assessment again, a week after completion of the program. This data was used to answer research question number 2: "What are the perceived leadership needs of students when they complete the leadership development program?" Importance and competence scores were first calculated for each student and then combined to develop an average importance and competence for each of the 13 leadership areas assessed. MWDSs were calculated first for each student and then an average MWDS was calculated for the entire cohort (Table 3).

Table 2

Perceived Importance, Competence, MWDS and Rank of 13 Leadership Areas Perceived by Students after Engagement in the Leadership Development Program

Leadership Area	Perceived Importance[1]	Perceived Competence[2]	MWDS[3]	Rank
Awareness of Self	5.25	4.56	3.63	6
Commitment to Serving	5.15	4.35	3.99	5
Developing Teams	5.19	4.66	2.76	12
Enhancing Communication	5.31	4.54	4.10	4
Ethical Behavior	5.55	4.99	3.08	9

Leading Change	5.17	4.65	2.66	13
Managing Conflict	5.22	4.25	5.03	1
Managing Projects	5.25	4.59	3.44	7
Practicing Citizenship	5.00	4.30	4.25	3
Sustaining Leadership	5.36	4.82	2.92	11
Understanding Community	5.08	4.22	4.57	2
Understanding Leadership	5.27	4.69	3.07	10
Valuing Diversity	5.41	4.80	3.32	8

[1]Items scaled from 1 "Not at All Important" to 6 "Extremely Important"

[2]Items scaled from 1 "Not at All Competent" to 6 "Extremely Competent"

[3]Mean Weighted Discrepancy Score, higher score indicates a higher perceived need.

On average, students perceived the 13 leadership constructs to be very important after completion of the leadership development program. Areas perceived as the most important were ethical behavior (μ = 5.55), valuing diversity (μ = 5.41) and sustaining leadership (μ = 5.36). Ethical behavior remained the most important perceived leadership area from prior to the start of the leadership development experience to the completion of the experience. The areas perceived as the least important were practicing citizenship (μ = 5.00), understanding community (μ = 5.08) and commitment to serving (μ = 5.15). As was the case in the assessment before participation in the leadership development experience, practicing citizenship and understanding community were identified as the least important leadership concepts.

After completion of the leadership development program, students' perception of their competence in the 13 areas of leadership remained lower than their perception of the importance. The areas students perceived the most competence in after the completion of the program were ethical behavior (μ = 4.99), sustaining leadership (μ = 4.82) and valuing diversity (μ = 4.80). These three concepts remained the three areas of highest competence from the assessment prior to the leadership development program. The areas students perceived the least amount of competence in at the completion of the program were in the areas of understanding community (μ = 4.22), managing conflict (μ = 4.25) and practicing citizenship (μ = 4.30). Again, these areas remained as the areas of lowest perceived competence from the assessment prior to the program.

The MWDS scores, after the completion of the program, indicate that students perceived the highest need in the areas of managing conflict (μ = 5.03), understanding community (μ = 4.57) and practicing citizenship (μ = 4.25). Alternatively, students perceived the lowest amount of need in the leadership areas of leading change (μ = 2.66), developing teams (μ = 2.76) and sustaining leadership (μ = 2.92).

Pre and post experience MWDSs were then compared using a paired sample *t*-test to answer research question number 3: "How do the perceived leadership needs of students change during a leadership development program?" A decrease in the MWDS would indicate students perceived less need in that leadership area at the completion of the program than they did before the start of the program. Researchers suggest that a decrease in the perceived need of a leadership area would indicate successful development of that leadership area. Due to the limited number of respondents, an effect size (Cohen's *d*) is reported to present a more realistic interpretation of the data compared to *p*-values, which are limited when dealing with small populations and/or samples. The criteria used to describe the effect sizes are: small effect = .20 to .49; medium effect = .50 to .79; and large effect = .80 and up (Cohen, 1988).

Students' perception of their needs in 12 of the 13 leadership areas decreased, the only area in which perceived need increased was in understanding community, but the effect was negligible (Cohen's *d* = .01; Cohen, 1988). The most substantial effect was seen in the areas of developing teams (Cohen's *d* = 1.32), indicating that the leadership development experience related to a large effect in students' perceived need in the area of developing teams. Large effects were also seen in managing projects (Cohen's *d* = 1.00) and understanding leadership (Cohen's *d* = .87). Medium effects (Cohen, 1988) were observed in the areas of leading change (Cohen's *d* = .75), enhancing communication (Cohen's *d* = .69), sustaining leadership (Cohen's *d* = .61), ethical behavior (Cohen's *d* = .59), and commitment to serving (Cohen's *d* = .54). Small effect sizes (Cohen, 1988) were identified in the areas of practicing citizenship (Cohen's *d* = .49), valuing diversity (Cohen's *d* = .22) and managing conflict (Cohen's *d* = .20). A negligible effect was observed in the area of awareness of self (Cohen's *d* = .09).

Table 3

Comparing Mean Weighted Discrepancy Scores Before and After the Leadership Development Program

	MWDS[1]					
Leadership Area	Pre Test	Post Test	ΔMWDS	*t*-value	*p*-value	Effect size (Cohen's *d*)
Awareness of Self	3.84	3.63	0.21	.241	.814	.09
Commitment to Serving	5.76	3.99	1.77	1.31	.221	.54
Developing Teams	5.62	2.76	2.86	3.31	.008	1.32
Enhancing Communication	5.42	4.10	1.32	1.87	.090	.69
Ethical Behavior	4.58	3.08	1.50	2.18	.054	.59
Leading Change	4.57	2.66	1.91	1.69	.122	.75
Managing Conflict	5.72	5.03	0.69	.60	.564	.20
Managing Projects	5.96	3.44	2.52	3.74	.004	1.00
Practicing Citizenship	6.50	4.25	2.25	1.42	.191	.49
Sustaining Leadership	5.39	2.92	2.47	1.48	.171	.61

Understanding Community	4.53	4.57	-0.04	-.03	.980	.01
Understanding Leadership	4.70	3.07	1.63	2.34	.041	.87
Valuing Diversity	4.07	3.32	0.75	.55	.592	.22

[1]Mean Weighted Discrepancy Score, higher score indicates a higher perceived need.

The final research question "What experiences did students participate in, through the leadership development program, focused on developing their leadership needs?" sought to provide information into the experiences faculty of this leadership development program unanimously identified as targeting the top five leadership skill areas developed over the course of leadership development experience (Table 4). These five leadership skill areas were identified based on the largest change in perceived leadership need before and after the leadership development experience and included: developing teams (ΔMWDS = 2.86), managing projects (ΔMWDS = 2.52), sustaining leadership (ΔMWDS = 1.48), practicing citizenship (ΔMWDS = 1.42), and leading change (ΔMWDS = 1.91).

Table 4

Identifying Leadership Development Experiences Utilized to Develop the Top Five Leadership Skill Areas

Leadership Area	Experiences[1]
Developing Teams	Students had two seminars focused on developing teams. One of these seminars challenged students to complete a team project using only email, another focused on agenda development and strategies for effectively running team meetings. Additionally, throughout one term students were required to meet with peers in the program as "advisory boards" for each other.
Managing Projects	Students had two seminars focused on managing projects. The first of these seminars included a guest speaker talking about methods for starting a project from scratch, the second seminar introduced students to three methods for identifying and analyzing problems. Additionally, students were required to complete a personal development plan (PDP) at the beginning of the experience. The PDP had students identify three to five personal development goals and three to five methods for achieving those goals while enrolled in the program. Throughout the term students reflected on their progress on their PDP.
Sustaining Leadership	While enrolled in the program, students were required to meet with a faculty mentor for one to two hours per month; many students reported exceeding the required time. Additionally, one seminar consisted of a *giving back panel* in which donors to the university could share their experiences as leaders at different phases of their lives as well as the importance of giving back.
Practicing Citizenship	Students were required to volunteer three hours a week at a community organization for two of the three terms they were involved in the program. Throughout the year students reflected on the positive impact of their volunteering.

Leading Change	Students read and discussed the book *Leading Change* (Kotter, 1996). Additionally, students were required to implement one small change within their volunteer organization using the process outlined in the book *Leading Change*.

[1]Only those experiences that all three faculty members identified as meeting the leadership area are identified.

Conclusions & Recommendations

With employers seeking employees who exhibit technical and leadership skills (Day, 2001; McCall; 1998; McCaughley, 2008; Vicere & Fulmer, 1998), the development of leadership among college students is an important consideration for all colleges and universities (Astin & Astin, 2000). Colleges and universities have responded, with an increased focus on leadership development through a variety of experiences. Yet, a dearth of research exists exploring the links between leadership skills and curricular experiences. Identification of curricular experiences that consistently relate to leadership development among college students has the potential to greatly increase the effectiveness of leadership education programs. This study sought to identify leadership skill development among students enrolled in a year-long leadership development program using a leadership needs assessment. Additionally, this study sought to provide evidence of potential links between leadership skill development and curricular experiences utilized in a year-long leadership development program.

Researchers calculated mean weighted discrepancy scores (MWDSs) for all participants at the beginning and end of a leadership development program. Researchers identified significant drops in 12 of the 13 MWDSs from the beginning to the conclusion of the leadership development program, indicating increased leadership skill development. Due to the methods of this study, researchers cannot definitively attribute the change in leadership needs to participation in the leadership development program. Researchers acknowledge that development of leadership skills could be a product of maturity or experiences outside of the leadership development program. However, the evidence provided in this study suggests a relationship between involvement in the leadership development program and the development of leadership skills. Future studies should consider the use of control groups, not involved in the leadership development program, when analyzing the leadership development of students; this may provide more concrete evidence of a relationship between leadership skill development and involvement in a leadership development program.

In addition to identifying the changes in leadership needs among students enrolled in this program, researchers sought to identify curricular experiences related to specific leadership skills. Researchers administered a survey to the three program faculty members, requesting their perception of the curricular experiences relating to each of the thirteen leadership skill areas. Those curricular experiences the faculty unanimously agreed on were included in the findings of this study. Additionally, only experiences related to the leadership skills areas with the highest change in leadership need area were discussed. The variety of curricular experiences utilized to develop these leadership skills represent pedagogical techniques corroborated by research, including experiential learning through community involvement (Allen & Hartman, 2009; Daloz-Parks, 2005; Day, 2001; Eich, 2008); mentoring (Allen & Hartman, 2009; Day, 2001; Zimmerman-Oster & Burkhardt, 2009); and reflection, specifically reflecting on community involvement experiences, personal development plan progress and readings (Allen & Hartman, 2009; Jenkins, 2012; Zimmerman-Oster & Burkhardt, 2009). Therefore, researchers recommend the consideration of these experiences when designing leadership development experiences.

The need for definitive research linking curricular experiences to leadership skill development exists. This study provided a unique protocol for exploring potential links between experiences and skill development.

However, due to the limited population, the generalizability of these findings is limited. Therefore, future studies should consider the expansion of this methodology across leadership development programs to provide additional evidence of curricular experiences relating to leadership skill development among college students.

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Reflections of Follower Development in Relation to the Student Teaching Experience

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Abstract

The student teaching experience is an experiential learning program allowing student teachers to practice their teaching methods and gain confidence as a professional. It is also an important tool in helping prepare and promote graduates to enter the teaching profession after graduation. The purpose of this qualitative research study was to investigate the development of student teachers in a follower situation and their intent to teach after completion of the student teaching experience. Student teachers recognized their own development through the experience and the importance of having a positive relationship with their cooperating teacher (leader) to help ensure success. The intent to teach of most student teachers in this study was decided prior to the experience, but several mentioned that the intent became more set due to the experience. Future research should continue to find methods and experiences to encourage agricultural education students to enter the profession at the completion of their student teaching experience.

Introduction

New teachers are needed to replace those leaving for other jobs or retiring, and to fill the additional classrooms caused by increasing student enrollment (Ingersoll, 2003). Young and Edwards (2005) asked the following question: "Is there a more important component of the preservice professional development of aspiring agriculture teachers than the student teaching experience?" (p. 170). The student teaching experience is crucial in the development of both skill and efficacy of the teacher in training and "serves as the culmination of the teacher education process" (Norris, Larke, & Briers, 1990, p. 58). This experience allows student teachers the opportunity to observe first-hand the challenges and benefits of being a full-time agricultural education teacher while developing their skills and competencies which will enable them to be successful after graduation when they start their full-time teaching career.

"There are significant parallels between teacher-student and leader-follower relationships" (Densten & Gray, p. 70). When viewing the student teaching experience the cooperating teacher is the leader and the student teacher is the follower. Followers can vary in their behavior in any leadership situation and can be classified based on the level of follower thinking and follower engagement (Kelley, 1992). Densten and Gray state, "Leaders need to understand the behavior of their followers in order to select the most appropriate leadership behaviors to facilitate follower learning" (p. 70).

The student teaching experience is an example of an experiential learning program. Kolb (1974) developed the Experiential Learning Model (ELM) which includes two routes for individuals to apply in order to better understand their own learning experience. The two routes include how they perceive and interpret their own experiences (Densten & Gray, 2001).

Hollander's (1978) interactional framework presents leadership at the intersection of three components; leader, followers, and the situation. There is a need to view leadership from all three viewpoints in order to better understand the entire leadership scenario (Densten & Gray, 2001). Improving the student teaching semester in an effort to increase the number of graduates who accept teaching positions was recommended by Norris, Larke, and Briers (1990). The first step to improving the experience is to gain a better understanding of what is currently happening from the perspective of those directly involved. It is essential to begin this investigation with the most crucial group, the student teachers.

Literature Review

Student teaching consists of the period of time college students spend working in a secondary school learning the intricacies of teaching by gradually taking over the responsibilities of teaching from a cooperating teacher (Borne & Moss, 1990). The student teaching semester has been an important component of the teacher preparation process for many years and is designed to help develop professional competence and confidence as a teacher (Schumann, 1969).

The characteristics of student teaching requirements in agriculture were investigated by Deeds (1993). Student teachers were expected to participate in "all areas of a well-rounded agricultural education program including planning for instruction, participation in FFA activities, supervised agricultural experience program supervision and planning and participation in school and community activities" (Deeds, 1993, p. 233).

Student teachers sense of teaching efficacy has been researched in its relation to the student teaching semester (Knobloch, 2006; Roberts, Harlin, & Ricketts, 2006). A change in teaching efficacy was not indicated by the participants in Knobloch's (2006) study. He implied that the student teachers may have already been "efficacious about teaching before they started their student teaching experiences" (p. 45). Also, "student teachers who perceived their teaching as positive experiences were more efficacious" (p. 42). Roberts, Harlin and Ricketts (2006) reported a change in teaching efficacy over the course of the student teaching experience by starting out high, dipping about half-way through, then recovering at the end of the semester.

Researchers in the profession of Agricultural Education have often noted the importance of the relationship between the cooperating teacher and the student teacher in terms of a successful experience (Borne & Moss, 1990; Edgar, Roberts, and Murphy, 2011; Edwards & Briers, 2001; Harlin, Edwards, & Briers, 2002; Young & Edwards, 2005). Edgar, Roberts, and Murphy (2011) were specifically interested in "the effects of implementing structured communication on teaching efficacy and on the relationship between the student teacher and cooperating teacher during the student teaching experience" (p. 12). They reported there was no effect of using structured communication on the relationship level held.

A student teacher's decision to teach is influenced by many factors. The actual intent to teach has been investigated in relation to student teachers characteristics, participation in FFA and school-based agricultural education, and agriculture background (Edwards & Briers, 2001; Kasperbauer & Roberts, 2007b; Roberts et al., 2009).

The impact of the student teaching semester on the decision to enter the teaching profession has been previously investigated (Kasperbauer and Roberts, 2007a; Roberts et al., 2009). Research conducted by Kasperbauer and Roberts (2007a) concluded the student teacher-cooperating teacher relationship is important to student teachers participating in student teaching, but "a bad relationship may not affect their decision to enter teaching" (p. 17). Roberts et al. (2009) evaluated the change in a student teacher's intent to teach over the course of the student teaching experience. The majority of student teachers began and ended the student teaching experience intending to teach.

Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework for this qualitative study was the follower development component of the Situational Leadership® II Model (Blanchard, Zigarmi, & Zigarmi, 1985) (Figure 1). This model was based on the situational leadership theory which states as followers grow or regress, the leader should change their leadership style to meet the developmental needs of each follower (Northouse, 2010). The follower component of the model illustrates the growth of a follower by moving from a D1 (low development) to a D4 (high development) as their level of commitment and competence, on a specific task, increases. The model takes into consideration that development will vary due to the competence and commitment of the follower on any given task. The end goal is to have followers who are highly competent and highly committed to the task (i.e. teaching high school agriculture).

*Figure 2.*Follower Development Component of the Situational Leadership II® Model.
(Graphic from http://elmundopequeno.wordpress.com/2010/10/03/situational-leadership)

Purpose and Objectives

The student teaching experience is a complex experiential learning experience requiring leadership and followership skills. The *National Leadership Education research agenda 2013-2018: Providing strategic direction for the field of leadership education* (Andenoro et al., 2013) recognized the need to examine leadership situations and the many influences impacting each situation with Priority Area 4 "Sociological Development of Leaders, Followers, and Learners" (p. 16). The purpose of this study was to qualitatively investigate the student teaching experience from the follower's perspective and the impact the experience has on their competence and intent to teach (commitment).

The research objectives were:

1. Describe the development of the student teacher during the student teaching experience.
2. Evaluate the cooperating teacher-student teacher relationship.
3. Describe student teachers' intent to teach (commitment).

Methodology

Qualitative methodologies were used to research the stated objectives. The use of qualitative methods enable the researcher to obtain a clearer and more detailed picture of a phenomenon than is possible with quantitative design methods alone (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2007).

Purposive sampling was used to select the participants for this study. "In purposeful sampling the goal is to select cases that are likely to be 'information rich' with respect to the purposes of the study" (Gall, Gall & Borg, 2007, p. 178). Students completing the student teaching experience at [university] during the spring 2012 semester were purposefully selected to participate. All of the student teachers (N = 8) agreed to an interview by granting permission on an instrument they completed at the conclusion of the student teaching semester.

The eight student teachers consisted of two males and six females, ranging in age from 21 to 25. The student teachers completed their student teaching experience in programs ranging from 50 to 160 students and the majority had two agriculture teachers in the program. Five of the student teachers were finishing their undergraduate degree in agricultural education, while the remaining three were completing their teacher certification requirements in a post-baccalaureate program.

Prior to data collection, approval for the use of human subjects was obtained from the [university] Institutional Review Board. Student teachers were interviewed using semi-structured interviews (N = 8). They were asked questions pertaining to how their cooperating teacher supervised them during their student teaching experience. Questions were written in order to examine the Situational Leadership II Model and their intent to teach. Student teachers were asked to examine how they were assisted, by their cooperating teacher, in developing over the course of the semester. The competence was self-assessed and the commitment level was evaluated by asking student teachers' their intent to teach agriculture. Student teachers were interviewed in person or over the phone depending on their location over a period of two weeks at the end of May 2012. All interviews were audio-recorded and lasted approximately 30 minutes each.

The interviews were then transcribed verbatim into Word documents. In an effort to protect participant's identity, pseudonyms were assigned to each participant. Transcripts were analyzed using NVivo using the constant comparative method in which "each stage provides guidance for the next throughout the inquiry" (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 340).

Trustworthiness of a quality study is established in order to achieve research rigor. Erlandson, Harris, Skipper, & Allen (1993) explain the four methods to establish trustworthiness as a means to "demonstrate its truth value, provide the basis for applying it, and allow for external judgments to be made about the consistency of its procedures and the neutrality of its findings or decisions" (p. 29).

Four components were utilized to establish research rigor of the study: credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Efforts to establish credibility for this study were done by triangulating data, peer debriefing, and member checks. Confirmability was established through the use of an audit trail and knowledge of potential researcher bias. The use of thick descriptions and purposive sampling were done in an effort to ensure transferability. An audit trail and assigning pseudonyms for each participant was used to build the dependability of the study.

Researcher bias

Qualitative researchers must be aware of potential biases (Lincoln & Guba, 1985) due to the "difficulty in using humans-as-instruments…Humans exhibit selective perception" (p. 108). While it is not possible to remove all biases, it is important to acknowledge them. As a previous high school agriculture teacher, I identified with the student teachers who participated in the study to a certain extent. I personally had a great student teaching experience and served as a cooperating teacher for three student teachers when I was still teaching high school agriculture. In addition, I served as the university supervisor for one of the students in this study. Even with my previous experiences, I made a conscious effort to prevent my bias from allowing my thoughts and opinions on the process to take over the interviews or the analysis of the data.

Findings

RO1: 1.Describe the development of the student teacher during the student teaching experience.

Building Familiarity is Critical

The beginning of the student teaching experience is a critical time that sets the tone for the rest of the semester. Getting students teachers acquainted with the school and the unique culture and climate of each situation is critical for a successful start. Student teachers experienced varying levels of beginning activities such as introducing them to the school and policies, expectations for the experience, and evaluation of their own skills.

Student teachers expressed they were unsure as to their level of readiness when they entered the student teaching site, but became more confident once they started teaching. Gary said:

> You get in there the first day you may be, "I don't know if I am ready for this" but as soon as you get in the classroom, you realize the students are going to pay attention to you because they know regardless of the content knowledge you have at the moment.

Student teachers said they felt prepared to teach. Devin said, "The structure of how to teach a lesson I was very well prepared on." But they had to learn to be comfortable when teaching a class of high school students by personally participating in them before they were able to learn. Edith said she was prepared in terms of the background information, "but I don't know if anyone could be fully prepared to walk into a classroom and just teach. I think there is part of it where you just have to experience it and then you understand."

One of the ways student teachers built familiarity was communicating to their cooperating teacher their backgrounds and strengths when they first began their student teaching experience. Several student teachers discussed the opportunity to start teaching subjects they were more familiar with. Fiona said, "We talked about things that I did in college, classes I took, things I was involved in. He really asked me a lot of questions to place me where he thought I would be the most successful."

Communication is Vital

Student teachers all emphasized the importance of communication with their cooperating teacher. Hazel said, "We communicated really well." Edith said, "A lot of time I would sit there, in between classes or when we didn't have a class, and talk to him about how things were going and if there was anything else I needed to do."

A few student teachers pointed out the lack of effective communication at the beginning of the student teaching experience. Amelia said, "An ideal relationship is one that has so much communication. That was one of the things I felt lacking at the beginning." Codie said, "We didn't have a whole lot of communication, especially at the beginning. I was almost afraid to ask him what he wanted me to do. And he never watched me teach or anything."

The need for feedback was expressed and appreciated. Bailey said, "I think she gave me really good feedback and she had a lot of really good points of ways I could improve it." Gary said, "Everything that I did he gave me great feedback on." Hazel said, "I wasn't afraid to ask him how he would handle this situation or could I have done this better so we were really open about everything. He gave me a lot of personal examples… that helped me too."

Several student teachers craved more feedback and wanted higher quantity and quality sessions with their cooperating teacher. Codie said she did not get adequate feedback and offered comments on what she would have liked to have received: "… taking interest in what you are doing. Watching you actually teach and maybe giving you feedback and stuff afterwards." Amelia said, "I feel like [cooperating teacher] didn't provide [feedback] as early as I had hoped because I sought feedback from students… I got more feedback from the kids in the beginning than I did from him. That eventually changed."

Guidance was Wanted and Appreciated

Student teachers recognized their development over the course of the student teaching semester and welcomed advice and support from their cooperating teacher in those areas. Gary said he grew in the ability to judge how long a lesson would take to plan and teach, "I got more of a judge of how much they could cover in a day and what comprehension level they could cover."

Student teachers said they received help on weak areas from their cooperating teacher during the student teaching experience. Bailey received guidance from her cooperating teacher through the use of materials and advice. "She gave me some materials that she had beforehand and so whenever I started food tech she gave me some books she had that went along with it and she helped me develop some lessons for those." Gary said, "If he thought I could do better with something he would come in and tell me, 'Maybe we should try this,' so he giving me ideas. It was very positive and building."

Others were encouraged to try new things by their cooperating teacher, "[He] knew I had no experience in wildlife stuff so he pushed me to teach some lessons about wildlife and helping with his wildlife team." Devin said, "I could tell he knew there were things I struggled with more than the other things, which he would give me a little more attention in those areas…"

Several of the student teachers mentioned becoming more competent in classroom management, but still developing their skills in this area. Fiona said: "Classroom management I still really need to work on. I found it hard to keep them quiet and focused." Edith said, "It is related to discipline, but it is more me being the authority in the classroom. I am not by nature a loud person or anything so me being quiet while teaching, I had to improve on that."

Several student teachers said they wanted more help at the beginning, but eventually received the help. Amelia said, "[Cooperating teacher] was more apt to correct me or add to what I was saying in the lesson at the end, which I appreciated it. It wasn't ever a condemning, like, "Well, that's wrong" kind of a thing." Codie said, "When I first got there, he just threw me in and just said, "Here you go and teach." So I didn't have a whole lot of help at the beginning."

Student teachers shared that their cooperating teacher started by supervising them in the same classroom every class period, but as they developed, the cooperating teacher did not observe every class they taught. Edith said, "It started out where he observed a couple of my first teaching classes and as time went on … he would feel comfortable leaving the room." Gary said he also noticed that his cooperating teacher lessened his supervision as the semester went on. "At the beginning he was in there more. At the end he would be getting ready for his own classes, and he would be doing stuff and buying materials for his classes. They were my classes."

RO2: Evaluate the cooperating teacher-student teacher relationship from the student teacher's perspective

Cooperating Teacher's Role

Student teachers described the role of the cooperating teacher in several ways. They first described a need for the cooperating teacher to be supportive. Fiona said, "Someone who seems supportive of allowing somebody to come in." Gary said, "I think the supportive role is the best because when I look at it I learn best from failure. This didn't work today, tomorrow we are going to doing something different."

Edith also said the cooperating teacher should be supportive but elaborated,

> I think it depends on what kind of student teacher there is too. Because I don't think everyone is the same and they might need a little bit more direction at the beginning than I did just to help start their experience then later on it might turn into the supportive role. But I think it really just depends on the student and on the teacher and how their styles can actually meet the other.

The student teachers said the cooperating teachers need to give feedback and provide opportunities to learn areas that were not taught in the college classroom. Bailey said, "I think that they need to just be there to give feedback on ways that [the student teacher] can improve." Fiona said, "They should be there to mentor them, try to give them as many opportunities for one, but share their life lessons, things that they have learned throughout their many years of teaching."

Hazel shared the importance of FFA and the need for the cooperating teacher to "include their student teacher in FFA activities and training teams and signing up for contests and how to do all that and recordbooks. That is such a large part of it."

Student teachers expressed the need for cooperating teachers to show what it will be like to be a teacher. Amelia said, "They should be the one who provides the window into what the real world teaching is like."

Critical Characteristics of a Cooperating Teacher

Student teachers discussed important characteristics cooperating teachers and their programs should possess. In terms of the agriculture program the student teachers expressed the desire for it to represent a complete agricultural education program with strong classroom, FFA and SAE components. Gary said, "I think, at most, the structure of the program. It doesn't need to be a lax program. The teacher may be an awesome teacher, but I think the program itself needs to be structured."

Student teachers wanted to feel their cooperating teachers were helpful. Amelia said, "I feel a cooperating teachers' goal needs to be to help this person excel and to be an even better educator than they are."

Student teachers recognized that the cooperating teacher should possess certain personal characteristics and traits. Codie said, "An upbeat person, I guess you don't want one that is always sitting down doing nothing all day long." Edith said, "I would say experience, knowledge of their subjects, knowledge about the FFA program, relationships with their students, relationships with other teachers, their attitude toward teaching… their relationship with the community." Hazel said:

> I think they need to have different teaching strategies. Since that is what we are taught, we don't want to go in there and do the same thing every day. It is good to follow someone who is teaching like we are told we should teach.

Expectations for Experience

Student teachers were able to discuss their expectations for their experience and their cooperating teacher. One of the first areas was the need for more clarity on classroom management and discipline issues. Gary said, "I think that there needs to be more discussion on the classroom management portion because I mean I really, there were times when I didn't know where I could draw the line on what I could do"

Student teachers said they were clear on what classes they would be teaching, but a couple did not receive a clear understanding of the curriculum for those courses. Codie said, "He told me which classes I would be teaching …He basically said he doesn't, he just wants to let me go do my thing and he just wants them to come out learning something."

Others were asked which classes they would like to start with and then build on those. Devin said, "He asked me if I was good in the shop and what kinds of courses I liked. We talked about even some of the CDE teams if I was good at any of them."

Student teachers said they were not sure what expectations they had for their cooperating teachers, but they did share a few areas and how their cooperating teacher(s) met their expectations. Amelia said:

> Really, I don't know what expectations I had going into it…if any expectations I had I expected them to take me seriously. I expected them to treat me like an adult…I expected to help with judging teams, I expected to teach lessons, I expected to get close to the kids and be able to interact with them and have the freedom to interact with them in and outside of school. That was all met.

Fiona added: "I expected him to show me a bunch of different experiences and help me through situations. But just kinda like mentor me, show me as much as he could." Codie said: "I wanted to be guided. Shown the way of like what I needed to do and everything."

Student teachers said they expected to learn from their cooperating teacher. Gary said: "In the first week there I learned more than I thought I was going to learn the entire time."

Student teachers said they enjoyed experiencing an agricultural education program that was different from the one they attended. Amelia said: "I wouldn't trade it for the world, seriously. It was so good. It was just different enough from my own experience in high school to make it great, as far as experiencing something different in the ag world."

Feelings Toward the Experience

All the student teachers expressed they enjoyed the student teaching experience. Bailey said: "It was a really good experience. I am really not sure I could have had a better one."

Student teachers said they appreciated being able to learn from their cooperating teacher(s) and the student teaching site. Amelia expressed her appreciation of the amount of learning she was able to accomplish, "I learned so much from them. I learned so much from their kids. It sealed the deal on me wanting to become a teacher, honestly." Hazel said: "I loved it. I learned a lot. I was in a place totally different from where I came from so I thought it was perfect placement wise. I enjoyed the experience and it really turned me onto teaching."

Student teachers shared what they believed would be the ideal relationship between a student teacher and cooperating teacher. Several student teachers said communication would be present in an ideal relationship. Amelia said, "An ideal relationship is one that has so much communication." Bailey said, "Being able to ask questions whenever you feel like you need to." Trust and mutual respect were also mentioned as important in an ideal relationship. Fiona said, "For them to trust you and give you the reins on things, to let you see what works and what doesn't work and what you would do differently next time."

Student teachers said they also wanted to know what their cooperating teacher expectations of them were. Amelia said, "To have guidance as far as what their expectations are…I want to be able to cover what they expect to be covered."

Many of the student teachers felt like they had the ideal relationship with their cooperating teacher. Hazel said, “Mine was great because our personalities matched up perfect that made school go great every day, most of the time.” Fiona said, “My cooperating teacher was wonderful and patient and he really helped me out, so it was a really good experience.”

RO3: Describe student teachers' intent to teach (commitment).

Intent to Teach is Decided Before Student Teaching

Student teachers expressed varying levels of intent to teach. Several had decided to teach before they went to student teach while others were impacted by that experience. Three of student teachers had already accepted a teaching position before the research interviews were conducted, but one was not as an agriculture teacher.

Fiona said she plans to teach agriculture, but has struggled securing a job, “I have applied to probably about 10 places and I haven't heard back from any of them.”

In spite of a less than ideal student teaching experience, Codie still expressed a desire to teach: “I am planning to find a job, somewhere, anywhere, teaching ag. If not ag, math or science. I plan, once I get my certificate, to take the math test and the science one too.”

Of this group of student teachers, only one expressed that he was not seeking a job as a teacher after graduation.

Geography Can Impact Intent to Teach

Those that had not accepted a position were limited due to their geographic region. Amelia said:

I want to teach agriculture, however I am moving to [state] and there are no openings in the city in which my husband and I are moving to… I am going to teach and I would love to teach ag, but at this point I know I am not going to be able to unless something opens up that is unexpected.

When asked if she intended to teach, Hazel responded, “If the right opportunity came up, yes.” When asked to elaborate she added: “I don't want to go to a single teacher program. So that is kind of the biggest thing actually. It would have to be around [city] because that is where we are staying.”

Teaching Provides a Backup Plan

The student teachers said teaching is a good career and can serve as a backup plan. It is attractive due to its flexibility. Several of the students were completing their teaching certification as a post-baccalaureate degree and one in addition to her master's degree. One participant shared:

> I always thought I might like teaching but I didn't want to just major in teaching because I didn't want to be stuck with that… Once I found out [my fiancé] and I would be staying in [town] I wanted to have every option I could to get a job no matter what it was. So I felt like that was kind of a safe bet if we were moving too, I would be able to teach.”

Devin wanted to allow himself the option of teaching if he chose that career. When asked if he ever planned to teach, he responded: “I always wanted the option to [teach]. It was never necessarily set in stone that I was going to teach. If it came down to it, it was an option.”

Conclusions/Implications/Recommendations

The eight student teachers interviewed for this study each had unique stories to share, but overall enjoyed the student teaching experience. Although they were unsure just how ready they were when they first went out to student teach, they were able to grow in confidence as the semester progressed.

Student teachers were not sure how ready they were for the student teaching experience and several were nervous about what to expect. They each described growth and development over the student teaching experience from their own reflections and assistance from their cooperating teacher. The cooperating teacher helping identify weak areas or building on other competencies is an indication that the Situational Leadership II Model was applied to move the student teachers to a higher development level (Blanchard, Zigarmi, & Zigarmi, 1985).

Student teachers realize the student teaching semester is a learning opportunity and want direction and supervision during the process. This type of supervision would help move them to a higher development level, but the lack of feedback from cooperating teachers was an area of frustration for student teachers. Student teachers cannot be shy in asking for help and guidance, they need to be proactive in order to receive the amount of support required for a successful experience. Edgar, Roberts & Murphy (2011) recommended training student teachers on effective communication skills in an effort to request and receive more feedback.

Quantity and quality of communication and feedback provided to the student teacher varied. Student teachers expressed a need for effective and frequent communication with their cooperating teacher in an effort to help them grow and develop. Those who communicated effectively with their cooperating teacher discussed written and oral feedback to help them grow. Deeds (1993) asked the question, "what other kinds of feedback are cooperating teachers providing to the student teachers…?" (p. 224). This question was answered by student teachers who communicated effectively with their cooperating teacher. They shared that the communication never ceased – they were constantly in contact with each other through text messaging, phone calls, or casual conversations throughout the experience.

The student teachers were also able to identify specific characteristics they believed benefited someone serving as a cooperating teacher. Specific characteristics included a success program, the desire to help the student teacher develop, and knowledgeable about all aspects agricultural education. Roberts (2006) model of cooperating teacher effectiveness included these items identified by the student teachers and should be used for future research studies.

As the semester progressed student teachers noticed that their cooperating teacher didn't observe them teach as often. This provides support that "perhaps cooperating teachers utilize a scaffolding approach and decrease their support as the abilities of the student teachers develop" (Kasperbauer & Roberts, 2007b, p. 40). This is also indicative of a higher follower development level on the Situational Leadership Model II (Blanchard, Zigarmi, & Zigarmi, 1985).

Student teachers described the relationship they had with their cooperating teacher in a variety of ways. They began by describing the role cooperating teachers fill when working with a student teacher. They said the cooperating teacher should be supportive in how they work with the student teacher. They also commented on the need for the cooperating teacher to provide opportunities to learn in and out of the classroom environment. The student teachers wanted their cooperating teacher to share what it will be like to be a full-time teacher. Roberts and Dyer (2004) reported "an effective cooperating agriculture teacher lets the intern have total control of classes and gives them freedom to try new things. However, they are always ready to assist the intern when needed" (p. 11). According to students interviewed in this study, their cooperating teachers were effective in this role. This variety of support is also a component in the Situational Leadership II Model (Blanchard, Zigarmi, & Zigarmi, 1985).

The expectations held by student teachers toward the experience were not clearly thought about before the semester began, but the students were able to articulate those expectations upon completion. Edwards & Briers (2001) also encourage teacher educators to make student teachers "aware of the important elements of the student teaching experience identified by cooperating teachers" (p. 39). Student teachers should be encouraged to visit with their cooperating teacher about those expectations. Teacher educators need to stress to future cohorts of student teachers the importance of the student teaching experience for their professional growth and development.

Overall, the student teachers enjoyed their experience. They appreciated the amount of learning and number of opportunities provided to them from their cooperating teacher. All the student teachers expressed they ended the experience happy and satisfied. This is contradictory to Kasperbauer and Roberts (2007b) who reported a decline in student teachers' perception of their relationship with their cooperating teacher during the experience. Student teachers mentioned they would have liked to have known what their cooperating teacher expected from them in order to make the relationship better. Teacher educators should work to communicate the expectations of everyone involved in the student teaching experience prior to the start of the semester.

The student teachers in this study articulated they had decided if they were going to teach or pursue another career before they student taught which corresponds to the findings of Roberts et al. (2009). Their level of commitment in this leadership situation could have been impacted by their intent to teach. Interventions to promote teaching as a career should take place before they reach the student teaching experience in order to enter the student teaching experience with a high level of commitment. Future recruitment efforts should be made to identify and encourage students to major in agricultural education and enter the teaching profession after graduation (Lawver & Torres, 2012).

While teaching is a great first-career, several students spoke about it being a back-up career because of its flexibility. This implies students are attracted to the major, but may not be serious about teaching as a career. This is contradictory to students in Lawver and Torres' (2012) study who disagreed that teaching agricultural education was a fallback career.

More qualitative studies should be conducted to investigate the student teaching experience. Kasperbauer and Roberts (2007a) support the use of naturalistic inquiry (qualitative) methods to gain a more in-depth understanding of the student teacher – cooperating teacher relationship. Also, more investigation should be conducted into the utilization of the Situational Leadership II Model as a method to improve the student teaching experience in an effort to increase the number of agricultural education graduates accepting teaching positions.

Viewing the student teaching semester as an experiential learning program allows us to expect more from the students than just passive observations. They are active in the process and in their own learning experience, while also being influenced by their leaders (Densten & Gray, 2001). Studying the student teaching experience from a leadership perspective offers an opportunity to make improvements in how the two parties, leaders and followers, can work together to make the situation the most effective and beneficial for all.

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Social Justice Involvement Shapes Student Leaders' Identity

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Abstract

There is a dearth of research into student leaders working on social justice and hunger. This phenomenological study explored the experiences of student leaders in an anti-hunger, social justice organization. From their stories, we develop an understanding of how their identity is shaped. Thus, knowledge of grassroots student leadership is expanded.

Introduction

Institutions of higher education are posited as spaces of student socialization for greater global democracy and resistance to social inequities (Rhoads, 2009, 1998). Yet, overall, a continual decline in conventional forms of student activism and collective action of students against neo-liberal ideology in the post-secondary academy has been documented (Mars, 2009). There is a dearth of scholarly research into student leaders working on one of the main social justice issues of our time period: hunger. When hunger and student leaders are mentioned in the literature, the context is generally non-U.S. based students using hunger strikes to improve their university situations. In the U.S., social justice issues of racial and ethnic discrimination have been raised by student leaders since the 1960s and current issues from the lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender and queer (LGBTQ) communities have been raised by student leaders; however, there remains relatively little literature regarding U.S. student leaders organizing for the eradication of the social injustice issue of hunger.

Hunger is caused by systematic inequity and is found world-wide. According to recent data from the United Nations Food and Agriculture Organization, (FAO) 870 million people do not have enough food to eat—that is 1 in every 8 people (FAO, 2012). Hunger kills more people than any other ailment, more than AIDS, malaria, and tuberculosis combined (WFP, 2012). Thus, due to the entrenched nature of the inequities and the relative silence on grassroots student leaders addressing this topic, research is warranted.

Purpose and Research Questions

The purpose of this phenomenological study was to explore the experiences of student leaders in an internationally known, campus-based anti-hunger, social justice organization at a large public university in the U.S. Southeast. Researchers sought to better understand the identity of these student leaders by asking:

1. What motivated and continues to motivate students to be involved in a campus-based anti-hunger social justice organization?

2. How do the student leaders of the organization perceive and make meaning of their work as it supports and intersects with local and regional hunger and social justice efforts?

3. Have the student leaders' beliefs and/or perceptions about hunger and social justice changed during their time with this organization?

Significance

There is a need to know more about higher-education student leaders who have chosen to work on the issue of hunger, through the lens of social justice. Specifically, it is important to understand how the intersection between personal experience and hunger and social justice might shape student identity and action. Further, some scholars contend, there is a need to have "honest dialogue" using qualitative paradigms in an attempt to uncover what really is going on in campus leaders' development and to move beyond *a priori* variable seeking (Boyd, 2008; Logue, Hutchens and Hector, 2005).

Literature Review

Student Leader Identity

Much of the U.S. focused literature related to college students organizing for increased social justice was generated about and/or during the student democratic movements of the 1960s (Polletta, 2002). The small body of literature on U.S. student activists in the past two decades has focused on issues of identity politics; mainly sexual orientation, race, ethnicity and disability. (Klandersman, 1997; Longard, 2013; Rhoads, 1994; Rhoads, 1995). Bernstein (2005) described these identities as 'externally' imposed. But, for U.S. university students working for issues social justice and food security, identity is self-imposed, at an intra-personal level. Regardless of imposition type, Bernstein (2008) argued that identity plays a crucial role in social movements. It is identity that "translates individual interests into group interests and goals and individual agency into collective action" (p. 278). Understanding individual identity in regard to issues of food security and social justice will allow us to further understand the collective goals and actions of student leaders working on issues of hunger and social justice.

Earlier work has shown the impact of psychological strengths on student leaders' identity (Wisner, 2011). The ground breaking Leadership Identity Development (LID) model, opened the way to understanding how identity plays a role in the stages of development student leaders engage (Komives, Owen, Longerbeam, Mainella and Osteen, 2005). Other scholars speak of the "psychological dimensions" of developing their interdependence, establishing healthy interpersonal relationships, and forging a confident sense of self (Baxter-Magolda, 2001, Chickering and Reisser, 1993, Kegan, 1994). However, the vast majority of work done to understand the nexus of identity and action has revolved around formalized leadership programs. Few have examined leadership issues stemming from personal, non-formal experiences (Logue, Hutchens and Hector, 2005). In the context of this study, investigation of student leaders who primarily work as grassroots leaders provides a forum for making sense of how identity is created and affects their positionality.

Social Justice

The meaning carried by the concept of social justice is exceedingly contextual. For the purposes of this study, we build on the political discourse around injustice that has historically focused on the maldistribution of benefits and goods. This is commonly referred to as distributional injustice (Schlosberg, 2009). Recent scholars have been critical of this approach arguing that it is necessary to examine the underlying causes of this mal-distribution. Their argument is that domination and oppression are foundational to asymmetrical distribution, and must be considered when addressing inequity (Fraser, 1997; Young, 1990). As Schlosberg argued, "We have to look at the 'why' of inequity in order to both understand and remedy it" (p. 24). For Young and Fraser, the "why" is procedural injustice—certain individuals and communities are denied access to democratic processes. In order to rectify this injustice, people who are marginalized must be recognized and allowed to participate. Schlosberg further explained the interdependent relationship between procedural and distributional injustices, "One must have recognition in order to have real participation; one must have participation in order to get equity; further equity would make more participation possible, which would strengthen community functioning, and so on" (p. 74). Following these arguments, participation is integral for social transformation and the creation of a more equitable society. The student leaders in this study are actively participating in dismantling social injustice, with a specialized focus on hunger.

Hunger

The current food security discourse has as a pivotal point in its history the tragedy of 1972. Affluent countries in the global north were jolted from their post-World War II economic euphoria when the Soviet

Union's wheat crops failed, resulting in millions of Russians starving. With the support of economic allies, the U.S. exported surplus grains to the Soviets. Coupled with the global recession of the early 1970s, this crop failure generated international interest in securing the food supply from future risks (Maxwell, 1996). The global community responded to this tragedy by expanding the discourse on food insecurity and creating anti-hunger programs. Arturo Escobar noted, however, that these programs have been limited in longevity, with one succeeding another in spite of their failure to eradicate the issue of hunger (Escobar, 1989). In fact, though agricultural production capabilities have increased globally, the number of those who experience food insecurity has seen little positive change (FAO, 2012). Furthermore, "in the majority of cases of widespread famine-related death since WWII, food has been available within the famine-affected area. People have died not for want of food, but for want of the entitlement to eat it" (Patel, 2012). Arguably, while some might choose to frame the issue of hunger as one of production and distribution of food, it is at its core: political and one of social justice.

Hunger is a global issue. Even in the 'land of plenty' that 'feeds the world,' the U.S. still has a high level of food insecurity and outright hunger. In 2011, the food insecurity rate, in the U.S., of families having difficulty accessing food was 14.9 percent. Additionally, 5.8 percent of the population fell into "very low food security", meaning hunger due to lack of food (Coleman, 2012). Given the relative abundance of U.S. agricultural production and the still high levels of food insecurity and hunger, Patel's earlier thesis is supported. As such, one can suggest that there is an explicit linkage between decreasing hunger and increasing social justice. The student leaders in this study are a product of this global initiative to provide food security. They are all deeply concerned with hunger, both internationally and in the U.S. Yet, there is little information in scholarly literature that examines the manner in which student leaders make sense of and work on issues of social injustice, let alone: hunger.

Methodology

This phenomenological study follows the advice of Rossman and Rallis (2011) with data collected from in-person interviews. A well known internationally developed, but campus-based organization working on social justice and hunger at Southeastern public university was the focus of the study. Student leaders, as found on the public website, were invited into the study. The purposeful sampling was in alignment with the research questions to be answered. The initial recruitment emails were sent to all five leaders; responses were immediate and positive. The small number of participants is in alignment with traditional phenomenological investigations due to the constructivist paradigm from which the inquiry orientation derived (Logue, Hutchens and Hector, 2005).

Data Collection

One-on-one interviews took place at locations convenient to the participants. The research team used an interview protocol with eight semi-structured, open-ended interview questions; supplemented by probes. Question structure allowed participants considerable flexibility in their answers. Given that phenomenological studies emphasize the extraction of experiential meaning, respondent flexibility was important (Rallis & Rossman, 2011). The interviews were audio-recorded and were transcribed verbatim within one week of completion. Written transcripts were sent to participants for member checking. Minimal edits were requested and honored.

Data analysis

Data were analyzed using open coding, axial coding and selective coding (Strauss and Corbin, 1998). Each team member analyzed all five interview transcripts using an open coding format. Team members then came together to discuss the contents of transcripts and using five large chalk/white boards compiled meaningful codes based on commonalities among the transcripts. This was done for each interview question. Concepts were then organized according to the three research questions. After listing all the potential concepts, each team member individually synthesized categorical themes pertinent to the three research questions. The final themes were synthesized using constant comparative analysis (Strauss and Corbin, 1998) and were finalized using Anfara and Brown's (2002) strategy. See Table 1.

Table 1. ***Code Mapping: Three Iterations of Analysis***

To be read from the bottom up.

(Third Iteration: Application to Data Set)		
Creating identity through connections, purpose and awareness		

(Second Iteration: Theme & Subthemes Variables)		
1A. Peer Connections	2A. Altruism & Working Towards the "Greater Good"	3A. Personal Growth & Self Awareness of the Issues
1B. Organization/Global Connections	2B. Individual Goals (Professional, Personal)	3B. Raising awareness of student peers

(First Iteration: Initial Codes/Surface Content Analysis of Concepts)		
1A. Previous exposure through family/friends/living abroad	2A. Concern for the world and people living in it	3A. Lack of understanding / exposure to the issues previously
1A. Peer stimulation (in the organization)	2A. Desire to fix world problems – leaving it better	3A. Long term changes/ realizations
1A. Understanding oppressed people		

1B. Working with other campus organizations	2B. Professional goals	3B. Frustration with lack of caring among peers
1B. Working with community organizations	2B. Volunteering after undergrad experience	3B. Correcting for misinformation
1B. Organization mission	2B. Lack of purpose/ confusion	

(Participant Transcripts: P1, P2, P3, P4 and P5 transcripts coded and compared to develop first iteration)

	(Research Questions 1, 2 and 3; with total of 8 sub-questions)	
RQ#1: What are the student motivations to be involved in an anti-hunger social justice organization?	RQ#2: What are student perceptions of their work and how do they make meaning from it?	RQ#3: Have the students' beliefs and/or perceptions since changed?

Narratives

Participant 1 is a young man, 20 years old, who exudes a depth of confidence on this topic that instantly lets you know he does indeed “breathe [this organization]”. However, the tousled hair, rope style sandals, and Maori art looking necklace quickly remind you that he’s a college student having a relaxing afternoon. Between the social injustice, hunger fighting advocate and the college student who hopes to one day work in law, we find of a person who thrives in this organization due to the connection with peers and who enjoys the pride of moments when their work really shines. We also find a person who looks forward to pricking people’s consciousness whether it is in class, in 2 a.m. discussions or in formal presentations.

Participant 2 is a 19 year old sophomore who says she’s always been interested in social justice. She has been a member of the organization since her freshman year and enjoys the environment provided by being around like-minded students who care about making a difference through service. “Oh be still my heart,” participant 2 says as she finds herself captivated in her role in this organization and the opportunity that it provides to attempt to lessen the impact of hunger while strengthening community.

Participant 3 is a 19-year-old student who lived in England for seven years before moving to the United States. Her family background, growing up in a Christian household, and life experiences emphasized to her that she should do as much as she can to help those who are in poverty and in hunger. Her previous awareness of social justice and hunger urged her to engage in the organization and to work toward these kinds of issues as a life-long pursuit.

Participant 4 spent her early life in a South Asian country and family and states that poverty surrounded her daily existence. When she moved to the U.S. at the age of thirteen, she brought with her a view of the world that was complicated by the relative prosperity of her new home country. This dichotomy of experience helped shape her initial thoughts on hunger and injustice, ultimately laying the groundwork for her activism and a future career in international development.

Participant 5 is a 21 year old graduating senior born and raised in rural Virginia. Prior to college life, he says he was influenced by a conservative, Christian, and sheltered upbringing where self-determination defined prosperity. When confronted with poverty, through this organization, he learned that the hunger situation is more complex than whether or not people have or can afford food: it is about power. From the many roles he has played in this organization, he has found himself dedicated to social justice as a more liberal and open-minded person than when he became a member of the organization.

Figure 1: ***Demographic Table***

1. Gender	Male (2)	Female (3)	
2. Years of age	18-20(3)	21-23(2)	
3. Education level	Undergraduate (5)	Graduate (0)	
4. Race/ethnicity	White (2)	Caucasian (2)	South Asia (1)
5. Area grew up	Urban(1)	Rural (2)	Suburban(4)
6. Years volunteering	2 (2)	3 (3)	
7. Frequency of volunteering	Daily (1)	Weekly (4)	
Note: Total sample number is five; Items 1, 2, 4, and 6 are self-defined questions; Items 3, 5, and 7 are multiple-choice questions;			

Findings

Building off the work of identity theorists such as Bernstein (2005, 2008), we found that the meaning the students made of their lived experiences offered insight into their 'self-imposed' identity. This identity yielded insight into the collective action of the group and ultimately its relationship to social justice and hunger. In our analysis, we found the student's identity to be shaped by three primary themes: (1) the '*connections*' made between organizational peers and those working for social justice beyond the group; (2) a feeling of '*purpose*' that is achieved by a belief in contributing to the "greater good"; and (3) an interest in raising the '*awareness*' of self and peers (see Figure 2., in text).

Connection

The first broad theme is "connection." This theme was manifested in two sub-themes: the students' connections with their peers and their connections to a larger movement of global issues of injustice that lead to hunger.

The first subtheme is related to peer interactions within the organization. Many participants described how they were first motivated to join the organization because of connections made with peers related to the group. Consistently, theses peers also served as a source of inspiration and motivation for continued involvement. This was evidenced in the following quotations,

"…so when I came to college, I think a friend just pulled me along to a meeting…and I just realized it was like people that I wanted to be around" (Participant 2).

"I had encountered [the organization] through a friend…I just kind of fell in love with the mission, with the people, the group of people that is in the group here at [university] and what they do," (Participant 5).

Across the five interviews, a similar sentiment way shared by all participants. It is clear that in this organization they found a group of peers that inspired them to work for issues of justice and hunger.

The second subtheme that emerged was related to connections made outside of the university-based organization. These connections involved those who are part of the larger discourse (including the international organization itself, other campus-based groups, as well as those working for similar issues at a local level). Being connected to these other activists provided support for the continued work within their own group—it supported the identity and focus cultivated by the group, providing the impetus for their continued action. Participant 3 noted,

> "One of the fun things for me about [the organization] is seeing different people from different organizations come together and work together…and look at the big picture … to fix this [problem]."

Consistently, these different organizations and people served to confirm the importance and value of the groups' mission and aim. Further, these connections also supported the students feeling of working for a larger purpose and cause. They were not just working for isolated issues

of social justice but rather were part of a large movement with a collective identity and collective impact. Participant 3 said,

> "the thing that is cool about [the organization] for me is that it's not just a campus organization…this isn't just a club that exists within [university], it's something that is broader and connects me to the outside world, and can continue on beyond my four years of undergrad."

Feeling connected to the larger work of social justice and hunger seemed to motivate these student leaders by giving them a sense of personal direction, which is tied to our next theme, "purpose."

Purpose

The second broad theme, "purpose," is a primary reference to conceptions of individual purposes and how this understanding shapes the imposed identity of the students, and ultimately group identity and decisions about action. Within this theme, we have developed two sub-themes, the first refers to the students' discussion of "working for the greater good" and altruism; the second, is related to the relationship between their activities and a changing individual purpose.

The participants revealed that they were driven by varying conceptions of "working for the greater good," our first sub-theme. Across the interviews, it was clear that students were being motivated by this purpose. In this group, students had found a connection to this desire to work for the greater good, a purpose outside of themselves. This was, perhaps, best captured by Participant 4,

> "And, we're all there because we care about the world. And we care about our role in it.[…]Through [this organization] we are only trying to do good. We're only trying to be human kind. I found a streak of genuine altruism in being involved in [this organization]."

While this purpose is arguably outside of the personal, it still has a direct link to and implication for the understanding of the self. This approach, centered on altruism, or as Participant 1, described it, "working toward the greater good," provides meaning to the participating individuals. The following statement by Participant 1 is evidence,

"My mission is going to stay with me until I die because I don't think it's going to get resolved in my lifetime….I'm still going to keep fighting and that's my motivation. I'm trying to have a meaningful life and I want to leave the world better than I inherited it," (Participant 1).

This individual perspective also links back to the connections theme as the students discussed the family-type role played by the organization. It provided a venue for shared identity, which reinforced the purpose of the individual and the group.

The feeling of personal growth and fulfillment are also a sub-theme, reinforcing the overall concept of 'purpose'. As students became involved with the work of the organization, they experienced both confirmation of existing purpose as well as emergence of new meaning. This was evident as a few of the participants discussed finding meaning in the volunteer work and expressed a desire to continue doing it as a profession. Participant 2 shared:

"It is pretty much the integral meaning of my life. It's what I want to do professionally. I would like to work with an NGO…I was pre-med but I would like to work in public health…I kind of found my purpose within the cycle of poverty"

Other participants shared similar changes in vocational purpose. The role with the organization had such a profound effect on their identity that the students sought to further develop their action beyond the undergraduate organizational experience. As a window to the complexity of this identity and purpose, one participant described difficulties in finding an individual purpose due to having so many potential directions as a result of being involved with the organization. "Finding a voice in all the white noise that's out there. Finding, you know, an action…it can be overwhelming," (Participant 1).

In the same way that the organizational experience provided clarity of purpose for some, it also complicated the purpose of another; yet, it is clear that this is not demonstrative of lack of purpose, but rather its complexity, which yields insight into the depth of the imposed identity.

Awareness

The two themes thus far are directly related to the third, "awareness." This theme refers to the way that the participants perceive and understand the issues of social justice and hunger. The students' interest in personal growth related to self-awareness and their interest in sharing this consciousness with their peers, comprise the two-sub themes of this section.

In examining the self-awareness of the student leaders, it is clear that this consciousness plays a constitutive role in the shaping and maintenance of their individual and group identity. Nearly all of the students came to the organization with some previous experience working with social justice and hunger issues. The experiences varied widely from more than a decade of experience living in the global south to those with minimal previous acquaintance with the issues. But, across the board, the students indicated that their views had changed considerably over their tenure with the organization. Participant 1, shared his experience and increase in self-awareness,

"Before [coming to the university]…[injustice] wasn't my problem, it was NOT MY problem. It was something that was out there but it was people's fault for being lazy or not taking advantage of every situation that they had or, or something like that…and then, I mean, then everything changed completely. Ummm, I think empathy is something that people need to learn and not everyone is given."

This change in self-awareness was shared across the participants. Interestingly, most of the participants could not attribute the change to one moment. Participant 4 stated,

"I think it's one of those long term development things that comes with coming in here as a freshman and then realizing, oh, it's not as simple as selling cookies, or something."

This realization has shaped the way that the students proceed with action. As part of the larger community assisting with local food pantries, they organize food drives and volunteer to help the pantries. However, most of the group action revolves around campaigns to raise peer awareness on extended issues of social injustice and hunger. Consistently, the student leaders noted an annual on-campus experiential awareness-raising event as their most successful activity. Called the "Hunger Banquet" this event brings in other student clubs, outside organizations and a noted speaker each year, about 200 students attend annually. In relation to this activity, but construed to the larger work as well, Participant 4 noted,

"We basically do everything we need to make the average college student think about what their role in the world is and where they fit into the food system in general."

Several of the participants framed this activity within the power and privilege at the disposal of college-educated students, noting that their peers are at once largely unaware of the issues, but also in positions where, given increased consciousness, significant social change is possible.

Implications

In the process of examining the lived experiences of students involved in a campus-based social justice and anti-hunger organization, we found three themes that have significant constitutive effect on individual and group identity, and following Bernstein's assertions (2005, 2008), a consequent impact of collective action. We found the students' motivation and the perceived meaning of work is created by: (1) the *connections* made between organizational peers and those working for social justice beyond the group; (2) a feeling of *purpose* that is achieved by a belief in contributing to the "greater good"; and (3) an interest in raising the *awareness* of self and peers. Therefore, participation and perceptions of efficacy are projected through interpersonal connections that lead to the purpose of providing social justice. The effort undertaken for social justice work implicitly acknowledges the complexity of hunger related issues. This is built into the identity formation process though the three themes.

A connection can be made between the collective action of the group and efforts to work toward procedural justice. As is clear by the analysis, these student leaders concern their work with raising their peers' awareness in relation to issues of social injustice and hunger. The effort is undertaken with acknowledgement of systemic complexity, but also with an understanding that social change means engaging the privilege of their fellow students to address the 'whys' of global inequity.

The heightening of awareness through group affiliation implies that social justice groups can benefit from practices and exercises of identity formation aimed at extending social awareness. Participants defined themselves though and by the organization, with the mission of the group as a proxy for identity creation and agency. Personal connections to the mission extend beyond interpersonal relationships and toward a more profound definition of self through social justice and meaningful work, a greater understandings of human relationships with social and natural environments, leading to an expansion of consciousness (political, social, economic), along with introspective realizations. This also implies that practitioners could benefit from providing members and affiliates meaningful roles related to the mission by creating an egalitarian platform that supports interpersonal relationships through the mission.

Limitations

Phenomenological research offers the potential for rich, thick descriptions of lived experiences; however due to the small sample size there may be questions of saturation. Certainly the lived experiences of these student leaders cannot be generalized to the larger population; nor can we make statements that their experiences create a ground for others in their own organization. Qualitative methods in general may suffer from issues of credibility due to the subjective nature of the data. In order to maximum the credibility several strategies were utilized throughout this project: (1) each participant was assured that they were willing to be interviewed and were willing to offer information freely (Shenton, 2004); (2) probes and iterative questioning were used to elicit detailed data and clarify vague expressions; (3) throughout the project, the researchers engaged in reflexive inter-group dialogue regarding their diverse positionalities; (4) the transcripts were member-checked which allowed for further verification of the investigators' emerging inferences and themes (Anfara & Brown, 2002); (5) thick description about the organization and student leadership within this organization were made to convey the actual situations that would be investigated, thus giving a provision for promoting credibility.

Conclusion

Since the 1970s Soviet wheat crisis, hunger based initiatives have been a corner of global initiatives addressing social justice. Responses have come through national agendas and organizational agency as a result of international concern. The legacy of this concern has represented itself through public and private organizations, with discursive results. Although student civic engagement is limited at the college level, an understanding of student led hunger organizations brings forth a dynamic that could add to a greater understanding of both social justice initiatives and student leadership.

This phenomenological study explored the experiences of student leaders in an internationally known, campus-based anti-hunger, social justice organization at a large public university in the Southeast of the U.S. Building on the work of identity theorists like Bernstein (2005, 2008), we found the student's identity to be shaped by three primary themes: (1) the '*connections*' made between organizational peers and those working for social justice beyond the group; (2) a feeling of '*purpose*' that is achieved by a belief in contributing to the "greater good"; and (3) an interest in raising the '*awareness*' of self and peers (see Figure 2, in text).

Future research is needed on the relationship between hunger and social justice organizations, as it relates to leadership studies, specifically interests of identity formation and efficacy. Measurements and perceptions of impact could be useful in expanding the scholarly understanding of social justice leadership. Future research on social justice groups could also provide templates for models on successful civic engagement. These findings could also extend to the professional realm by allowing employers to create a platform for employees to create meaningful associations to the mission within their given personal and interpersonal roles.

Placing the research team

The interdisciplinary research team brought together unique perspectives on the topic of student leadership, social justice and hunger. Early in the research process, the team developed a shared interest in the nexus of leadership, social justice and hunger. In discussions, it was learned that several had been practitioners, working intimately with issues of hunger, poverty and social justice. One member had a scholarly interest in leadership for social change. Two of members of the research team have backgrounds in nutrition and food. One member of the team had no previous interest in hunger or social justice per se but came to the team with a strong background in analysis and evaluation. Reflexive and active listening practices were undertaken throughout the entirety of the project. As a final note, the authorship listing, aside from placement of the first author, is alphabetical to indicate the true collaborative nature of the study.

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Description of the Collaborative Effort

This interdisciplinary team worked in collaboration on all aspects of the project. All members met to determine research focus, purpose and questions. Each member conducted and transcribed an interview. As a group, coding and analysis was performed. Each member took one section to initially write up; however, collaboration was a key over many discussions. Several researchers edited the final version and the entire research team did a final check prior to submission. All researchers have reviewed and approve of this submission. Names are listed in alphabetical order to show the true collaborative nature of the endeavor:

[redacted] Co-Investigator____

[redacted] Co-investigator____

[redacted] Co-Investigator ____

[redacted] Co-Investigator____

[redacted] Co-Investigator____

Community Leadership: Many Voices, One Message

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Abstract

In this qualitative study, non-formal leaders located in small communities throughout Costa Rica were interviewed in order to discover and understand their roles and how they view "community". Five individuals were interviewed using a semi-structured protocol. What emerged from the study was a sense that these individuals were passionate not only about their personal communities (where they live) but the larger community (their country and their world). A greater conceptualization of that sense of community, the interconnectedness, the sense of social responsibility and a commitment to the protection of the environment all emerged as important paradigms.

Introduction

Leadership theory tells us that leadership is either individual or group, and leaders are either born with natural traits or they are developed through processes (Northouse, 2013). If this is the case, and we then witness leadership, but have no knowledge as to the background of how that leadership evolved, how might we be able to classify it? Can we say that it is in fact leadership? While we know that leadership comes in many shapes and sizes, we often attribute training and education for its development.

Bass (1990) assures us that leadership is a necessary component of any social movement, but it is not always the action of one who has been formally trained, as was the case with most of history, before the mid nineteenth century. When we look at communities, particularly those in developing countries, it is easy to make the connection to the historical context of leadership, and a person stepping up for change because they see a need and want to take others in their direction.

"Community is fundamentally an interdependent human system given form by the conversation it holds with itself…. The built and cultural environments are secondary gains of how we choose to be together" (Block, 2008, p. 30). In this study, researchers recognized that local community members, across multiple regions of Costa Rica, were supporting a common message exemplifying how they were choosing to co-exist with one another. We can attribute this type of leadership to be that of "choice" or, as some would call it, the "constructivist."

Literature Review

Constructivist Learning

At the very core of constructivist thinking is the notion that people make sense of their world through the experiences and interactions that they have. Knowles, Holton, and Swanson (1998) shared that "all knowledge is context bound and individuals make personal meaning of their learning experiences" (p.142). "In the constructivist view knowledge, values, and ethics cannot be derived from theology, metaphysics, or nature, but are instead actively constructed. Humans formulate concepts not in isolation from, but through interactions with, the external world" (Evanoff, 2004, p. 449). Then, they take that constructed knowledge and formulate their actions, teachings, and further learnings. "Our learning communities and learning circles are built on a series of interconnected assumptions about being and knowing in the world" (Collay, Dunlap, Enloe, & Gagnon, 1998, p. 32).

With the constructivist theories of Piaget and Vygotsky at the core of their work, researchers Collay, Dunalp, Enloe, and Gagnon shared the concept of "Learning Circles;" they defined this as those individuals who purposefully work with one another for the same cause (1998). Further, they explained it as, "…an intrinsic part of our social and organizational fabric. Generally such groups are informal and based on work, friendships, or neighborhood relationships among people who do similar things, have similar interests, or interact with each other on a regular basis during the course of their lives" (1998, p.3).

Expanding on the notions of informal situations for learning as described above is the general concept of non-formal education. Foley (2001) refers to this as "incidental" learning that takes place in life and it is not planned or intentional, yet "very powerful" (p. 72). His research on radical education and learning further goes on to explain concepts from Mezirow and Hart (1990) on *critical learning*. In the case of this interpretation, Foley studied women who worked together in community centers. Opportunities to learn were provided through activities, management committee responsibilities, and courses/programs, however it was never explicitly told to the women that they were participating in learning situations. Overall it was concluded that, "this is learning that enables people to make sense of and act on their environment, and to come to understand themselves as knowledge-creating, acting beings" (Foley, 2001, p. 78). In terms of critical learning, Foley identified three dimensions on how the women practiced this: "They have also developed an understanding of the individual and social sources of conflict, a capacity to analyse [*sic*] situations contextually and act on them strategically, and an ability to examine and act on their own values and goals" (p. 78).

Collay et al. based their theories of how others learn and act on the reality of humans being a biological system. "We consider learning circles to be human living organizations because they are complex systems interacting with our human environment. We interact not only with our physical environment but also with the interdependent networks of our human ecology" (1998, p. 15). They further attested that interacting with physical, symbolic, social and theoretical dimensions of humanity increase the contextual richness of learning.

Social Responsibility

In looking at the context of humanity and ecology, the term social responsibility is appropriate. Social responsibility is, "a duty every individual has to perform so as to maintain a balance between the economy and the ecosystems" (Wikipedia, 2014). Although much emphasis has been placed on corporate social responsibility (CSR), this particular literature review will focus on the "emerging normative status of social responsibility" (Wikipedia, 2014), which has taken place a result of various organizations, public and private, establishing unwritten rules that others have adopted. Business and organizations of many kinds offer socially responsible models for operations, many of these are not of the corporate structure.

A business that is equally concerned with society as it is with profitability is more likely to have socially responsible practices (Ferrell, O., Hirt, & Ferrell, L., 2009). "As with ethics, managers consider social responsibility on a daily basis as they deal with real issues. Among the many social issues that managers must consider are their firms' relations with employees, government regulators, owners, suppliers, customers, and the community" (Ferrell, et al., 2009, pp. 42-43). Following these concerns, are the environmental ones that have recently become even greater. The current dilemma however, is the trade-off that by adopting technology, which in some countries is a moral decision even more than it is an economical one. "Social responsibility is the obligation an organization assumes to maximize its positive impact and minimize its negative impact on society… Increasingly, society expects business to take greater responsibility for the environment, which includes water, air, land, and noise pollution" (p.51).

Community Leadership

Leadership theory and practice has carried a connotation for development through training, and programming. McCall suggested that although those needs exist, recognition of experiences should also be made (2004). "The primary source of learning to lead, to the extent that leadership can be learned, is experience" (McCall, 2004, p. 127). Therefore, similar to the notions of constructivist learning is the concept of becoming a leader from situational context.

Aligned with that, is the idea of community leadership that forms out of contextual shifts. Block (2008) professed that community transformations took place when individuals recognized a need to focus on context. He conceptualized it by saying, "Communities are human systems given form by conversations that build relatedness. The conversations that build relatedness most often occur through associational life, where citizens show up by choice (2008, p. 29). Therefore when combined, the idea of learning in small groups in the context of a community we find "associational life" as Block calls it (2008). "It is how citizens choose to build connections for their own sake" (2008, p. 30). We can further infer this process as constructivist leadership, which "addresses the need for sense-making, for coherence, and for seeing educational communities as growth-producing entities," (Lambert, 2002, p. 35). Through like-minded, individual groups, common goals are sought through the social meaning-making processes.

Purpose & Guiding Questions

Often when we think of community or community leadership, we view it from a very American lens. While that is our dominant paradigm, broadening our world view engages us in understanding the world around us, making us more positive citizens of the world. To engage in that broadening, the purpose of this study was to understand how non-formal leaders in small communities, in a developing country, understood their role as leaders and how they make sense of this idea of community. The study was framed by the following two guiding questions:

1. Describe the individuals who emerge as non-formal leaders in small communities in Costa Rica.
2. Identify how these leaders understand and make meaning of the notion of "community".

Methodology

Qualitative research aims to promote understanding not to make large or sweeping generalizations (Erlandson, Harris, Skipper, and Allen, 1993). In the case of this project, the researchers deigned to understand how these community leaders make meaning of their respective roles and what they believe their respective impacts might be. Because of that aim, these unique participants were purposively selected because of the experiences, attributes, and philosophies to which they ascribe (Merriam, 2009). In this case, the criteria were simply that an individual had been identified as an informal community leader, and that those individuals were willing to share their experiences and pathways. The final sample was a group of 5 individuals representing diverse areas of Costa Rica and varied educational and professional backgrounds. A further description of participants can be found in the results section.

The methodology of the project followed the tenants of basic qualitative research (Merriam 2009). The researchers began by unitizing the data, breaking the transcripts into stand-alone pieces of information (Merriam, 2009). Once all data was in units, the researchers began combining similar data pieces into categories as themes and initial picture stories began to emerge. Creswell (1998) describes this step as "reducing the data" (p.140). Finally, as the categories solidify and a story takes shape (Corbin and Strauss 1990), the third step is complete, and in this case the three final themes that are shared here, emerged.

For all research projects, it is imperative to establish the soundness of the work. In the case of this project, the researchers followed a protocol espoused by Lincoln & Guba (1985) who tell us that using the quantitative methods to aren't a fit, and instead encourage researchers to establish credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability. Peer debriefing and member checking was done to help establish the credibility of the research. Peer debriefing was done throughout the data collection and analysis process a two person team who had both familiarity with the methodology and the context under study. Member checking was done with each interviewee by sharing with them early findings and allowing their reactions to inform further study. An audit trail and journaling were both used to establish the dependability and confirmability of the study.

Results

In order to facilitate understanding, the results of this study are presented by the guiding questions. The first guiding question was to establish who emerges, in small communities throughout Costa Rica, as non formal community leaders.

Research Question One: The Non-Formal Community Leaders

Each individual who gave these researchers their time considered themselves native to Costa Rica or "Ticos", though one participant was not native born and instead moved to Costa Rica decades before to pursue business opportunities. Both males and females were represented in this project. Participants ranged in age from mid-twenties to mid-fifties. Each individual had completed some kind of education past what is considered compulsory in Costa Rica (elementary school); some had attended high school, some had attended college or a trade school, while others had gone on to a university education. These individuals came from all regions in Costa Rica; from the central valley, to the northern plains, to the Caribbean. They were all connected to agriculture in some way, either through family operations, professional pursuits, or both. This is not surprising considering that 14% of the total population identifies as a member of the agricultural workforce. These individuals are all incredibly passionate about their country (as is evidenced in the messages below) their families and their communities.

Research Question Two: How do these leaders understand this notion of community?

Throughout the interviews it became quickly apparent how tied these individuals are to their communities; but not just the communities in which they live, though that was apparent. Their view of community is a much larger notion- expanding to include their country and the world. Community, to them, is that big. They passionately spoke about their lives and about the lives they are impacting in small and large ways. The following three themes emerged during those conversations: A commitment to social responsibility, a deeply rooted sense of connectedness, and their responsibility to the environment as individuals, community members and business people.

Commitment to Social Responsibility

Social responsibility, or the sense of duty to improve one's community, was pervasive in this group of community leaders. Each of the participants talked about social responsibility; however they all approached the idea using their own unique lens. One participant, talked about social responsibility in terms of being a business owner and employing people from the community and being a fair employer:

> "We have always employed people from the region and from this town. Except for when we needed plumbers and electricians because that labor you do not find here. But all the other labor they work from this area. So we have a huge impact here on the community. We have even some guys that have worked for me now for a long time, and they're sending their kids to [BUSINESS]. Which is a huge improvement because that wasn't happening [before their business]. We take care of our people, we pay a fair salary, we pay social security and all those kinds of [things]. (P1)"

Other participants talked about the responsibility of connecting to education. For example participant two shared with us,

> "The business, because of my grandfathers and great-grandfathers' legacy tells us to do that, that you have to be connected with the community, to help them. For example, we will receive students from college and high school in Costa Rica for free, they do their homework, their special projects that they have to do. So they come here and we receive them and we work with them." (P2)

Participant one agreed also as they talked about the social responsibility of education, and shared this regarding the goals of their business,

> "Another goal I have here is an educational one. That is, for tourists that come here, that they come back with an idea with how you can change some of the items that you take for granted. We're not here to change the world, but we'd like to at least plant the seed. Let's say someone from NYC comes here and goes back home and at least knows where a banana comes from, or why there's reforestation. That's really our goal." (P1)

Participant three talked about educating the community about the importance of food and the role that agriculture plays in putting some of our favorite foods onto our tables:

> "In Costa Rica the community have been increasing a lot. In my case the dairy farmer have been having problem with the increasing population because over time we have less land to produce milk, to produce meat. The problem is not many understand the importance to produce milk… Everybody wants to eat ice cream, cheese, and drink milk. Many neighbors don't like us to milk the cows, because they complain about that. It's important to start to educate that population that's important, because we need that, we need food." (P3)

Sense of Connectedness

The connection between these individuals and their communities was an almost tangible piece of each leader understood this notion of community. Each of the participants talked about how important being connected was to them as people and in their role of leader. For example, participant two shared that,

> "We just work living like that, like we are part of the community. And we have to participate in our community, what is requested of us. That's how we think. I try to realize that we just work like that. It's part of our life. The whole history we are working together all the time." (P2)

Another individual talked about how the sense of community is passed down, generation to generation and so it's no longer a novel idea but something more deeply ingrained.

> "It's generational. It's a part of our life. It's normal for us. It's amazing really because it's simple, because you come here and you say 'It's amazing' but it's normal for us." (P4)

Participant three talked about the importance of improving the community for all people. They shared with us,

> "In CR, it's a tropical environment, we have a lot of environment to do here. {There are} many opportunities for the population for any situation, however we have to improve our knowledge. And we need more technology to produce foods, and obviously we have to start to produce corn because our food security is so bad." (P3)

Another participant shared with us that the sense of community was about an integration, between business, education and community, where each works for and with the others. Participant Five says,

> "EARTH is strongly integrated with the nearby communities. Not only because we provide work for many of the people in nearby communities, but also because we want to give back something, and we want the students to… It's a win-win situation because the students give something to the community but they also learn how to work with the community, which is important for their future. I think it really works well." (P5)

This individual follows that by simply reinforcing the mission of their educational institution,

> "The mission is creating leaders that go back to the communities to create the change for sustainable development of the communities." (P5)

Responsibility to the Environment

Costa Rica is a country that is indelibly connected to the environment. Known for its beaches, volcanoes and rain forests, a visitor need not look far to see how proud Costa Ricans are of their country. But their pride extends to a greater sense of responsibility to protect and preserve that environment. For example, Participant Two, said,

> "Humans need food. We need to be at peace with the environment; and theenvironment means everything, means our friends, our neighbors, our community, and of course means the forest – mother nature. How can we produce the food and be smart enough to send something back to nature. To demand for the people of the farms to be more eco-friendly, you have to do that, you have to demand that." (P2)

Participant three expressed that individuals in the agricultural community also recognized their unique role in the protection and preservation of the environment when they say,

> "We understand that we have to care about the environment. We understand that we have to have biodigesters, or some other process for the manures to deal with bad odors and to care for the water, to not use too much water." (P3)

Finally, from an educational perspective, participant five shares their perspective of the responsibility to the environment through education

> "And I know that for them {visitors to the University}also, this will be a life changing experience, it will have an impact on them, their way of looking at things, and that has to do with the environmental consciousness and social consciousness. Environmental consciousness because they look at good practices here, they see that we can be a community that grows its own food. And it's good food, it's nice food, it's healthy food. And they see that we recycle our garbage, and we separate our garbage, 95% of the garbage is recycled. Environmental consciousness I'm sure they will take that home with them." (P5)

Conclusions & Discussion

Non-formal leaders in small communities in Costa Rica have little in common in terms of their backgrounds, educational attainment, gender or age. However, none of that matters when you peel those things away to find that these are passionate individuals who feel deeply about their fellow man, their homes, and their country. The individuals that are leading these communities have a deeply rooted sense of community and from that, these researchers posit, flows a sense of social responsibility and environmental responsibility. Each of those ideologies was strongly present throughout the interviews.

Constructivist theorists describe how learning occurs through interconnectedness and interactions with the world around us (Collay, et al, 1998; Evanoff, 2004). In the case of these small community leaders, the lack of their commonalities (no shared educational level or vocation or location) coupled with their shared understanding of this notion of community, is recognition of the power of constructivist meaning-making. The passing down of ideas via generations, the sense that communities have expectations of connectedness all contribute to this idea that these leaders have definitely learned from the world around them. The researchers can conclude then, that the messages shared with us in this project go much deeper than just a few small community leaders and are likely pervasive of the entire country.

Bass (1990) reminds us that often times leader arise not from training but from necessity because of a social movement. This is absolutely the case here. None of these leaders had any formal leadership training, and yet each found themselves in the position to lead in their communities; either because of their business endeavors, their community status (not formal position), or their family. These researchers believe that leadership, in this context, is as connected to community as the individuals themselves.

When thinking about social responsibility, Block (2008) talks about the importance of citizen engagement that focuses on the well-being of the whole. This view is readily apparent in the ideologies of these community leaders. In a world where it might be easier to look closer to home (in this case your own home), these individuals not only look beyond that boundary but feel a compulsory need to do so. These researchers believe that the social responsibility these leaders espouse is part of the greater interconnected sense of community they feel.

Recommendations

These conclusions would lead this research team to make recommendations for both practice and further research.

For practical purposes, the leadership being offered by these individuals is working their situations. For that reason, it is difficult to immediately jump to the recommendation that they experience some formal, cookie cutter training. However, leadership training that is contextually rooted in the ideals that these individuals all share, may be impactful for them and by design then, their communities. Further, that training should absolutely include some discussions of passing on the mantle of leadership. Because non-formal leaders often rise from necessity, it could be a positive thing for these small communities to engage them in thinking about the next generation of leaders in order to start preparing them, even if still informally to take on that role.

After spending time in small communities, these researchers recommend that more research also be conducted. It could be that these ideologies are firmly rooted in small communities, but may not be shared by those in larger cities or the formal leadership structures. It would be beneficial to understand how community is understood in a larger setting to discover if those notions are shared, and if so, how they are demonstrated in those contexts.

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Learners Into Leaders

Yael Hellman, Woodbury University

Introduction

The Issue

Nearly all leadership educators concur that the most effective method for training adults to lead is facilitative. Such interactive, cooperative, and learner-driven teaching best matches individual needs of the mature learner (as adult educational theory suggests) and best integrates them with organizational needs, such as increasing worker cooperation; encouraging visionary and ethical leadership; and improving communication with and responsiveness to the community and clients. Facilitative teaching calls on learners' life experiences and personal as well as professional interests, and utilizes hands-on practice of skills within a supportive, engaged group (following group dynamics theory). Such learning is immediately applicable to the work environment, and allows participants to clarify their leadership vision and discover how to achieve it collaboratively with those they lead. In this approach, the facilitator does not just provide content; s/he models leadership in how s/he teaches, critiques, and supports future leaders. The overriding issue of this Workshop, then, is not whether or how much facilitative training benefits adult learners, but **how educators can achieve the goals of facilitation in their classrooms.**

This Workshop will actually create a participant-centered group environment and ignite participants' unique energies and openness, so that they will then be able to incorporate this experience in their own classes. While some educators find participant-led interactive instruction foolish or frightening at first, decades of research and teaching have proven that this approach best develops deep, lasting leadership skills through their immediate, hands-on practice. So, if we really think that facilitation teaches best, then this Workshop will teach participants by **experiencing what they want their own students to experience**.

The Workshop culls the very best practices and resources, offers tried-and-true lesson outlines, and presents real-life accounts of the pitfalls and possibilities of facilitation. These practical instructions and "trade secrets" illustrate and explain the adult education, group dynamics, and leadership knowledge that has made facilitative teaching of leadership the formula of choice. But just hearing even the best tips doesn't give the hands-on practice needed to meet the intellectual and emotional demands of teaching a participant-centered group. I'm confident that experiencing and witnessing this application of educational theory and techniques in this Workshop will strengthen participants' powers of leadership development and show them how they can use facilitative training to create profound, practical leadership wisdom.

Learner Objectives

Upon completion of this workshop participants will be able to:

1. Explain to students why adults learn best through interactive instruction
2. Understand facilitative techniques and teaching styles
3. Structure a facilitative classroom environment
4. Manage participant resistance
5. Model leadership in order to enable leadership
6. Explain group dynamics theory and basic terms
7. Demonstrate group dynamics theory right in the facilitative classroom
8. Use the classroom as a laboratory for learning leadership and a gym for exercising it

Review of Related Scholarship

Adult learning theory has burgeoned along with the number of adult education programs in colleges and of leadership training in almost every business and public-sector organization. As early as 1972, Ruyle and Geiselman noted a survey by University of California Berkeley's Center for Research and Development in Higher Education showing that some 1,400 two- and four-year institutions offered "nontraditional" degree programs to working adults, and Finch and Rahim found that 7 percent of those programs were already over 10 years old. Practically oriented executive training in private businesses and public sector organizations has been around even longer.

Knowing Adult Learning Theory Helps Educators Train Leaders

Despite the seeming universality of adult training programs, theorists define adult learning very differently. This variance comes both from recent advances in the field of cognitive neuroscience and from the researchers' own methods and philosophies, ranging from humanism, to personal responsibility orientation, to behaviorism, to critical perspectives and beyond.

Understanding these different contributions of adult learning theorists isn't just academic. It gives the leadership educator a concrete grasp of which methods and activities will work and which ones won't work, and why. Participants in this Workshop will experience how the facilitative approach blends the very best of many adult teaching philosophies and techniques.

The Value of Values

Adults very effectively learn leadership through the interactive, participant-driven, professionally relevant and cooperative approach of facilitation. But how do leadership educators build such a learning environment? Of course, proper theory and pointed techniques are absolutely necessary. But they're not enough. What really makes a classroom facilitative is the facilitator's and participants' reliable emotional presence in a relationship of trust, honesty, respect, and responsibility.

Significantly, these same virtues make genuine leadership--not just authority--possible. Facilitative leadership education instills in trainees the habits of listening, of collaboration, of speaking one's truth, and of keeping one's principles while actually practicing and polishing these difficult, but essential, leadership qualities. Understanding facilitative aims and techniques lets teachers strengthen exactly those traits in leadership candidates.

Varieties and Essence of Facilitation: Active and Interactive Learning

Facilitation is the "lecture-replacement" teaching method that empowers participants by centering the learning environment around their experience and motivations. There is a wide spectrum of perspectives within the facilitative approach: One practitioner might hold that classrooms should be entirely democratic, while another directs fledgling groups; certain facilitators focus on group process while others emphasize course content.

However, all facilitators expect participants to apply their prior knowledge as they process new material together. They agree that facilitative education means both active learning by participants as individuals, as group members. Leadership developers especially appreciate that energy and *esprit de corps* are fundamental executive qualities. To help Workshop participants strengthen those characteristics in their learners, we will learn basic methods that invite truly interactive learning.

Why Leadership Facilitators use Differentiated Instruction

The justification for using differentiated instruction in teaching both children and adults draws upon the insight of the early-twentieth-century Russian psychologist Lev Vygotsky, who said that individuals learn best when the information taught is appropriate to their ability to function in society. According to educational psychologist Kathie Nunley, such differentiated instruction has become an essential part of all American educators' repertoire over the past 40 years as the cultural make-up of American classrooms has become increasingly heterogeneous (2006).

While most “constructivist” (social preparedness) learning theorists focus on children, facilitation accepts and welcomes different learning styles among adults as well, and holds that, even (or especially) for mature persons, course content and delivery should match their intellectual and social readiness to grasp it. Contemporary researchers have enriched this social preparedness view through cutting-edge research into the neuropsychological development of the brain and personality (Anderson 2007). And we know already that facilitative theory accepts and encourages the life-long evolution and expansion of adults’ learning modes. In fact, facilitative leadership development in particular expects transformative evolution of trainees and trainer alike by requiring openness to new ideas, polishing skill in mirroring others’ expressions, and integrating widely different viewpoints and talents into collectively envisioned and achieved goals.

How Facilitators Use Differentiated Instruction

Differentiated instruction directs the educator to deploy a variety of teaching methods to suit students’ varied learning profiles. For example, they may blend whole-class, group, and individual instruction; use varied verbal, non-verbal, auditory, visual, and kinesthetic (moving) approaches to convey core information; and apply differing modes of artistic, performance, individual, and collective evaluation. As Tomlinson and Allan (2000) put it, the learner-centered model asks instructors to tailor instruction to learners rather than requiring learners to bend themselves to the curriculum. Students’ social, intellectual, and emotional maturity, interests, and abilities directly shape course content, presentation, and testing.

Group Dynamics Theory: The modern study of group dynamics spontaneously emerged in many countries in the late 1940s, soon after the end of World War II. The horrors of that war intensified concerns about abusive leadership, about groups of average people behaving with unbelievable cruelty to other groups, and about national groups accepting their country’s destructive, and self-destructive, policies. Group dynamics theory sought to describe and explain these and other collective behaviors.

As a leadership educator, understanding and teaching group dynamics is crucial since, clearly, leaders are only leaders if they have people to guide. And that collectivity consists of smaller subgroups (say, workers and managers, or officers of different ranks) who deal with other groups (such as suppliers, inspectors, advertisers, customers, competitors, or communities). So leaders need to grasp not only their relations with those groups, but the internal functioning within, and the interactions among, those collectivities themselves. As a facilitative educator in leadership, you enjoy the stunning advantage of letting your participants not only study, but experience, the fascinating processes by which groups form, function, and sometimes fizzle. You want your learners to feel they learned to collaborate and display leadership by actually working in groups and exchanging ideas in a positive and supportive environment.

Definitions of Group and Group Dynamics

While terms vary, group dynamics theories almost uniformly define a “group” as two or more individuals related in some way, and “group dynamics” as the characteristic attitudes and behaviors impacting a group’s formation, structure, and workings. These evolving relational patterns within groups noted by Beck and Lewis (2000) as well as Yalom and Leszcz (2005) may be either observable or inferred: Beck and Lewis define “observable processes” as verbal or nonverbal communication, while “inferred” or “covert group processes” include conscious and unconscious intentions, motivations, and needs of separate individuals, dyads (pairs), subgroups, or the group as a whole. Hartman and Gibbard (1974), Schein (2004) and Smith (2005) concur that both observable and inferred processes may serve “adaptive,” work-oriented ends or “defensive,” work-avoidant purposes.

Although agreeing on those basic definitions, group dynamics theories diverge when considering why and how groups develop. Among main schools of thought, Homans’s 1974 social exchange theory, based on behavioral psychology, argues that groups evolve through activities, interactions, and sentiments: As individuals share activities, they interact, and develop attitudes (positive or negative) toward each other. Other social exchange theories explain group establishment as a result of individuals' expectation of mutual advantages based on trust and shared obligation. In other words, people form an affiliation if they think relationships within a collectivity will benefit them all. In contrast, social identity theory suggests that individuals join and contribute to a demographically, culturally, or organizationally identifiable group because membership in it gives them a sense of belonging and self-worth.

In addition to explaining why groups form, group dynamics theory examines how they develop. Focusing on the stages of group maturation implies that groups rarely perform at their best from the start, but must successfully negotiate predictable phases to become productive--a valuable insight for facilitative leadership developers! According to Tuckman, (1965) all groups move through the five phases of birth, power struggles, rule-setting, work, and completion--steps he conveniently names forming, storming, norming, performing, and adjourning. Each step brings up specific issues that group members must successfully manage in order to maintain group efficacy and to advance to the next stage. And each stage demonstrates typical structures and potential snags in the basic operations of communication, participation, decision-making, and roles. Leadership educators in this Workshop will experience many of these phases and functions, and will thereby be better able to bring such experience to their leadership trainees.

Lesson Plan Description

1. Introduction: What the Workshop will cover
2. Experiential Learning Activity
3. Debriefing
4. Discussion: Application of observations and experience in the Workshop (teachable moments, concerns, and resistance)
5. Questions and Answers
6. Evaluation of the Workshop

Discussion of Outcomes/Results

The Workshop leader will present verbatim accounts showing the perils, and the promise, of facilitative teaching. Workshop participants will take away a grasp of group dynamics in the facilitative classroom, tried-and-true classroom activities, and the ability to lead experiential, facilitative lessons.

Workshop Plan & Implications

Workshop participants will themselves demonstrate the power of group dynamics and the value of interactive, cooperative, student-led leadership learning. As I model the facilitator, participants will learn from my management of resistance and other pitfalls of this teaching approach. Ultimately, just as the goal of facilitative training of leaders is to create leaders through experience, the Workshop participants will both observe and practice engaging, and challenging, interactive classroom techniques meant to reveal truths about groups, collaboration, and visionary leadership.

Appendices

First-Session Interviews

Purpose: This alternative to the standard first-session demand to "introduce yourself to the class" highlights the team-building aspect of facilitation. Slightly nontraditional questions encourage, but do not force, in-depth sharing, and the dyad (pair) structure begins forming connections that feel safe between colleagues.

Instructions for the facilitator: Ask participants to pair up—ideally with someone they've never met. If there is an odd number of participants, you will be someone's partner. Spread out Animal Cards (small pictures of animals) face-up on the floor, using more than the number of class members so everyone gets a choice. Give each dyad two handouts with the following interview prompts:

- Can you tell me two unusual things that happened in your lifetime?
- Do you have any special talents or hobbies?
- What person do you most admire? Why?
- What color best describes who you are and how you feel?
- Pick an animal from these cards. Can you tell me why you selected that animal?
- If you were that animal, what would you say?

Directives to the class: "Using this list of questions and these cards, interview your partner for three minutes and then switch. Each person will introduce his or her partner to the class. Try to give the class the best possible idea of your partner. You may take notes."

Follow-Up: This fun (and often funny) activity signals the personal nature of the course and gives everybody a first acquaintance (even if someone's was you!). Participant comments illustrate the surprising depth of feeling this introductory exercise can access. One marveled, "I saw all the animal cards on the floor and my mind just took off in different directions trying to guess what the cards were about. It was interesting to see the puzzled faces on the rest of the class. Funny how something that simple can throw a group of people into a guessing spin." Another recounted, "Upon entering the classroom the first thing I noticed was the new person sitting who … introduced herself as our professor. I instantly felt a level of ease and comfort in her unassuming role as our instructor, leader, and confidante. The floor was filled with cards that had a variety of animals pictured on them; as I sat, I looked for the animal I would chose, a jaguar. I chose the jaguar because it is sexy, graceful, confident, powerful, beautiful, and ferocious, and when asked what would I say, I stated, 'Watch my swag,' which translated to, 'observe me in motion and witness my magnificence.'"

Debriefing

Purpose: Posing these questions after every project or activity fulfills two goals: It helps participants process their experience, and it gives you feedback on the project or activity.

Instructions for the facilitator: To spark discussion, invite comments: "Let's talk about what doing this was like for you," and ask the following questions. Or, you may ask participants to answer them briefly on paper:

- Was the task completed?
- What was learned?
- What was it like to work with your group/the class? Did people work as a team?
- How would you assess others' roles in this task?
- Did group interactions seem fair, or did one or more persons take over?

- How would you assess your role in this task?
- Did you complete the task but ignore how people felt, or whether everyone participated?
- Did you focus more on having people enjoy working together than on the task?
- What might have gone better in the group/class?
- Did this experience seem similar or different to working in your organization? How?

Diversity Bingo

Purpose: Another popular organizational behavior activity, this game sensitizes participants to invisible diversity issues and to the effects of prejudice.

Instructions for the facilitator: Give each participant a Diversity Bingo worksheet, below; you may alter these to highlight specific diversity issues (see Resources below).

Directives to the class: "We are playing Diversity Bingo. To win, you will need to circulate in the room and get people to sign off in the squares whose descriptions apply to them. But each person may sign your Diversity Bingo card only once, even if that person might fit the description in more than one square."

Follow-Up: In addition to the Debriefing questions, above, ask:

- Did you notice assumptions being made about yourself? About others?
- Which squares were the easiest to fill? Why?
- Which squares were hardest to fill? Why?

Obtain the signatures of people who match the description in the squares: **A person who…**				
… knows what haggis tastes like.	… was not born in a hospital.	… speaks two languages fluently.	… has foreign-born grandparents.	… celebrates Cinco de Mayo.
… has attended three rock concerts.	… paints or draws for relaxation.	… recycles regularly.	.... has immigrated to the U.S.	… is left-handed.
… knows sign language.	… married someone with a different religion.	… has gone through Greek Rush.	… ate in an ethnic restaurant within the last 24 hours.	… knows what *granita* is.
… knows what Yom Kippur is.	… has experienced being stereotyped.	… usually has his/her name mispronounced.	… knows what an upside-down pink triangle symbolizes.	… has an *abuela*.
... owns a dog or a cat.	… lives near a shopping mall.	… attends religious services weekly.	… follows football closely.	… plays computer games to relax.

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Helping Youth Maximize their Agricultural eXperience! [State] FFA's HYMAX Academy challenging students to reach success!

Robin Peiter Horstmeier, University of Missouri

Abstract

[State] Agricultural leaders identified an important need for people to advocate for the agricultural industry. As a tribute to the retiring State FFA Advisor, many donated funds in honor of his many years of service to youth and agriculture. These funds provide the means to create and implement the HYMAX Academy, targeted to provide leadership experiences to entering high school sophomores. The focus of this Academy is to combine leadership, communication, personal development, and agriculture literacy and challenge Academy members to be AGvocates. The goal is these Academy members will be able to effectively tell the story of Agriculture and to be leaders within their own home community.

Introduction

In 2011, the State FFA Advisor retired after serving in the [State] Department of Elementary and Secondary Education for 33 years. In a tribute to his effective leadership, several leaders in the agriculture community across the state began a grass roots effort to raise funds in his honor. The financial contributions were made by numerous individuals, corporations, and commodity groups. Donations were substantial and a committee was formed, including representatives from commodity groups (such as Soybeans, Pork Producers, Cattlemen, and Beef Industry Council), the retired State FFA Advisor, and new FFA leadership team members.

The committee met and wanted to utilize funds to address a state-wide need. At this point in time, HSUS had recently made a campaign against animal cruelty. This campaign was targeted towards animal agriculture, and if passed would have great implications for the [state] agriculture industry. The campaign was placed on the ballot and the through the months leading up the election, the diversity in the state population was evident through the various heated discussions.

This issue highlighted the need for leaders in the Agriculture industry, especially this state, to have a clear voice and be able to advocate for the industry. Furthermore, from this need it was evident we need to educate the population regarding agriculture the industry and leaders believed education through youth development was the key. The retired State FFA Advisor believed strongly in the committee's focus and requested the money that was donated in his name would be used to create an Academy with this focus.

Therefore, the Helping Youth Maximize their Agricultural eXperience (HYMAX) Academy was established in the fall of 2011 and is currently in its third year with Academy's held in June 2012, 2013, and to be held June 2014. The purpose of the HYMAX Academy is to strengthen the agricultural industry through education, communication, and leadership development. Specifically, Academy objectives include:

1. Create a network of Agriculture Advocates throughout the state.
2. Build on enthusiasm of first year FFA members to strengthen the member's leadership experiences throughout the high school experience.
3. Strengthen leadership capacity in Academy members, resulting in strong advocates for agriculture.
4. Challenge Academy members to serve their local community in various leadership capacities.

Review of Related Scholarship/Background

Advocacy is defined as "the act of advocating or supporting a cause or proposal." (Merriam Webster, 2013). There are different forms or types of Advocacy. These include: self, peer, group mass, media, issue-based legislative, legal, budget, health, express verses issue, faith-based, and environmental. One form or type of Advocacy is Agricultural Advocacy. This type of advocacy has been incorporated by many agricultural related organizations, primarily the American Farm Bureau Federation. However, training programs for youth to become agricultural advocates (often referenced as AGvocates) are not common. This program is innovative in that it challenges youth to think, feel and lead.

Many confuse an Advocate verses an Activist. DoSomething.org says an advocate is one who speaks on behalf of another person or group while an activist is a person who makes an intentional action to bring about a social or political change. Youth in the HYMAX Academy are challenged to think if they would be an advocate or an activist for agriculture. They also identify characteristics or traits an advocate should possess.

HYMAX Academy members also research various agricultural topics or issues currently in the media. This provides a background to topics they may encounter about agriculture when they return to their local community.

Description of the Practice

The HYMAX Academy is a three day, two night Academy held at Camp Rising Sun, the Missouri FFA Leadership Camp, located at the Lake of the Ozarks, the third week in June. The target Academy member is entering high school sophomores, or entering the second year of FFA membership. FFA Chapters may send up to four Ag Education students to apply to HYMAX. Applications to apply are due March 1, and Academy members are selected by April 1.Approximately 100 FFA members are selected and participate in HYMAX, with a priority to have every FFA area represented by Academy members. HYMAX Academy members or their chapter pays a $30 registration fee to cover materials, lodging or food expenses.

The Academy focus is serving as an agriculture advocate and the strengths necessary to serve in that role. Academy sessions include: Being an AGvocate, Tapping the Leader in You, Communicating with the Public, Effectively Using Social Media, Establishing their Brand and Career Exploration, and Taking it Home. (See Academy Schedule in Appendix 1). Presenters volunteer their time and talents as a way to invest in the future. Presenters include two former National FFA Officers from this state, [State] Farm Bureau staff member, a Careers Specialist in the state's College of Agriculture, and a high school agriculture teacher. (See Workshop Presenters in Appendix 3).

Academy members are also placed into Small Group families with a college student serving as the Small Group Facilitator. These Small Groups meet often to participate in a hands-on activity which directly applies the key points of the larger session. In addition on Friday evening, each Small Group has selected an Agriculture topic in which their small group will create an interactive presentation which addresses both the pros and cons to the controversial topic. This provides the Academy members their first opportunity to AGvocate! (See Small Group Assignments in Appendix 2).

The non-traditional agriculture opportunities available in this state are also explored, often opening the eyes of many Academy members, who often come from more traditional Ag Education programs. Academy members also chose a tour in their area of interest prior to arriving at the HYMAX Academy. Off-site tours are arranged and have previously included a fish hatchery which exports internationally, an elite golf course to examine turf grass management, and a deer production farm for hunting purposes.

Following the agriculture tours, HYMAX participants are bussed to a local school where their local FFA chapter members and advisors prepare a meal and provide a tour of their facilities. This tour highlights a non-traditional program and what the Agriculture Education students have to offer. The tour and meal are both student-led by FFA members.

To make the HYMAX Academy a reality, a program director is hired to manage the program from Academy member selection to final evaluations. State FFA staff attends the Academy and provide their insight throughout the interest of the donations in honor of the longtime agriculture leader, the State FFA Advisor.

Discussion of Outcomes / Results

In the two years of the program's existence, the number of applicants has increased, along with the number of students selected to attend. The selection process has become more competitive as the program has become more known throughout the state.

In 2012, 60.9% of students were selected, whereas in 2013, 49.7% were chosen as HYMAX Academy members. Furthermore, in 2012, 100% of the members selected to HYMAX attended. In 2013, 98.8% of the selected academy members attended, as one member had a family commitment occur after he was selected.

Table 1. HYMAX by the numbers

Year	**# applied**	**# selected**	**%**	**# attended**	**% attended**
2012	123	75	60.9	75	100
2013	177	88	49.7	87	98.8
2014	Numbers pending				

Academy members in 2012 and 2013 have stated the impact HYMAX has made in their development as leaders and advocates for agriculture. Some of their comments at the end of the 2013 Academy were as follows:

"Loved the Energy!"

"The dinner out was super and this was a great learning experience! ☺"

"I learned a lot and can't wait to go back to my chapter and share what I learned."

"All the speakers were amazing. Very educational and inspirational!"

"I loved my group and wish I could come back next year. I know I will use what I've learned throughout my Ag career. I love FFA."

"At first I thought that this was going to be boring and I was by myself. But you guys made it really fun and the last night when we got to dance was fun. I like this camp a lot."

"I really had a great time learning about all these topics and meeting new people."

"This was an amazing experience to be able to do. Thank you all for taking the time to plan this for us all."

"This was such an awesome opportunity for me! I had such a great time meeting state officers and other kids! Don't change a thing, if I could I'd come back next year! Thank you all SO much!"

"I learned a lot about how to be a leader and to take what I learned back to my chapter."

Reflections of the Practitioner

The HYMAX Academy is meeting a need for this state and is growing into an effective tool in youth leadership development in [State]. Through this weekend experience, youth are learning to become advocates for agriculture and to effectively communicate and lead a movement in their local community, state, and nation. These students at 14 and 15 years old are learning to express themselves in a positive manner. This addresses leadership at the personal development and community development levels.

This Academy goes beyond the typical FFA leadership conference. Students are challenged from the opening session to think broadly. Critical and creative thinking skills are encouraged. Within the two years in existence, this program has sparked members' enthusiasm and passion for Agriculture. The small group sessions have created a family-like atmosphere which the Academy members and small group leaders enjoy. The synergy in the small groups has led to creating entertaining, educational presentations on Sunday morning; which are a highlight capstone to the HYMAX Academy.

Recommendations

Several recommendations have been made and steps are being taken to address these recommendations. The goal of 100 Academy members participating has not yet been met. We hope to reach 100 HYMAX Academy members attending in 2014 while at the same time retaining the quality of students we have as Academy Members. The intent of HYMAX is to be an honor to be chosen to attend, with great responsibility when you return home.

Another recommendation is to conduct a research project focusing on HYMAX Alumni. The first HYMAX Academy members are now entering their senior year in high school. It is the goal to examine what their perception of the impact HYMAX had on their leadership development throughout their high school career. Furthermore, researchers will examine if these Academy members affected their local community and other chapter members' as they returned home. This study will begin in August 2014.

The planning team of the HYMAX Academy is always looking for innovative ways to improve the leadership development during the Academy. In 2014, Gallup's Strengths Quest will be incorporated throughout the sessions.

Although the HYMAX Academy is funded through the leadership fund, continued sources of funding has continued to happen. Because of the success of HYMAX throughout the state, a commodity group not originally at the table has decided to make a financial contribution to the Academy. They also would like to play a more active role in the Academy.

Due to the success of HYMAX Academy and the Academy members' desire to continue to challenge them in the area of Agriculture Advocacy, talks are currently being held to create a similar experience for entering seniors. This would have a more challenging curriculum and build on their knowledge gained thus far from the high school Agricultural Education experience to serve as AGvocates beyond high school. To date, this is in the discussion stage.

Appendix

Appendix 1 – HYMAX Schedule for 2013

Appendix 2 – Workshop Presenter Biographies

Appendix 1 –

HYMAX SCHEDULE 2013

June 28-30, 2013

Friday, June 28

1:30 - 3:30 pm **Registration & Water Front Time**

4:00 pm **General Opening Session** – Rec Hall

4:30 pm **Get to Know You Mixer** – State Officers

4:45 pm **Small Group – Get to Know You -** Small Group Leaders

5:15 pm **Ag Advocacy Session – Part I -** Garrett Hawkins, Jamie Rogers & Scott Stone

6:15 pm **Dinner** – Mess Hall

7:00 pm **Ag Advocacy Session – Part II -** Garrett Hawkins, Jamie Rogers & Scott Stone

8:15 pm **Break**

8:30 pm **Small Group – AGvocacy** – Small Group Leaders

9:15 pm **Evening Fun Session**

10:00 pm **Reflection of HYMAX Day 1** – State Officers

10:45 pm **Lights Out** – Cabins

Saturday, June 29

6:30 am**Wake up**

7:15 am**Breakfast** – Mess Hall

8:00 am**Leadership Session** – Doug Kueker

9:30 am **Break**

9:45 am **Communicating Using Social Media** – Stacy Dohle

10:45 am **Break**

11:00 am **Career Development Workshop** – Stephanie Chipman

12:15pm **Lunch** – Mess Hall

1:15 pm **Experiential Learning through SAE's Workshop** – Scott Stone

2:30 pm **Break**

3:00 pm **Small Group Work Session** – Small Group Leaders

3:30 pm C**ommunicating with the Public –** Andrew McCrea

4:30 pm **Depart for Tours & Dinner**

5:15pm **Tours**

6:30 pm **Dinner** – Mess Hall

8:30 pm **Small Group Work Session II –** AGvocacy Presentation Preparation

9:15 pm **Evening Activity** – Rec Hall, Slab

10:30 pm **Reflection of HYMAX Day 2** – State Officers

11:00 pm **Lights Out** – Cabins

Sunday, June 30

6:30 am**Wake up**

7:15 am**Optional Reflection and Devotional –** Andrew McCrea

8:00 am **Breakfast** – Mess Hall

8:45 am**Final Small Group Session–AGvocacy Presentation Prep** – Small Group Leaders

9:45 am **Agriculture Advocacy Presentations**

10:45 am **Camp & Cabin Clean Up** – Ag Educators

11:15 am **Taking HYMAX Home & Reflections** – Robin Peiter Horstmeier

11:30 am **Closing Session** & **Dismiss to go Home – SAFE TRAVELS!**

Appendix 2 – Workshop Presenters

Workshop Presenter Biographies

Agricultural Advocacy – Garrett Hawkins

Mr. Garrett Hawkins serves as the Director of National Legislative Programs for the Missouri Farm Bureau Federation. He has held this position since September 2002. His responsibilities include lobbying Missouri's Congressional delegation and Federal agencies in Washington, D.C. and directing the organization's policy development process. He was raised on his family's diversified farm in St. Clair County. He is a graduate of Appleton City High School and Missouri State University. Garrett is an alumnus of the Missouri Agricultural Leadership of Tomorrow and serves on the organization's board of directors. He is also a past state FFA officer. Garrett, his wife Jennifer, daughter Adelyn (age 4) and son Colt (age 1) live in Jefferson City.

Agricultural Advocacy – Jamie Rogers

Jamie Lile Rogers could say that FFA's mission statement "to make a positive difference" has rang true in her life. After serving as a chapter and area FFA officer, Rogers was selected to serve as State FFA President in 2001. Rogers has a degree in Agricultural Education from Missouri State University in Springfield. She taught high school agriculture and served as an FFA advisor for 3 years. She continues to have an active role in training future FFA leaders, assisting with the BLAST OFF training for Missouri State FFA Officers and the Area Officer Institute each year. Rogers now helps her dad manage the family business, Lile Quarry, Inc. a limestone quarry in southwest Missouri that supplies gravel for construction and agricultural lime for local farmers. Rogers and her husband Steven (also a former State FFA President) live between Strafford and Marshfield, MO where they raise their sons Eli and Ethan and are part of her family's farming operation. They raise purebred Red Angus cattle. Steven works for DESE as a State Supervisor in Agricultural Education and also works with CDE's, the Missouri State Fair, FFA Alumni and numerous other FFA events across the state. They also lead the 56'ers, the preteen group, at their church.

Ag Advocacy & Experiential Learning: Supervised Agricultural Experience - Scott Stone

Mr. Scott Stone has been teaching Agricultural Education and serving as an FFA Advisor for 15 years at Centralia. A former state FFA officer from Pennsylvania, he has shared his passion for agriculture and the FFA with numerous youth and adults across Missouri. His students have excelled in the area of SAE's, impacting the local economy while also winning seven state Proficiency Awards. His education includes degrees from the University of Missouri. He has held leadership positions in the Agricultural Education teachers Association, where he served as President. He lives in Centralia with his three wonderful children Zane, Annamarie, and Stetson, and a lovely wife, Jeannette. He and his family enjoy raising sheep and goats.

Leadership - Doug Kueker

Mr. Doug Kueker is the Director of Learning Services for Vivayic. In this role, he is responsible for the overall management of Vivayic's instructional development and instructional technology practice. He structures work plans and coordinates a team of instructional designers and programmers to implement design plans. Mr. Kueker selects and implements appropriate web-based technologies and digital media assets to accomplish the desired objectives for each client's learning goals. Mr. Kueker is deeply engaged in the field of learning and training design. Before coming to Vivayic, he was an educational project management specialist for the National FFA Organization. While there, he gained deep experience by facilitating the management of 25 projects ranging from small multi-month to large multi-year initiatives. He also designed instructional materials and curricula that reach approximately 10,000 students and 11,000 teachers across the U.S. Mr. Kueker earned his B.S. in Agricultural Science Education with a Minor in Agricultural Economics from the University of Missouri. He also holds an M.S. in Educational Psychology from Purdue University. Currently he is completing coursework toward his PhD. in Information Sciences and Learning Technologies from the University of Missouri. A native of Sweet Springs, MO, he served as a past state FFA President and national FFA Central Region Vice President.

Careers – Stephanie Chipman

Mrs. Stephanie Chipman has served as the Director of Career Services for the University of Missouri College of Agriculture, Food & Natural Resources since October 2004 – long enough to be a true Tiger! Prior to joining the CAFNR team at Mizzou, Stephanie worked in both career services and academic advising at Truman State University. Degrees include a BA in Psychology and a MEd from Drury University. Recognized with an Honorary State FFA Degree in 2009, Stephanie considers FFA a valuable partner in encouraging young people to consider and prepare for career opportunities in agriculture.

Social Media - Stephanie Dohle

Stacy Dohle was raised on a diversified crop and beef cattle farm near Archie, MO. After attending and graduating from Missouri State University in 1995 with an Agricultural Communications degree, she started her career at KTTS radio in Springfield, MO in sales and as assistant Farm News Director. In 1997, she became full time as the Farm News Director and reported farm news and markets 12 times per day. In 2000, Stacy had the opportunity to join Midwest Dairy Association, a 10-state regional check off organization of the dairy industry. Today, as the Senior Communications Manager, Stacy is responsible for leading and developing industry information efforts to help inspire consumer confidence in dairy farmers and their on-farm production practices. By collaborating with other program teams, she provides leadership with the content and coordination of presentations given by dairy farmers and dairy farm tours for influencer groups, such as health and nutrition professionals, mom bloggers, dietetic interns and the Midwest Dairy Retail Academy. In the past three years, Stacy has been involved in over 70 dairy farmer presentation and/or farm tours with key influencer groups to help build a positive dairy image with trust and understanding between dairy farmers and consumers about on-farm practices and producing a safe and wholesome food called milk. Stacy, along with her husband Dean and son Grant, live on a small farm of 200 acres near Pleasant Hope, MO where they raise beef cattle and milk 50 head of registered Jersey cattle.

Communications & Devotional - Andrew McCrea

Mr. Andrew McCrea is a farmer and rancher, an award-winning syndicated radio broadcaster, and a frequent speaker on leadership topics. He is a past state FFA President and national FFA Secretary. A graduate of the University of Missouri, he earned his degree in agriculture and returned to the family farm in northwest Missouri to help manage the operation with his father. In 1996 he began producing "The American Countryside" radio program. Today the program is heard Monday through Friday on over 100 stations across the Midwest. McCrea has interviewed a great variety of guests over the years…Emmy and Grammy winners, Hall of Fame athletes, Iditarod sled dog mushers and even the rooster crowing champion! He is also the author of six books on life and leadership. He has spoken to groups in 49 states and audiences of over 10,000 people. After returning to the family farm he began to serve in many volunteer roles. He is the past chairman of the Missouri Beef Industry Council and Heartland Foundation and a current member of the King City School Board. He also serves as a speaker at many Protestant and Catholic churches. He and his wife Paula have two children, Luke and Alison.

Program Coordinator & Taking HYMAX Home – Robin Peiter Horstmeier

Dr. Robin Peiter Horstmeier is Founder, President and CEO of Horstmeier Consulting LLC. In this capacity, she creates educational programs, workshops, and research focused on agricultural education, youth organizations, and leadership development. Robin also is an Associate Teaching Professor at the University of Missouri-Columbia where she teaches graduate courses in Youth Development focusing on Youth Organizations. An agricultural educator for the past 16 years, her previous work experience includes serving as an Associate Professor at the University of Kentucky, Graduate Teaching Associate at Oklahoma State University, and Agricultural Educator at Sweet Springs R-7 Schools in Sweet Springs, MO. Raised on her family's diversified farm in Palmyra MO, she was an active member of FFA and 4-H, and continues to raise sheep which began as a 4-H project and grew through her Supervised Agricultural Experience Program. She has a BS and MEd degrees from the University of Missouri and a PhD in Agricultural Education from Oklahoma State University. Dr. Horstmeier and her husband Matt live in O'Fallon, MO with her sons Bryant (age 4) and Brody (age 3).

Leadership After Dark:
An Alternative Delivery Method for an Introductory Leadership Course

William Weeks & Penny Pennington Weeks
Oklahoma State University

Abstract

This poster describes how faculty modified an existing one-credit hour introductory leadership course from a 16- week format to a three-evening format and did so with good success. Faculty used the Student Leadership Challenge (Kouzes and Posner, 2008) as a text and framework for the class.

Introduction

Teaching introductory level courses is a challenge for any discipline. On one hand, faulty want to build a foundation for future leadership courses, and on the other, students thirst for skills they can put to use in their lives right now. The Leadership Challenge (Kouzes and Posner, 2009), and The Student Leadership Challenge (Kouzes and Posner,

2008) are two textbooks that are used widely in leadership development programs and college student leadership development programs. Both texts aims to help leaders engage in best practices and are built around five practices ot behaviors in leadership: Model the Way, Inspire a Shared Vision, Challenge the Process, Enable Others to Act, and Encourage the Heart. Kouzes and Posner describe these practices not as aspects of a leader's personality, but behaviors that can be learned; appropriate activities for an introductory leadership course.

Initially our introductory course was taught to students in the second semester of their freshman year, taught over a traditional, 16-week semester, and used the full, 350+ page The Leadership Challenge textbook. Students balked at the amount of reading, and students and faculty were equally unhappy with the time lag between classes. Faculty moved the course to a twice-a-week format directly following an eight-week college orientation course for freshman and adopted the 165 page, Student Leadership Challenge text. While the compressed format and shorter text were more palatable, faculty wondered if students might be willing to compress the course further. Faculty proposed and were granted a class schedule deviation to teach the introductory course on three consecutive nights, Wednesday, Thursday, and Friday from 5:00 p.m. to 9:30 p.m. in early November. Thus the innovation described in this poster proposal is not of an introductory leadership course, but that we teach that one-credit hour introductory course over three weeknights in a regular semester.

Description of Program

On day one, the class begins with students taking the student version of the Leadership Practice Inventory (LPI) assessment. This 30 item inventory measures the frequency with which students engage in 30 leadership behaviors: the foundation of the five leadership practices. Nahavandi (2009) suggests that providing participants with data about their current strengths is one of the first principles of an effective leadership development program. Students share the results of the LPI, and then are debriefed as faculty help students understand their scores relative to other student leaders. Feedback on the LPI assessment is important as it 1) exposes students the five behaviors of the Leadership Challenge and 2) can help students be aware of the need for change. The importance of 360 degree feedback is discussed with students.

In addition to the LPI, the behaviors Model the Way and Inspire a Shared Vision introduced on the first night. Students are given 45 minutes to complete a worksheet which highlights important concepts from each chapter and discussion of the chapter follows. On the first evening, we provided pizza to the class and we worked straight through our allotted class time. In subsequent evenings we took one, 30 minute dinner break. The first evening concludes with student groups presenting video clips to the class which exemplify the Model the Way or Inspire a Shared Vision leadership behavior.

Day two follows a format much like the first evening as students complete a worksheet covering the leadership behaviors of Challenge the Process and Enable Others to Act followed by discussion and a break. To help student see how these two behaviors play out in their lives, students analyze the contents of a current issue of the USA Today newspaper. They then clip appropriate artifacts and reflect in writing on the articles' application to the respective practice.

On the third and final evening, students complete a worksheet addressing the leadership behavior, Encourage the Heart as they have with the other behaviors. Then, emphasizing the sheer volume of ideas, students record on a wipeboard as many ideas as they can find from the textbook on ways that leaders can recognize their followers and celebrate individual and group achievement. With faculty providing needed resources, students then "practice" ways that leaders "encourage the heart". Turning lemons into lemonade, awarding certificates of achievement, toasting accomplishments with real "toast", allowing followers to "whine" about a problem by with small glasses of wine (sparkling cider), and playing with puzzles are all examples of ways that students have practiced how they might help individuals and teams celebrate accomplishments. The last activity is the viewing of a feature film with leadership implications; in our class we used the animated film, Chicken Run (1996). Students view the film looking for the five leadership behaviors already mentioned. A multiple choice, final examination concludes our one-credit hour course.

Results to Date

We have taught this one-credit hour introductory leadership twice in this format. Student reaction to the compressed format has been overwhelmingly positive. When we asked students about the "late" hour, they told us we were out of touch with student's schedules and that more classes should be scheduled in evening hours. Students also told us that more classes should be offered in a variety of formats to better accommodate students' unique work and study habits.

Implications/Future Plans

To date the class has been limited to 25 students and has been filled each time it was offered. We believe we could expand the number of sections and the enrollment considerably with a little help from graduate assistants. In fall 2014 we will take the course "on the road" and teach it at three, two-year colleges in our state. Additionally, College administration has also asked us to teach the course for the College's freshman living-learning community.

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Camp Brosius Leadership Development Program

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Introduction:

Leadership, teamwork, and professionalism are desirable outcomes for all college students. In fact, a survey of employers found both leadership and teamwork skills to be among the top 10 skills that are sought in potential employees (NACE, 2010). Four years ago the Indiana University-Purdue University Indianapolis (IUPUI) Department of Kinesiology worked with the Military Science Department to adopt and modify the Army ROTC's Leadership Development Program to align with the Department of Kinesiology' student learning outcomes. As a graduation requirement, all students in the Department of Kinesiology are required to attend a 1-week residential leadership development camp at Camp Brosius in Elkhart Lake, Wisconsin. At this camp students are placed into teams, or as we call it "families", and work with this team throughout the week in a series of leadership and team-building challenges. We utilize a series of challenge and problem-solving activities to focus on developing leadership and teamwork skills in students (Panicucci, 2008).

Background:

Taking students to a residential camp allows for a deeper learning experience (Lien & Goldenberg, 2012). Similarly, the use of challenge and problem-solving activities fosters an environment that pushes students beyond their comfort zone into what is called a learning zone (Panicucci, 2008). Camp Brosius Leadership Development Camp is a unique and rewarding experience for students. Students are taken off of the large urban campus and attend Camp Brosius in a rural-residential camp setting. Students are assigned living, family, dining, and committee arrangements. It provides multiple opportunities for growth in the areas of leadership, teamwork, and professionalism. For example, one student wrote the following in one of his daily journal entries: "I was surprised by the Camp Brosius experience. I had dreaded going to this camp the entire time, but it really changed me as a person. It helped me to really get out of my shell and be more confident when approaching new situations and not to be afraid to take risks."

Description of the Program:

The Students are evaluated on 20 leadership dimensions using a 360 degree approach. First, students self-evaluate themselves before and after the 1-week camp experience as well as after each time they lead an activity. Second, the students are evaluated by a leadership counselor (an upper-level Kinesiology student who has already attended Camp Brosius), and finally by each of their teammates. This assessment approach allows for feedback from three different viewpoints. Additionally, students complete daily journals that allows for qualitative assessment of leadership and personal growth throughout the week-long experience.

In the summers of 2011 and 2012 students from the Department of Kinesiology (N=314) attended a 1-week residential leadership development camp. The leadership development camp was adapted from the Army ROTC's leadership program and focused on a total of 20 leadership dimensions. Students were put into small teams in which they led their peers through a series of challenge and problem solving activities. Prior to attending the camp, students completed a self-evaluation of their perceived leadership skills. Students completed the survey again at the end of the 1-week leadership development camp.

Results

Paired t-test statistical analysis revealed, overall, a significant change in perception regarding 14 out of the 20 leadership dimensions ($p < .001$); see table 1. Further analysis revealed that when various demographic information is controlled for (i.e., major, gender, race) and the large group is sorted into smaller more demographically similar groups, differences in perceived leadership dimensions are greatly reduced from the one-week intensive programming. These findings will be discussed more fully during the presentation.

TABLE 1.

	Pre		Post			
LEADERSHIP DIMENSION	M	sd	M	sd	t	p
1- WORK ETHIC	1.615	.6885	1.462	.5983	3.585	.000
2- RESPECT	1.594	.6136	1.262	.4617	9.126	.000
3- ETHICAL	1.489	.5724	1.313	.4713	4.866	.000
4- INTEGRITY	1.615	.6310	1.394	.5454	5.828	.000
5- EMPATHY	1.571	.6066	1.346	.5277	6.031	.000
6-PHYSICALLY FIT	1.654	.6228	1.426	.5329	6.104	.000
7- CONFIDENT	1.885	.6259	1.587	.5884	7.600	.000
8- RESILIENT	1.642	.5668	1.339	.4941	8.377	.000
9- MENTAL AGILITY	1.421	.5385	1.550	.5539	-3.274	.000
10- SOUND JUDGEMENT	1.447	.5644	1.505	.5554	-1.482	.139
11- INNOVATION	1.484	.6118	1.581	.5958	-2.238	.026
12- INTERPERSONAL TACT	1.395	.5519	1.437	.5466	-.972	.332
13- TIME MANAGEMENT	1.575	.6539	1.740	.6284	-3.460	.001
14- LEADS OTHERS	1.583	.5735	1.410	.5310	4.507	.000
15-LEADS BY EXAMPLE	1.545	.5660	1.377	.5051	4.167	.000
16- COMMUNICATES	1.520	.6016	1.536	.5953	-.382	.703

17- POSITIVE ENVIORNMENT	1.529	.5555	1.279	.4706	6.697	.000
18- PREPARES SELF	1.571	.5804	1.516	.5382	1.359	.175
19- DEVELOPS OTHERS	1.708	.5978	1.627	.5476	1.955	.051
20- GETS RESULTS	1.545	.5304	1.403	.4978	3.799	.000

Conclusions/Recommendations

According to this information, a 1-week intensive leadership development camp does significantly impact self-reported perceived leadership skills on 14 of the 20 dimensions. Tentatively, this project introduces the thought that heterogeneity in leadership training may be a stark advantage and lead to significant change in leadership dimensions, based on a one-week intensive program. Alternately, homogenous groups may not realize as pronounced differences in leadership dimensions from a similar program. This indicates that group characteristics impact the extent to which changes in leadership dimensions can change. Overall, these findings have implications in curricular development amongst college students, as leadership and teamwork are two skills sought in entry-level employees. Curriculum should be evaluated to explore the option of adding leadership development courses among a varied student population.

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Undergraduate Students' Perceptions Regarding the Five Theory X Leadership Style Beliefs/Assumptions

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Abstract

Established beliefs and biases influence leaders' decisions and styles of management. This study examined undergraduate students' perceptions regarding the Theory X assumptions that suggest leaders characterized by Theory X beliefs are task-focused. Forty-five percent of the participants disagreed with an assumption that the average person is by nature indolent while 34% of the students agreed with the same assumption. A majority (57%) of the students did not agree with an assumption that states an average person lacks ambition and prefers to be led; however, 27% of the students agreed with that statement. On the other-hand, 63% of the participants agreed with the belief that an average person is by nature resistant to change. A majority (58%) of the participants disagreed with an assumption that an average person is inherently self-centered, but nearly a third (29%) of the participants agreed that an average person is inherently self-centered. The vast majority (73%) of the participants disagreed with an assumption that average person is gullible, not very bright, and the ready target for manipulation. Results show no significant difference between male and female student perceptions on these variables. Overall, the findings indicate that although a significant minority hold predispositions towards Theory X beliefs, most of these students have predispositions towards Theory Y beliefs, which is a people-oriented leadership style. These findings make students' aware of their own and their peers' leadership style tendencies, and may cause them to reflect, and examined their own assumptions and beliefs.

Introduction

Human perception is influenced by the totality of the generic knowledge structure-schemata, constructs, information, and beliefs, but the structure itself is an unreliable guide to the nature of reality because beliefs influence how individuals characterize phenomena, and see and/or understand the world (Pajares, 1992). Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1958) proposed an autocratic-democratic continuum model, which suggests that leaders (decision makers) can employ a varying degree of employee/subordinate participation in decision making ranging from authoritative or boss-centered leadership to employee-centered (democratic) leadership approach. McGregor (1960) proposed that managers possessing a theory X orientation assume that employees usually seek to only meet lower-order physiological and safety needs through tangible rewards (e.g. pay and bonuses) as well as through the avoidance of disincentives (e.g. threats and discipline).

Background

This study was based on the Theory X assumptions developed by McGregor (1960), which suggested that managers typically assume employees possess unfavorable opinions about work, are incapable of self-direction, need top-down direction, must be coerced to work, and avoid taking responsibility for organizational outcomes; therefore, employees must be controlled, directed or threated with punishment to put adequate effort to achieve the organizational goals. Nespor (1987) contended that belief systems, unlike knowledge systems, do not require general or group consensus regarding the validity and suitability of their beliefs. Individual beliefs do not even require internal consistency within the belief system. Nespor further discussed that belief systems are also illimitable in that their relevance to reality defies logic, whereas knowledge systems are better defined and receptive to reason. Nonetheless, he concluded that beliefs are far more influential than knowledge in determining how individuals organize and define tasks and problems and are stronger predictors of behavior. The purpose of this study was to identify undergraduate students' perceptions regarding Theory X assumptions and explore their leadership style dispositions. The specific objectives of this study were to: 1) identify the participants' perceptions regarding the five Theory X beliefs, 2) determine the participants' leadership style dispositions, and 3) compare the differences between male and female respondents' perceptions regarding Theory X assumptions and their leadership style tendencies.

Method

The target population was 90 undergraduate students who were enrolled in a leadership course offered by the Agricultural Education Department at [State] university. Students were asked to complete a survey, which consisted of five descriptive statements of Theory X assumptions/beliefs. Students rated the assumptions on a five-point Likert-type scale: 0= Strongly disagree, 1= Disagree, 2= Neutral, 3= Agree and 4= Strongly agree. Reliability for the Theory X items was established at Cronback alpha .79 (Kopelman, Prottas, and Falk, 2009). The survey was delivered using Qualtrics software and the data was analyzed using SPSS.

Results to Date

The population consisted of 90 undergraduate students enrolled in a junior level leadership course. Eighty-two participants (91%) of the students responded to the survey. The results are presented in Table 1. The findings indicate that 45% of the students disagree with an assumption that the average person is by nature indolent; on the contrary, 34% of the students agree with that assumption. A majority (57%) of the students did not agree with an assumption that an average person lacks ambition and prefers to be led; in contrast, 27% of the students agreed with that statement. On the other-hand, 63% of the participants agreed with the belief that an average person is by nature resistant to change. A majority of the participants (58%) disagreed with an assumption that an average person is inherently self-centered, but nearly a third (29%) of the participants agreed that an average person is inherently self-centered. The vast majority (73%) of the participants disagreed with an assumption that average person is gullible, not very bright, and the ready target for manipulation.

Table 1

Frequency Distribution, Percentage, Mean and Standard Deviation Scores of Participants' Responses (N = 82)

	Statement	Disagree/ Strongly Disagree	Neutral	Agree/ Strongly Agree	Mean	SD.
1	The average person is by nature indolent – working as little as possible.	37(45%)	17(21%)	28(34%)	2.85	.94
2	The average person lacks ambition, dislikes responsibility and prefers to be led.	47(57%)	13(16%)	22(27%)	2.65	.94
3	The average person is by nature resistant to change	14(17%)	16(20%)	52(63%)	3.45	.80
4	The average person is inherently self-centered and indifferent to organizational needs.	47(58%)	11(13%)	24(29%)	2.72	.97

5	The average person is gullible, not very bright, and the ready dupe of the charlatan and the demagogue.	60(73%)	12(15%)	10(12%)	2.20	.90

Discussion

The overall findings of this study indicate that these students possess leadership styles that lean more towards Theory Y assumptions – (people-focused leadership style) rather than Theory X assumption, which is a task-focused leadership approach. However, a majority (63%) of the participants believed that an average person is by nature resistant to change, which suggests as leaders they may consider applying external incentives/disincentives to achieve the desired change – task-focused approach. Although a majority of the participants have a predisposition towards people-focused leadership styles, about the third of the participants hold task-oriented leadership styles. Generally, a majority of the participants hold predominantly people-oriented leadership style, but they may implement strategies that include a mix of both people and task-oriented leadership styles. Instructors may conduct a quick survey and collect data from their students on a relevant leadership topic in a similar fashion and analyze the data in a timely manner and present the findings to the participants as a feedback and discussion activity to encourage reflection and learning on a given topic.

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Teaching Moral Theories Using *Lone Survivor*

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Introduction

In an applied ethics in leadership course, the key word is applied. Helping students see the application of moral theories in real-life situations is key to their understanding, but many case studies from the business world can be boring because most students are not connected to the business world yet. Even though authentic cases may be used, they have the same impact as contrived cases. Students also have difficulty connecting to contrived cases. However, students are connected to pop culture and as such, pop culture can be used to gain their interest and help them see connections between moral theory and real-life moral dilemmas.

Program Description

In a senior-level applied ethics in leadership class, the instructor used a moral dilemma from the book *Lone Survivor: The Eyewitness Account of Operation Red Wing and Lost Heroes of SEAL Team 10* (Luttrell & Patrick, 2007). Most students in the class had seen the movie by the same title that was released in 2013. Some had even read Luttrell's book. Luttrell presents a real-life moral dilemma faced by the four members of SEAL team 10 when they were discovered by three goat herders while on a mission deep in Kunar Province, Afghanistan, in 2005 (Luttrell & Patrick, 2007). Students were asked to read an excerpt from the book describing the team's dilemma and apply the appropriate moral theories to the case.

The Dilemma

The SEAL team members were faced with the decision of what to do with the three goat herders who had stumbled upon the team during their reconnaissance mission. Their decision was complicated by the fact that the three goat herders were unarmed and one of the herders was a boy of about 14 years. The military option would be to kill the goat herders to protect the mission and the team's own lives. But the Geneva Convention clearly states that unarmed civilians are to be spared. To further complicate their decision, they knew that if they killed the goat herders, their bodies would be found and the Taliban would use their deaths to condemn the American military in the press. The team feared that they could be brought up on murder charges upon returning to the United States and be sent to a civilian prison. They had seen this very scenario unfold for several of their fellow soldiers. The team voted 2-1 to let the herders go free (one member abstained) and to retreat to another location.

Current Results

Students were able to justify the application of several moral theories to the SEAL team's dilemma. Among the theories they found applicable were Ethical Egoism, Altruism, and Utilitarianism. Some students were able to apply and defend Kant's Categorical Imperative to the dilemma (Pojman & Fieser, 2009). In addition, students were able to examine the moral development of each SEAL team member using Kohlberg's Stages of Moral Development (Cain, 1999). Each SEAL team member was found to be at a different level of moral development. Luttrell's account provides sufficient dialogue that students could see the different stages through the thought processes of each team member.

Conclusions/Recommendations

The use of cases from the popular media that are actual cases of moral decision-making engages students in the analysis of those decisions. Such case studies provide a greater level of engagement from the students while helping them see moral theories in action. What may appear to be an altruistic act (letting the herders go free) turns out to be an act of egoism when the decision-making process is examined.

Students also gained a better understanding of the stages of moral development and how people of similar ages and experience can be at different stages of development.

Other characters in Luttrell's book face their own moral dilemmas. It is recommended that in addition to the SEAL team's moral dilemma, that other dilemma's in the book be used to engage students in the analysis of moral decision-making.

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Towards a Conceptual Model of Change

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Introduction

According to Boone, Safrit, and Jones, change is the “alteration of the structure and/or behavior of systems, and it may be planned or unplanned” (2002, pg. 10). Three types of change are utilized in educational programs: individual, organizational, and community and societal change (Caffarella & Daffron, 2013). Organizational change is the transformation of an organization from one point in time to another (Barnett & Carroll, 1995). This poster is a visual depiction of a conceptual framework developed by the author to illustrate four stages of change development: **i**nformation, **c**ollaboration, **t**ransformation and implementation, and **c**elebration or ICTC as seen in Figure 1.

Background

The word “leadership” encompasses a broad array of theoretical and conceptual frameworks. Change is an important aspect of leadership and is more often than not an expected outcome or result of any particular theory or model. For example, the social change model focuses on individual group and societal values to implement change (Komives & Wager, 2009) or Kotter’s Eight Steps to Transforming Your Organization (Kotter, 1995). Whether it is change in a leader’s skills or abilities or change in regards to a leader’s followers, “leaders need to learn how to take action effectively to help our organizations actually become what they need and want to be” (Wagner et al., 2006, p. xvi).

Description

The first stage in the ICTC model is information (see Figure 1). In the information stage, a group or team that is involved in the change process gathers information in their area of expertise related to the change the organization wants to implement. Members of the group will each be content specialists in specific areas such as finance, distribution, or human resources. The content specialists should include an array of stakeholders, supervisors, middle-management, and subordinates from all levels of the organizational hierarchy.

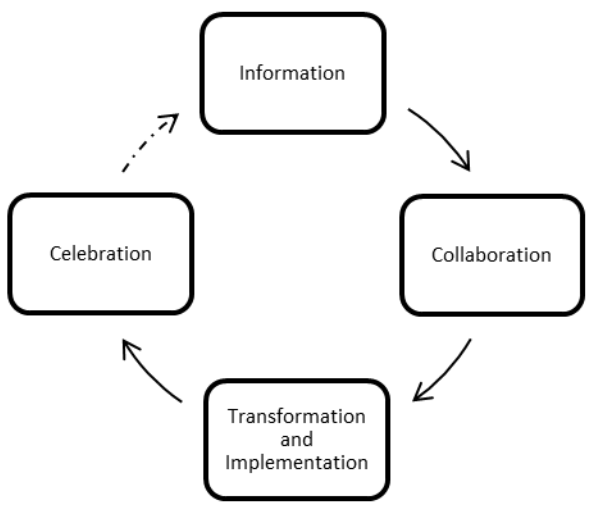

Figure 3. The Stages of the ICTC Model

The second stage is collaboration. In this stage, it is important that the team come up with a clear vision for the change that is to be implemented in the next step of the cycle. “A vision integrates what is possible and what can be realized" (Bass, 2008, p. 629). The content specialists should then work together to evaluate the information gathered in the information stage. Northouse (2009) states to "successfully lead an organization toward change, a leader needs to be sensitive to how her or his own ideas fit in with others' ideas" (p. 69).

During the third stage of the model, the change is implemented and transformation in the organization occurs. It could take few months to a few years for the change to be fully implemented and lead to a transformation in the organization.

The final stage in the ICTC model is celebration. When the change is fully implemented and has led to a transformation in the organization, the organization should celebrate its change and look towards the next opportunity to bring the organization to new heights of success.

Recommendations for Practice

The ICTC model provides an intuitive framework to apply organizational change within existing curriculum. This model can be used in the educational leadership classroom in a variety of ways. For example, in an undergraduate leadership course at [University], undergraduate students are currently working with local non-profit or government organizations to create positive organizational change [Author B]. Students meet with their client and begin to gather information in the first stage of the cycle. The students then collaborate with the organizational stakeholders and content specialists to determine the issue the organization wants to address. In stage three, students provide written recommendations for the organization to implement that will lead to transformation. At the close of the term, students meet with their organization and celebrate the implementation for the desired change. In another undergraduate leadership course at [University], students must reflect upon past service opportunities [Author A] which is part of the collaboration stage in ICTC.

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The Great Debate: An Exploration of Using Debate in the Leadership Classroom

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Introduction and Background

Leadership can be taught through various avenues. The traditional delivery of leadership education consists of a series of lectures delivered in the classroom (Curtin, 2002). However, within the past ten years leadership educators have striven to actively engage leadership students in the learning process by incorporating simulations, popular movies, television series, and even poetry in the leadership curriculum (Allen, 2008; Graham, Ackermann, & Maxwell, 2004; Williams, 2006; Eastwood, 2010). The overall goal of these activities are to encourage higher order thinking skills, encourage student engagement, and increase the overall understanding of leadership theories, philosophies, and models. Furthermore, learning occurs when students have an experience that allows them to make applications from the course content (Gregory, Halloway, 2005).

Debate is not a new concept. It made its first debut over 2400 years ago at Cambridge University (Garrett, 1996). Debate has long had a place in the educational system in a variety of disciplines including history, philosophy, communications, and political science. Debate is an activity used to reinforce concepts, promote critical thinking, and develop oral communication skills. However, a review of leadership education literature lacks citing the use of debate in the leadership classroom. Therefore, the purpose of this proposal is to describe the use of debate in an upper division leadership course at a southern land-grant institution.

Theoretical Framework

The debate activity utilizes Kolb's Experiential Learning theory to actively engage students in the learning process. The Experiential Learning theory emphasizes learning as a process in which knowledge is created through experience. Therefore, it is a combination of "grasping and transforming experience" (Kolb, Boyatzis, Mainemlis, 1999, p.2). Kolb's Model of Experiential Learning outlines a four-step process: concrete experience (feeling), reflective observation (watching), critical thinking (thinking), and active experimentation (doing). The activity of debate supports Kolb's model by presenting students with an initial concept (concrete experience), presenting two sides of an issue (reflective observation), assigning each student a side in the debate to research (critical thinking), and finally allowing students the opportunity to actively participate in the debate process as a debate team member.

Methods

In an upper division leadership course, all students were assigned a topic to debate throughout the course of a semester. The instructor worked with faculty in the communications department to design the debate parameters. This consultation ensured proper debate protocol was followed as well as created a format to ensure fairness for both sides involved in the debate. Time limits for each portion of the debate were established to fit the class time constraints. The debate structure was specific and, consequently, required students to manage their allotted time carefully.

Debate topics included trait theory, ethics, transformational leadership, servant leadership, and conflict resolution. Every student was assigned to a debate team and given their assigned topic at the beginning of the semester. Students were assigned readings over the debate topics. However, the expectation for debate participants was to conduct further research to prepare a research based argument for their assigned position. The remaining students in the class were tasked with researching the topic in order to prepare questions to be asked during the debate. At the conclusion of the debate, all students were required to write a reflection over the debate topic. In the reflection, students were asked to identify what side of the issue they supported, use research and facts to support their opinion, and explain how this opinion impacts their overall view of leadership. Students were encouraged to utilize examples from the debate, in-class discussion, and the additional research they conducted.

Results and Recommendations

The implementation of a series of debates enhanced the overall curriculum in the upper division leadership course. At the completion of the debates, students demonstrated a stronger understanding of leadership theories, philosophies, models and concepts when compared to previous semesters. Students were more engaged in class discussion and were able to retain the information throughout the course of the semester as demonstrated in a variety of activities and assessments. Perhaps this is due to the level of individual research required during the preparation of the debate. Moreover, students reported the experience was beneficial as it taught them how improve their research skills (many met with the research librarian), communication skills (teams practiced prior to the debate), and think critically (as they had to prepare for the opposition).

While the instructor will continue to incorporate debate in future leadership classes, a few adjustments will made to enhance further enhance the learning experience. First, training on debate etiquette will be provided. Initially, students struggled with understanding debate structure. Perhaps students could attend a debate hosted by the university debate team or students could watch a debate video. The training should also cover address how to appropriately communicate during the debate. This would help to minimalize tempers. While passion about leadership is welcome, students need to be able to express their thoughts and opinions in a calm and rational manner. Next, new debate topics should be added. This will help keep the debate activity new and fresh. Additionally, it keeps students from obtaining materials from previous leadership students. Finally, the instructor should consider how to design an online debate activity. Many leadership courses are being offered online and an online debate could enhance the curriculum.

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GLEE-dership

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Introduction

"The best teachers don't give you the answers. They just point the way and let you make your own choices – your own mistakes. That way, you get all the glory, and you deserve it" ("Will Schuester", *Glee*, ep. 1.12). Will Schuester is just one of the many characters on the TV show Glee. According to FOX (2014), Glee is a musical comedy based on a high school Glee Club in small town Lima, Ohio at McKinley High School. The show follows students who are seen as outcasts by many, but find a place within the glee club that becomes like family. The students within the show deal with real-life situations that typical high school students could face (crushes, school problems, sports drama, graduation, etc.). Throughout the seasons and the situations they face, Glee characters develop and provide examples of both good and poor leadership qualities. It is these leadership qualities that can be brought into the classroom to teach students about leadership styles.

Background

Blake and Mouton (1964) created a Managerial Grid that displayed five types of leadership: Impoverished, Country Club, Produce or Perish (Dictatorial), Team, and Middle-of-the-road. The grid is based on two axes: "human interaction" and "the job itself" (Gregoire, Fada, and Arendt, 2004, p. 395). The dimensions proposed by Blake and Mouton (1964) represent the struggle leaders face in deciding the appropriate amount of time necessary to designate to people and production in an organization. According to Pheng and Lee (1997), the concern for the job, or production, "would include results, bottom line or profits," while the concern for people may include "getting results based on trust, respect, obedience, understanding, or support" (p. 395).

Description of Program

With instant access to video clips through websites like YouTube available at professors' fingertips, the idea of incorporating videos into a classroom is nothing new. According to Berk (2009), there are twelve ways educators could incorporate video usage into their teachings:

1. Provide content and information
2. Illustrate a concept or principle
3. Present alternative viewpoints
4. Apply content to real-world applications
5. Serve as a stimulus for learning activities
6. Provide a good or bad application to critique
7. Exaggerate a particular point
8. Snap students to attention
9. Insert into collaborative learning exercises
10. Motivate and inspire
11. Provide a commercial break
12. Signal a return from a class break

The goal of this classroom innovation is to use video clips from the TV show Glee to "illustrate a concept or principle" (Berk, 2009, p. 10) of leadership styles based on Blake & Mouton's Managerial Grid (1964). Students would be shown clips of Glee characters in various leadership roles and assign each character to a quadrant of the Grid. Discussion would include reasoning for placement of characters, situational influence of leadership style, and whether or not a character switches styles. Preliminary character identification includes:

Coach Sue Sylvester: Cheerleading Coach and later Principle of McKinley High. Sue would be an example of Blake and Mouton's (1964) Produce or Perish leader – high production/low people. Zeidan (2009) said that produce or perish leaders find "employees needs un important and simply a means to an end" (p. 84). Sue can often be found tormenting students, specifically the Glee Club, and makes it a point to constantly remind everyone that she is an award winning coach. When in a leadership role, Sue tends to be bossy and only cares about winning.

Mr. Will Schuester: Spanish teacher and Glee Club Director. Will created the Glee club and continues to act as director. He would be considered a team leader (Blake & Mouton, 1964). A team leader is one who has high concern for both production and people. Northouse (2013) describes team leaders as people who "stimulate participation, acts determined, gets issues into the open, makes priorities clear, follows through, behaves open mindedly, and enjoys working" (pg. 81). Will acts almost like a father figure to many of the youths involved in the Glee Club. He takes their feelings and thoughts into consideration when making choices. In each episode the Glee club has a different topic/theme that Will chooses. Most of the time, these topics reflect what is happening in the lives of the Glee Club members. Because the topics relate to the members, they buy into the lesson and (usually) end up learning a lesson at the end of an episode.

Rachel Berry: Former Glee Club member. In the case of Glee Diva Rachel, when in leadership situations, she could often be seen as an impoverished leader (Northouse, 2013). In many cases, Rachel cares neither for people, nor the task at hand, and thinks only of herself, and her future stardom. Northouse (2013) would also describe Rachel as opportunistic, because she uses her leadership for the "purpose of self-advancement" (p.82). In one case, Rachel was willing to sabotage a potential Glee club rival by putting her in physical danger in order to thwart any efforts to be dethroned and to secure her place as the star of the club.

Finn Hudson: Former Glee Club Member. Finn is often recognized as the moral center of the Glee Club and its members past and current. Finn's leadership style very much falls into the Country Club portion of grid. Northouse (2013) describes Country Club leaders as individuals who create positive climates by being "agreeable, eager to help, comforting and uncontroversial" (p79) Though Finn wants to see the Glee Club succeed, his first concern is always the well-being of the students in the club. Whether it was serving as co-leader while a student, or stand in Director post-graduation, Finn wore his heart and his concern for others on his sleeve.

Sam Evans: Former Glee Club Member. Sam is the quintessential Middle of the Road Leader. Sam joined the Glee Club as a new student and was quickly taken under Finn's wing, helping to define Sam's character. Described by Northouse (2013) as someone who balances concerns for tasks to be competed and the team completing them, Sam can usually be found sitting back, relaxing, taking everything in. You won't see Sam jumping into some of the heated Choir Room arguments, and instead, he is often the peace maker, encouraging people to find a compromise.

Current Results

Currently, "in production", this will be rolled out as part of a fall introductory leadership theory course replacing the current pop culture examples that are becoming a bit dated. As with any pop culture example, the researchers acknowledge that students will view these examples through their own lens, thusly making these examples more effective for some than others. The hope, however, is that these examples, like any, will help students make "real life" connections to the content.

Recommendations

Due to the new nature of this classroom innovation, recommendations based on this research are still pending. After the initial roll out of this program in the fall, the researchers are hoping to have recommendations for both further research and future practices to better the use of pop culture in the college classroom.

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Leading Ladies

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Introduction

According to the U.S Bureau of Labor Statistics, "Woman account for 51 percent of all persons employed in management, professional, and related occupations" (2013). Professional women in America like Michelle Obama, Oprah Winfrey, and Indra Nooyi (Chief Executive Officer of PepsiCo) have all exhibited leadership skills and an ample amount of self -confidence that has contributed to their success. The White House Council of Women and Girls, says that despite the 20% increase of women in professionalism since 1962, women still face barriers to participate in the workplace and marketplace... The success of American women is critical for the success of the American family and the American economy (2012). Educators that seek to develop and assist women as leaders may wonder, "What tools did those successful women mentioned earlier use in order to become some of the most influential individuals in the country?" and "How can we be sure to develop the leaders of our future generations?" According to an article from The Examiner about Dove's Campaign for Real Beauty, "7 of every 10 girls believe that they do not measure up in some way, which includes not just looks, but class performance and relationships as well" (Shapiro, 2009). The goal of the projected program is to use an alternative teaching method focused on implementing forms of pop culture to improve the development of two major foundations of success in young women: self-confidence and leadership.

Background

For females, having self-confidence can be an issue that many are not sure how to solve. It is apparent that issues related to self –esteem often plague girls because of the societal expectations they face. According to the book Body Image: A Handbook of Theory, Research, and Clinical Practice, "by middle school, 40-70 percent of girls are dissatisfied with two or more parts of their body, and body satisfaction hits rock bottom between the ages of

12-15" (Cash, 2002). Astonishing statistics such as the one mentioned, display a perfect example as to why low self- esteem is a rising issue that can prevent young women from reaching their full potential to become vibrant leaders. Studies from Universities and independent projects such as NYC Girls Project, have all mentioned that without self- confidence, one lacks having any leadership skills. Without confidence in one's self, in particularly females, it is difficult to harvest leadership skills and apply them to life. With alarming statistic rates and stories pertaining to how girls see themselves, a program is being put into place that will work to decrease such statistics and increase the level of self-esteem and confidence in girls. The program will work by teaching leadership and self-confidence skills through the alternative method of pop culture. Many studies have been conducted proving the success of using pop culture as a teaching method. It is stressed now that "students today have been raised in a technoloical era with instant access to information… with graphics, video, sound, and music" (Younkin, 2009, p.72). Incorporating pop culture and arts will allow students to learn in an environment that they can relate to.

Description

The authors of "Leading Ladies" have designed a program to develop leadership skills in middle school girls through self -confidence booster sessions and the performing art of dance. The target audience is middle school girls ages 12-15. Girls within this age range are at the peak of adolescence and at the point in life where they are transforming into young women (Time to change). With such a rapid change occurring in these girls, it is essential that their confidence remain at a high level in order to avoid issues including depression, eating disorders, and even suicide. Dove stated, “more than half (54%) of women globally agree that when it comes to how they look, they are their own worst beauty critic” (Surprising Self Esteem). Part of this lack of self-acceptance is due to the pop culture that displays an alleged standard of beauty that is nearly impossible to completely configure to. It is also important that girls are taught how to be leaders in their own context and begin to implement those skills to increase their potential professionally. “Leading Ladies” will use methods such as affirmations on sticky notes that will be displayed as a friendly reminder of one’s importance and “dear me” letters that will give a girl an opportunity to express her hopes and aspirations for her future. The authors have also found that “dance keeps both the body and brain active,” which is vital for people of all ages (Why Dance). Also stated from the website is that dance can lead to new career opportunities by building essential communications skills needed in every profession . A variety of dance styles such as jazz, tap, hip hop, and ballet will be incorporated into the experiment, which will add versatility and spontaneity to keep the girls engaged. By developing a project that targets only girls in the areas of self- confidence through innovative techniques, girls will soon display the qualities of a vibrant leader.

Results

For this particular program, the authors are working with Preston Taylor Ministries and Tru Champs, both after school programs in [State] that cater to young girls through activities such as tutoring and mentoring. The program will be delivered in spring of 2014 to enrich the lives of their members. The program leaders will conduct two sessions: one focusing on self-confidence boosters, and the other incorporating the art of dance to teach young girls the ways in which the foundations of leadership can be applied in a more modern and exciting environment. Specific results from the program will be available after the conclusion of the two programs.

Conclusion

Dr. Peter Lovatt, head of the University of Hertfordshire’s Dance Psychology Lab, states that dancing can help with problem-solving (Why Dance). In addition, researches are looking at the effects of dance on people with Parkinson’s disease. Moreover, dance can help one find and relate to a certain rhythm, thus creating a sense of confidence in motion that can allow leadership skills to emerge from within. Through fifteen years of formal dance training experience within our team, the lifelong lessons that dance has to offer have been witnessed first hand. Lessons include teamwork, retaining information, poise, grace, and respect. Through this innovative idea and community service project, the authors will be able to increase leadership skills of participants and positively influence girls to reach their full potential.

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Leadership Autobiography: Identifying Early Leadership Experiences

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Introduction

In addition to helping students develop a cognitive understanding of leadership theory, leadership educators must also help students assess their leadership identity (Wagner, 2013). "Identity is important typically because it grounds individuals in understanding who they are, what are their major goals and aspirations, and what are their personal strengths and challenges" (Day, Harrison, & Haplin, 2009, p. 400). "We help students become conscious of aspects of their identity through a continual cycle of observation and reflection" (Wagner, 2013, p. xxi). By reflecting on past experiences students are able to identify instances where they first remember being exposed to leadership, have provided leadership, and have hesitated to provide leadership. "Both lifespan and leadership education need to be linked to help leadership educators understand educational interventions that make a difference across the life span of leadership development" (Komives, Lognerbeam, Owen, Mainella, & Osteen, 2006, p. 403). By reflecting on these experiences, students are able to describe how these experiences have influenced their understanding of leadership as a concept, and to begin to describe the context where they will most likely practice leadership in their future.

Background

Based on an interest in understanding how a leadership identity develops, Komives and her colleagues used a grounded theory approach to develop the six-stage Leadership Identity Development (LID) model to better understand the process an individual experiences in creating a leadership identity and how they see themselves during the process (Komives, Longerbeam, Owen, Mainella, & Osteen, 2005; Komiveset al., 2006). Each of the six stages represents a different level of leadership identity (Komives, et al., 2005). The stages of the LID model include: (1) Awareness – recognizing leadership; (2) exploration/engagement – involvement and taking on responsibilities; (3) leader identified – managing others; (4) leader differentiated – shared and group leadership; (5) generativity – development of others and personal passion; and (6) integration/synthesis – life-long learning (Komives et al., 2005). "Students perceive the world and interpret the meaning of events based on the lens of their current stage" (Wagner, 2011, p. 86). Previous research suggests students enter college at stage three (Komives, 2007; Wagner, 2013). They had identified leaders from participating in functions such as high school organizations, sports teams, church, and jobs. Shehane, Sturtevant, Moore, and Dooley (2012) recommended examining pre-collegiate experiences to help leadership educators "challenge students to reflect on their past experiences and help them make connections as to how those experiences have the potential to shape the future" (p. 151). Thus, by developing assignments that will help students determine where they fall within the LID model, they can be better equipped to establish a future leadership context and a better understanding of their role as a leader.

Description of Course and Assignment

Introduction to Leadership is a three credit-hour course that serves as an introduction to the academic and scholarly development of leadership theory and leadership models. Within the course, students explore the investigation of leadership theory when applied to a specific context, and the development of a leadership definition as an inquire investigation. Upon satisfactory completion of this course, students should be able to: (1) describe leadership education as a scholarly field of study; (2) explore the leadership context of and lessons learned by significant historical and contemporary leaders; (3) define a context for leadership practice; (4) create, define, and defend a contextual leadership definition; (5) investigate and apply the relational leadership model (Komives, 2013); and (6) refute or defend relational leadership as a part of a contextual leadership definition. The larger class is divided into smaller groups of six to seven students. These groups function as learning communities throughout the semester, allowing students to discuss course materials, objectives, and completed assignments.

The *Leadership Autobiography* assignment allows students to reflect on their life experiences and previous encounters with leadership with the ultimate goal of determining which stage of the LID they fall. Specifically, the assignment asks students to reflect upon the role that their experiences have played in their leadership learning, including experiences where they exerted leadership as well an instances where they could have, and perhaps even should have exerted leadership, but did not. Students are required to explain when they first remember being aware of the concept of leadership, when they first wanted to become a leader, and when they first became a leader. They clearly and thoroughly describe what has motivated their past leadership pursuits and moments of hesitation in past leadership situations. Students provide their own definition of leadership. Lastly, students develop a leadership timeline. This time line chronologically documents critical leadership experiences and incidents in their life. The timeline does not have to be computer generated, and students are encouraged to be creative in the development of the timeline. Students synthesize their reflections and develop a PowerPoint presentation addressing the objectives of the assignment to be shared within their learning community.

Current Results

The *Leadership Autobiography* is a relatively new assignment. It was first given to students in the *Introduction to Leadership* course during the Fall 2013 semester. Although a formal assessment of the assignment has not been conducted, anecdotal evidence suggests that students enjoy reflecting on past experiences and attempting to identify landmarks in their life related to leadership. Course instructors believe that through such reflection, and by examining their own leadership identity development, students are better prepared to make the change from leadership perception to leadership education. An unexpected benefit of the assignment is related to student interactions with each other. Students present their *Leadership Autobiography* to their learning community. As a result of sharing their presentation, students within learning community are getting to know each other on a more personal level, thus reinforcing the relational leadership model (Komives, 2013).

Conclusions and Recommendations

Overall the *Leadership Autobiography* assignment has enabled students to reflect on past experiences that have shaped their leadership identity development. Completed assignments show students have used reflection to raise their level of consciousness about their leadership identity development, an important aspect of leadership development noted by Wagner (2013). It has been beneficial in laying the foundation for the remainder of the course. As Shehane et al. (2012) noted, "Self-reflection of pre-college experiences can be a powerful tool in helping students and educators gain momentum in creating healthy discourse around leadership" (p. 151). Furthermore, the *Leadership Autobiography* assignment has demonstrated the potential to help some students solidify their reasons for enrolling in the course and/or major.

While the fact that students seem to enjoy completing the assignment is encouraging, the use of the *Leadership Autobiography* should be further studied. A content analysis of the assignments should be conducted to determine which stage of the LID model students are in when entering the *Introduction to Leadership* course. Follow-up studies are also recommended to assess the accuracy of student perceptions related to the stages of the LID model.

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I Lead Maroon: Promoting Leadership Education, Training, & Development

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Introduction

Nationally, the Association of American Colleges and Universities (AAC&U) launched its Liberal Education and America's Promise (LEAP) campaign in 2005. This national advocacy, campus action, and research initiative promotes: essential learning outcomes for a 21st century, high-Impact educational practices, authentic assessments, and inclusive excellence. "LEAP responds to the changing demands of the twenty-first century—demands for more college-educated workers and more engaged and informed citizens" (AAC&U, 2013, p. 1). [University] adopted the undergraduate and graduate learning outcomes in 2009 and then crafted the Quality Enhancement Plan (QEP) in 2012. The QEP stemmed from the "Academic Master Plan and is positioned as the central component of [University] Commit, a university-wide focus on intentionality in learning" (University, 2012, p. 5). The focus of the plan is on integrative and lifelong learning. More importantly, "the QEP calls for students to commit to developing the habits and skills needed to be the productive citizens that our world needs" (University, 2012, p. 11).

Furthermore, over 10 years of discussions at the institution focused on how to holistically look at leadership education, training, and development. This led to the development of this new leadership program. In sum, nationally, institutionally, and within Student Affairs we are committed to deepening learning of our future leaders.

The purpose of the *I Lead Maroon* program is to guide participants in developing their identity as leaders through engaging in leadership development, education, and training opportunities while at the university. Participants of *I Lead Maroon* will be committed to honing skills, developing an appreciation for lifelong learning, and striving to be an engaged citizen post-graduation. Outcomes associated with the program include: ethical leadership, critical thinking, intercultural competence, communication, civic engagement, leadership capacity building, working collaboratively, application of leadership learning, and articulation of leadership learning. Upon completing the program, students will be inducted into the Maroon and White Leadership Society.

Background

The Leadership Identity Development (LID) model serves as the theoretical framework for the *I Lead Maroon* program. Researchers who developed this model were initially interested in how leadership identity developed over time, "specifically in terms of how one comes to the self-acceptance of knowing one can work effectively with others to accomplish shared goals from any place in an organization—that is, to engage in leadership and see oneself as a leader" (Komives, Lucas, & McMahon, 2007, p. 393). A key finding from the study focused on developing the self, which includes "deepening self-awareness, building self-confidence, establishing interpersonal efficacy in working with others, applying new skills, and expanding one's motivations—from joining groups just to make friends to being involved in groups to make a valuable contribution" (Komives, Lucas, & McMahon, 2007, p. 394). Group influences and the importance of engaging meaningfully in groups are central to developing a leadership identity. Individuals who stay with the group over time see the value in learning from the continuity of group membership, and more importantly, see the group as an organization with structure and purpose rather than a collection of friends. As such, the students' perceptions change over time. Initially, they see themselves as *dependent* on others, then they moved to an *independent* view from others, and finally they see the need for *interdependence* with others (Komives, Lucas, & McMahon).

The educational setting can create an environment that supports and facilitates learning for both students and groups. Education cannot force people to change, but it can help students reflect and make meaning of their lives (Zimmerman-Oster & Burkhardt, 1999). Identity development is connected to the changing nature of relationships with others. Day (2001) proclaimed that "the primary emphasis in leadership development is on building and using interpersonal competence" (p. 585). As such, a central component of the *I Lead Maroon* program will be the development of self as leaders. Understanding oneself as a leader does not equate to being able to lead others. Students must also engage in leadership with others to further understand the relational aspect of working in groups and organizations. To assist students in their development, every student will find and/or be assigned a leadership coach. Komives, Longerbeam, Owen, Mainella, and Osteen (2006) shared that "students need a safe place to reflect and make meaning of their experiences" (p. 415). Leadership Coaches will guide participants in reflecting about how they work within group contexts and what they are learning from these interactions, which is emphasized in the LID model. Coaches are critical to the affirmation and support needed to develop self-confidence and shape a leadership identity (Komives, Longerbeam, Owen, Mainella, and Osteen, 2006).

Description of program

Throughout the program process, participants will have one on one leadership coaching that will challenge them to reflect on their learning and map their leadership experiences over time. The program will culminate with a leadership capstone experience, the Leadership Engagement Project. Ultimately, it is our goal that participants will see their leadership journey as a lifelong learning process. When participants graduate from [University], they will leave with a deeper understanding of who they are as leaders and how they can make an impact in their respective communities. Taking into consideration the recommendations of 10 years of discussions within the Division of Student Affairs, the Undergraduate Learning Outcomes, and need of high-impact practices, I Lead Maroon's purpose is also to capture student leadership learning throughout the Division of Student Affairs. Key components of the program include:

- Program designators ensure that participants are receiving a broad spectrum of intentional learning experiences. Designators are a way to categorize experiences that align with leadership development, education, and training. Participants are asked to choose 8 experiences: three development designators, one education designator, and four training designators.
- A Leadership Coach will be assigned to every student participating in the program as a way to provide guidance, feedback, and foster leadership learning throughout the course of the experience.
- Reflection is an essential aspect of this program and participants are required to reflect in a way that is best for them after each experience. For some students, this will be meeting with their Leadership Coach more than twice a semester. For others, this will be journaling or reflecting on their own. There will be consistent reflection data that will be used for future research and assessment of the program.
- Signature programs are diverse programs, events, student organizations, workshops, trainings, etc. managed out of the Division of Student Affairs. Signature programs were developed as a way to capitalize on the long-standing, comprehensive experiences within the Division. Out of the eight designations participants must have, four will be signature programs.
- The Leadership Engagement Project was created as a capstone project synthesizing leadership learning that occurred throughout their experience within the program and will be presented at the induction ceremony. Participants are encouraged to be creative in their presentation. For consistency, there will be a rubric Leadership Coaches will use as a way to provide feedback to their mentee.
- Social events will be offered to foster a leadership community within the program.

Conclusions/Recommendations

Program assessment and evaluation along with avenues for research will be a priority for this program to ensure learning outcomes are met and student learning is documented. This program will utilize

MaroonLink (also known as CollegiateLink), an online program management tool, as a way to disseminate information and allow participants to track program progress and submit reflections. Our goal is for *I Lead Maroon* to be a model program in leadership arenas within higher education to foster a new way to holistically look at leadership education, training, and development.

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Leader Perspectives on Issues of Food Security and Hunger: Four Cases for the Leadership Classroom

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Abstract

Many of our students will be responsible for decisions related to food security and hunger in the U.S. and around the globe. What are we doing to prepare the next generation to take on this role? Preview recently developed food security and hunger case studies through our interactive poster session.

Introduction

The United Nations Food and Agriculture Organization estimated nearly 870 million people of the 7.1 billion people in the world, or one in eight, suffered from chronic undernourishment in 2010-2012. Not included in the calculation were those who face issues of food insecurity. The USDA Economic Research Service defined low food security as those who report multiple indications of disrupted eating and reduced food intake. These individuals, many of them children, may not know if or from where their next meal will come.

Many students in the United States of America believe food security and hunger are critical issues impacting only those living in third world countries and do not feel they have the opportunity to impact global issues. However, statistically, about one in ten households in the United States experience hunger and a risk of hunger; this is an increase of 1.9 million, from 36.3 million in 2003. Across the country and in our local communities leadership is needed to face these issues head-on. For example, an estimated 304,307 people in central Indiana alone are food insecure. Furthermore, 50 million or one in six people in America struggle with food security.

Background

Our students, our future leaders, can and will be responsible for decisions related to food security and hunger in the U.S. and possibly around the globe. Many organizations are doing great things to fight hunger domestically and internationally. But who is leading these organizations and how do we prepare the next generation to lead in areas of hunger and food security? To begin, we as leadership educators must intentionally insert issues of food security and hunger into the leadership classroom. But, where do we begin?

A national study examining instructional strategies in the undergraduate leadership classroom found class discussion to be the signature pedagogy of leadership educators (Jenkins, 2012). The study also identified the case study as one of the top ten instructional strategies used by leadership educators (Jenkins, 2012). In an effort to create food security and hunger curriculum for use in the leadership classroom, it was decided that case studies would be created supplemented by discussion questions created to support the signature pedagogy of leadership educators, discussion pedagogy (Jenkins, 2012).

Creating Classroom Materials

Seeking to create classroom material based on issues of food security and hunger, a series of interviews were scheduled. Specifically, four local leaders working to impact issues of food security and hunger were conducted. Brief biographies of the four leaders are provided below.

> *Dr. W. Dwight Armstrong, CEO of the National FFA Organization*—His passion for feeding the world has infiltrated into all aspects of his life and he works daily to insure our youth are being educated on issues of hunger and food security, as well as, play active roles in their communities.
>
> *Cindy Hubert, CEO of Gleaners Food Bank*—Gleaners is the largest food bank in central Indiana. Hubert works to insert vision and strategy into all aspects of the food bank.

Ambassador Kenneth Quinn, President of the World Food Prize—Quinn's decades of work in the national and international issues of food production aid him in understanding the needs and technology needed to fight the battle.

Jeff Simmons, President of Elanco—His personal mission is to fight hunger and food insecurity by speaking up for those without a voice. He had integrated a culture of service into his organization.

Prior to the interviews, questions were created that focused directly on leadership concepts relevant in a college- level leadership course. After each interview, transcripts were prepared and examined by the interviewees before preparing the interviews for classroom use. Based on the interviews, a series of case studies were created for use in the leadership classroom.

Current Results

Each case study includes the interviewee's biography and the final interview transcript with line numbers for ease of classroom use. Following each transcript is a list of discussion questions including topics such as leader vs. follower attributes, action-oriented leadership, vision, communication, influence and politics.

Each case study also includes an extended activity to be used as homework or project-based work. For example, the following extended activity is included as part of the case study based upon Cindy Hubert's interview.

Extended Activity

Around lines 40 and 198 Hubert mentions the Indy Hunger Network, research this network. What is it? Who or what is involved? What is their mission? Does your town or area have something similar? If so compare it to the Indy Hunger Network. If not, list out who would be the players in such a network in your area.

Finally, teacher notes and references are provided. The teacher notes provide additional prompts and guidance for each of the discussion questions, as well as, the extended activities.

Future Plans

The newly developed case studies are ready for classroom use. Several of the case studies will be introduced in an advanced leadership class on our campus next fall semester. Additionally, the case studies will become part of a larger curriculum development project funded by the USDA. As part of the project, the case studies will undergo rigorous peer review and then be field tested at several universities. Results will be disseminated through publications and presentations.

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Expanding an Instructor's Capacity to Recognize Social Patterns in an Experiential Leadership Class: A First Person Inquiry

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Introduction

Case-in-point pedagogy (CIP) is an experiential and highly engaging approach to teaching and learning about adaptive leadership that uses the classroom as a 'case study' or laboratory where students and staff can observe their own behavior as it emerges. The pedagogy was developed in recognition of the reality that as the world gets more connected exercising leadership demands an increasing awareness of the interdependence between different social systems (Parks, 2005; Senge, 1990) as well as the ability to mobilize people to make progress on addressing adaptive challenges (Heifetz, 1994).

To be effective in case-in-point teaching, instructors need to be adept at recognizing social patterns in the classroom and be able to use the awareness of these patterns as data to make timely interventions in service of the learning of the group. Even though CIP instructors may be aware of the concepts and the practice of leadership they wish to address in class, a gap is created in 'heat of the moment' between what they wish to do and what they actually do or say. What is needed is a way "of simultaneously conducting action and inquiry as a disciplined leadership practice that increases the wider effectiveness of [their] actions (Torbert and Associates, 2004, p. 1).

Theoretical Framework

Action inquiry (Torbert and Associates, 2004) aims to increase the timeliness and effectiveness of one's actions by increasing the span of one's attention to include the four territories of experience, namely: the outside world, one's own behavior, one's own feelings and thoughts, and one's attention itself (Table 1). This attention, also acknowledges and seeks to correct the incongruities between among the four territories of experience through single-, double-, and triple-loop awareness and learning (Figure 1).

Table 1

Four Territories of Experience

First Territory	Outside Events: results, assessments, observed behavioral consequences, environmental effects
Second Territory	Own sense performance: behavior, skills, pattern of activity, deeds, as sensed in the process of enactment
Third Territory	Action-logics: strategies, schemas, ploys, game plans, typical modes of reflecting on experience
Fourth Territory	Intentional Attention: presencing awareness, vision, intuition, aims

Note. Adapted from *Action Inquiry: The Secret of Timely and Transforming Leadership*., p. 22, by W. R. Torbert and Associates, 2004, Berrett-Koehler Publishers.

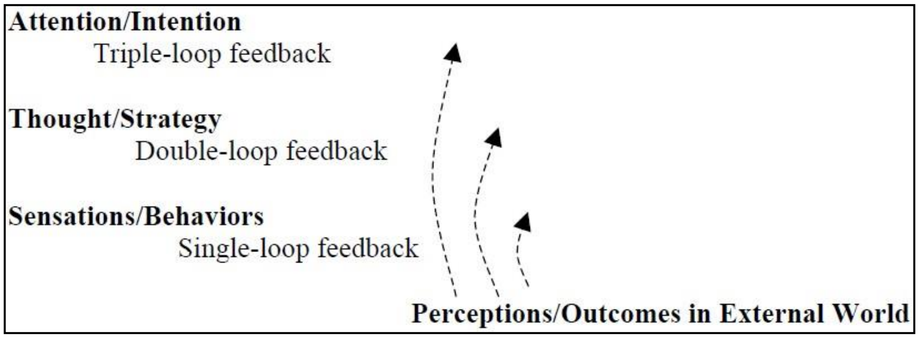

Figure 1. Single-, Double-, and Triple-Loop Feedback Within a Given Person's Awareness. Adapted from "Timely and Transforming Leadership Inquiry and Action: Toward Triple-loop Awareness," by A. Starr and B. Torbert, 2005, *Integral Review*, 1, p. 88. Copyright 2005 by Integral Review.

Single-loop feedback: A response that tells you that you need to adjust the way you are acting, if you want to achieve your goal.

Double-loop feedback: A response that tells you that your whole way of approaching this situation-relationship needs to change.

Triple-loop feedback: A response that awakens you into all four territories of experience at once, with a profound feeling of inter-dependence of the universe and of your own incongruity or incongruity there in.

Methodology

Purpose. To increase our capacity to recognize social patterns and themes in the classroom with the intention of making our analysis available to both teaching staff and students to aid in the understanding and practice of adaptive leadership.

First-person action research. Conducted by two teaching assistants in a sixteen week graduate-level leadership class that was taught using case-in- point pedagogy.

Context. A graduate-level leadership class with about 80 students and 10 teaching staff. There were a number of activities undertaken in the leadership course. For this study we focused on a weekly one-hour large group interactive session attended by all the students and teaching staff that occurred over the course of a school semester.

Data Collection

Participant Observation: We participated in the discussions and interactions in the large group session while seeking to expand our awareness to include the four territories of experience. We took extensive notes during the large group sessions using a prompt with four key questions and took action as the class was going on (single-loop feedback)

Audio recordings: The large group sessions were recorded as part of the course requirements and made available only to class participants through a portal requiring user authentication.

Reflective Journal: Each of the researchers kept a reflective journal to track the meaning we were making of our experience in the class.

We attended a weekly meeting of the teaching staff for entire duration of the course. We had given a senior teaching assistant a prompt with questions to give us formal feedback two times: after four weeks and at the end of the course.

Data Analysis

We use qualitative methods to analyze the data. We developed a set of a priori codes from the literature of the most common social patterns that occur in case-in-point classes. We used the codes to individually analyze our own field notes and reflective journals. We took note of the themes that emerged. We also listened to specific audio-recordings of class sessions and noted down any feedback we received from interventions we made in class. We then exchanged field notes and coded each other's notes to compare what patterns we were able to recognize.

We had two major research cycles. After the first cycle at week 7 of the course we changed strategies (double-loop feedback) in order to test different strategies for increasing our span of attention to the dynamics in the class. The weekly meeting with teaching staff and the feedback from the senior teaching fellow provided us with an avenue to triangulate our findings (triple-loop feedback).

Findings

After analyzing our data and reflecting on our experience, we found that we had gained an appreciation of how being present in the class contributed to the social dynamics to the extent that it was not plausible to cast ourselves into the role of passive observers. Rather, we were part of the lived experience of the group.

"Michael said that he would be wary about being too keen on [researchers'] interventions as being representative of us as individuals because when people speak up in the group they are usually representing a faction (speaking on behalf of the faction)."

"I am noting my body posture and wondering if it is assisting the instructor or hindering (feel that I am orienting myself around authority)."

Second we discovered that our social identities were a major contributor in determining which patterns we were able to read as well as identifying our
'blind spots.'

"Focusing on gender and how it plays out. Asking myself what it felt like to get receive power through an intervention. How are we talking about masculinity? How are we talking about men and power?"

"I also notice that many people of color and international students have spoken in this class."

Third, we found that we were able to build our capacity to engage in "deep listening" as we worked with other teaching staff who in effect functioned as a community of inquiry.

"I chose to sit at the back to help with the container by inserting some authority among students who seemed like they had created a faction."

"The student who mentioned TED talk & A. spoke and I felt like we had gone full circle and were back to where we started and felt compelled to make an intervention. So invited A. to join me and other students as well to do a kinesthetic in front of the entire class…"

Conclusion and Recommendation

While the study was conducted in the context of a leadership class, the systematic process of first-person action inquiry we applied may be useful to others seeking to make progress in their understanding and practice of teaching experiential leadership classes - especially in seeking to address the gap between what they want to do and what they actually do.

We also recommend that future studies incorporate the arts to tap into the subconscious mind as an additional source of data about dynamics in groups.

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Finding Your Path: Using a Pathway Model to Link Leadership Research and Practice

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Introduction

Community and agricultural leadership programs serve as a mechanism to identify, train, and develop opinion leaders (Apaliyah, Martin, Gasteyer, Keating, & Pigg, 2012). These programs develop networks of informed individuals who can recognize and solve critical issues facing their community or industry (Azzam & Riggio, 2003). In 2011, over $14 billion was expended to train and develop leaders through formal programs (O'Leonard & Loew, 2012). Although many of these programs have conducted informal evaluations, mainly focused on participants' satisfaction, there are few published records in the academic literature related to the effectiveness of community and industry leadership programs (Bono, Shen, & Snyder, 2010, p. 326). In the evaluation context, leadership research and practice have operated in different spheres (Day, 2001).

Background

A scan of 55 leadership development programs by Russon and Reinelt (2004) found that there is an increasing demand for evaluations that articulate the outcomes and impacts of these programs. The evaluation of leadership development programs can reveal profound changes in individuals and collectives, accelerate desired changes, inform program improvement, and capture intentional and unintentional outcomes (Hannum, Martineau, & Reinelt, 2007). As funding becomes more limited and much more competitive, the need for evaluations will increase and programs that have documented evidence of their merit will be the ones that receive funding and continue to exist (Workman & Scheer, 2012).

The [State] Agriculture Leaders Obtaining Results initiative is a two-year program for adults in agriculture who want to develop their communication, problem solving, and critical thinking skills in addition to broadening their knowledge of agriculture in the pursuit of becoming an advocate for agriculture and a leader in the industry. The staff and stakeholders of this initiative have undertaken an effort to develop a program pathway model. It is our anticipation that this approach can capture the complexity of the aforementioned changes (Hannum et al., 2007) and bridge the gap between leadership research and practice.

Description

The pathway mapping approach is a specific planning process that articulates a program's theory of change using a logic model framework (Hannum et al., 2007). Whereas logic models rely on columnar representations that link whole sets of activities to outcomes, pathway models make these connections more explicit and precise (Urban & Trochim, 2009). The pathway approach to leadership program evaluation explicitly integrates and uses stakeholder, social science, and some combination of, or other types of, theories in conceptualizing, designing, conducting, interpreting, and applying an evaluation (Hannum, et al., 2007).

Current Results

Using a combination of theory, program objectives, and proposed outcomes the [State] Agricultural Leaders Obtaining Results program has initiated a pathway mapping process. Using the Netway™ software program developed by the Cornell Office for Research on Evaluation, and through mapping sessions with program staff and stakeholders, a preliminary pathway map has been developed to help articulate program activities, associated outcomes, and guide program evaluation efforts.

The purpose of this mapping process and subsequent poster is to: 1) develop a preliminary pathway model to connect the proposed effects of programmatic activities; 2) receive feedback related to the model from colleagues; and 3) advance priority two (programmatic assessment and evaluation) of the Association of Leadership Educator's national research agenda (Andenoro, Allen, Haber-Curran, Jenkins, Sowcik, Dugan, & Osteen, 2013).

Conclusions and Recommendations

This approach to leadership development evaluation is valuable because it highlights the relationship between activities and outcomes (i.e. program effectiveness) and, more specifically, how a program works. Conversely, if a program fails to achieve its intended outcomes or is ineffective, a pathway model approach can be helpful in determining where the breakdown occurred between program theory and outcomes.

Making a connection between the implicit theories of program logic and the explicit inputs, activities, and outcomes is difficult and resource intensive. However, we believe a deep understanding of the theory of change that underlies a program's logic model is essential to sound programming. In addition, when pathway models are developed and tested through evaluation it can contribute to the body of knowledge that informs professional practice.

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Leadership Skills Acquisition: A Progressed Situational Competency Model for Leadership Pedagogy

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Abstract

As a skill, leadership can be framed within linked competencies to develop an authentic, relevant, and instructable curriculum. The five-stage model of skill acquisition written by Hubert Dreyfus provides a guiding framework that is generic and situational; enabling for the learner to better cope with complexity and develop intuitive skills. This model moves the learner as a "novice" along the continuum of learning through instructor guidance and coaching to developing an enhanced self-efficacy.

Introduction

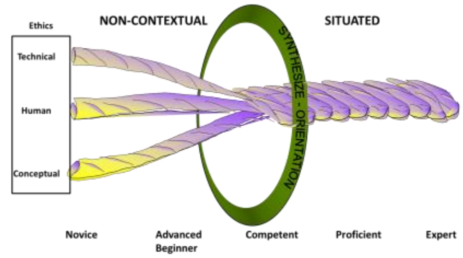
The development of a systematic model that combines non-contextual and situated instructional approaches is suitable for leadership curriculum development in dealing with the heuristic basis of leadership as a skill in practice. This model is a transition away from the traditional concepts of reproductive learning with an emphasis on explicit concepts; but seeks to fashion a network that builds learning around productive learning focused on the learners' leadership efficacy and situated within simulated and real ambiguous environments that test critical and integrative thinking skills. The instructional approach understands that leadership is a multi-disciplinary and meta-cognitive process that enables enhanced capacity rooted in experience to influence systems. The model seeks to build the learners capability of perception through development of a leadership pedagogy that focuses on transference of competencies and multifaceted cognitive skills in varied settings. Perception is grounded within principles of efficacy that the learner will gain over the model; balanced by growth within group interactions that support insightful leadership skills acquisition.

Leadership is framed now within a complex and dynamic context that calls for a curricular model that is capable not just of agility to keep pace with theoretical advances but that is able to flush out the emergent and interactive networks and the skills necessary to influence and cope amidst socially and historically constructed contexts (Uhl-Bien, Marion, and McKelvey, 2007). This is an acknowledgment that leadership has shifted away from that of being an individual behavior propped up by hierarchical standing but is relational, shared, and strategic (Yukl, 2006; Avolio, 2007; Avolio, Walumbwa, and Weber, 2009). However, despite this ambiguous nature of leadership this model frames leadership within outcomes based competencies and tasks that provide a structure for leadership development.

Background

Hubert and Stuart Dreyfus (1981; 1986) developed a model for skill acquisition from novice to expert at the request of research conducted for the United States Air Force. Since its original conceptualization in the 1960s this model has seen wide scale acceptance within health fields, engineering, and vocational courses. Robert Farrell (2012) shows how this model can be incorporated into less technical fields and provides use in developing skills within more general educational fields. The reason for this ease of transference of the model is that it provides a scale for development of viable curriculum while still enabling for freedom of instructional techniques appropriate to various disciplines.

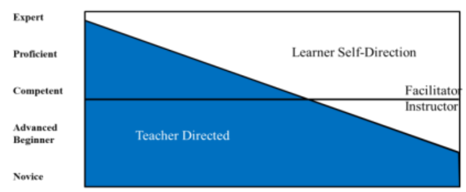
If we consider leadership as a skill based practice, a modification of the Dreyfus model possesses the capacity to enable the educator to structure curricular experiences and engagement in a progressive fashion along a continuum. The concept of leadership as a skill based practice capable of being taught is supported by the work of Doh (2003). The learner will move from a non-contextual, rule based, reproductive thinking to a situated, perceptual, and productive capability that is able to identify paradigms intuitively and insightfully. This concept is directly influenced by the research of Max Wertheimer (1959) and von Merrienboer (1997; 2006). In providing appropriate concrete experiences along the Drefyus skill levels the learner builds the cognitive skills to organize and structure rules and theories within a context thru integrative and synergistic cognitive applications.



To provide a viable curricular framework we can look to the work of Katz (1955) and at the foundational level of leadership and use the categories of technical, human, and conceptual. These competencies would be originally developed in a lose atomistic fashion and as the learner progresses along the leadership model continuum experience them as theories and rules in a situated context enabling the learner to orient these competencies within concrete and cultural situations. At the synthesis stage the learner integrates these competencies into a cohesive approach to produce relevance or as Wertheimer may choose to refer to as "rho." Thus the use of experiential learning to produce a level of learner engagement is nourished by Kolb's work and concrete experiences expand from case studies to practical application. The cognitive performance of the learner is organized to be bringing out an intuitive capacity to problem solving with a heavier focus on qualitative reasoning (Gott, 1998). The broad terms used by Katz also fit well and are given greater depth by the research of Uhl-Bien, Marion, and McKelvey (2007) and that of Avolio, Walumbwa, and Weber (2009) with the interplay of complexity leadership theory and the framing of leadership competencies within the roles of adaptive, administrative, and enabling. Elmuti, Minnis, and Abebe (2005) take an approach that is more aligned with Katz's terminology by framing the roles as skills, perspectives, and dispositions.

This progressive model further enables the construction of a viable curriculum of learning objectives and outcomes at first divided across the categorical competencies and then progressed into an integrative and synthesized learning approach. The approach of linking the curriculum into a unified effort enables for the learner to view leadership in its holistic component. Once the learner passes from orienting divergent leadership skills to intimately relating these skills into one approach they have achieved a level of cognitive ability that sets the stage for the growth to the next level. As Patricia Benner's (2009) research shows, a level of emotive connection that enables the learner to feel accountable is what will move them to proficiency; that a connection exists between perceptual and insightful understanding and the learners' personal commitment to practice. The use of concrete experiences and deep research exploring and challenging the learners understanding builds this level of engagement. I propose an additional skill is garnered at this point that is critical to leadership execution; that is confidence. Confidence is a key metric of leadership perception by followers and in this case also by the educator (Chemers et al., 2000). I propose that confidence is achieved once the learner is able to cognitively synthesis the leadership categories, connect emotively to the contextual situation, and assess prudent risk in a relevant manner.

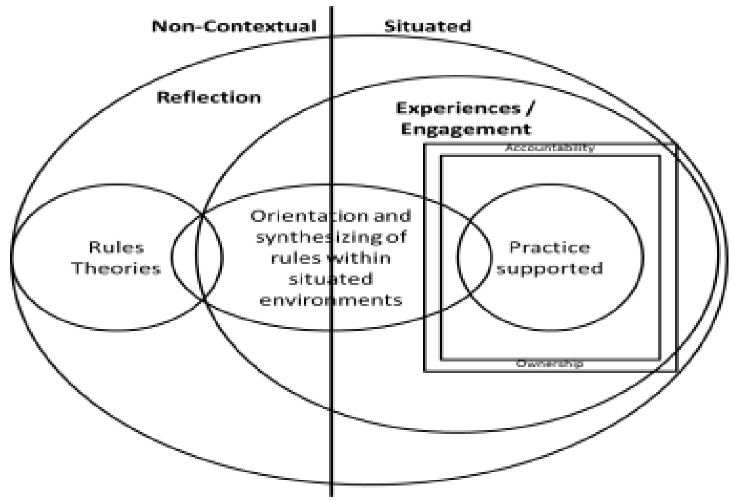
The impact of this model on the educator as the learner progresses is the transition from a traditional role of the one who provides knowledge and rules to that of facilitator/mentor who supports the learner by understanding their motivation and decision-making process to guide them to insightful and relevant understanding. As the transition begins around the advanced beginner and competent



Teacher Influence along Five Stages of Skill Acquisition phase, scaffolded guided learning takes shape and enables the learner to orient the rules within situated context and then move to a synthesis of rules and theories to create that deep connection of context and paradigm application. Polanyi's (1974) research here concerning tacit and explicit knowledge can provide useful insight for the internalization of the categorical competencies. By the learner being exposed to, guided, and socialized with basic principles; she is able to commit cognitive internalization to achieve relevance which I propose will lead to higher chances of emotive connection and confidence.

Description of the Model

The model is a synthetized progression model moving from rules and theoretical fundamentals to a two phase intermediate level course work that focuses on orienting rules within situated environments and then transitions to synthesizing skills with information in a unified effort to create a response and finally followed by capstone courses focused on conceptual engagement that provides foundation for development of perceptual skills found in expertise. These approaches are necessary in order to ensure adequate skill level comprehension prior to the synthesizing phase to ensure continued development. An additional level to the capstone experience is the development of the learner's sense of accountability for their leadership decision-making. This balance between generalist/theoretical skills and then context specific skills is hoped to induce transference of knowledge by providing a broader knowledge base that is tempered and linked (Perkins and Salomon, 1989).



A key facet to the model is the requirement for reflection and leadership interventions. Structured intervention along the paths of peer assessments, coaching, mentoring, and counseling have the strong capacity to induce leadership skills development among the learner and is a critical aspect to shaping appropriate reflection (Reichard and Avolio, 2005). The reflective process when followed up by assessment promotes positive practice and further sharpens the skills of perception. This process also supports the comments above concerning the work of Benner and Chemers regarding commitment and confidence and I believe that these two components will also ensure motivation within the learner. This process of supportive reflection situates the learning within a context that promotes relevance by apparent usefulness.

The "novice" and "advanced beginner" receives de-contextualized instruction on the three skill areas (human, technical, and conceptual) with the embedded component of ethics. The use of case studies and problem-solving simulations that have a defined response are examples of techniques appropriate to building domain knowledge of the three skill areas independently. "Advanced beginner" instruction also progresses into a broader based pedagogy that incorporates research and simulated exercises that combine the rules of the skills area for a learner to address a more comprehensive leadership situation. The learner begins to situate combined skills practice.

The "competent" phase continues to build upon the combined skills action by providing deeper contextual parameters by first orienting the skill areas within cultural situations. This builds from orientation to synthesizing when the learner is introduced to information-processing skills and they begin to analyze the situation, shape key skills to address the information, address cultural context, and use introspection of previous experiences into the problem-solving aspect. The learner is able to identify risks and begin to have emotional connection to skills execution that is necessary for further development of the ownership and accountability requirement. "Proficient" phase begins with engagement through experiences and through increased research to develop the ability to locate nuances and with ease skillfully develop strategies to influence, define a vision, and elicit purpose. The development of heightened perceptual skills at this stage provide contextual awareness and salience that itself produces self-awareness and from Avolio et al. (2009) we can conjecture that this will lead to greater self-development that in turn will develop into an expertise.

The focus of the progression model is to develop a practical learning environment attentive to cognitive performance. The use of experiential and simulated learning components are used to extract the learners' internalized processes and concepts for structuring context and the notions they may have behind exposure to certain phenomena. This pulling back to reveal the essence of the learners' reasoning provides opportunity for assessment of both competency comprehension but also for curricular effectiveness. Gott (1998) when referencing the works of de Kleer and Gitomer points out that individuals' first reason qualitatively to find and structure causal relations. Thus by using an experiential model and assessments hewed from this instructional method, the educator is able to better peer into the cognitive processes of the learner. This is better understood by the learner interacting with a full context as the model progresses to the "competent" and "proficient" stages. The challenge to the educator is the creation of authentic scenarios and experiences that invoke a sense of validity within the learner in order to induce a sense of relevance and application that in turn prompts reflection by the learner; as the scenarios increase the learner will have more experiences to reflect upon and that will ebb towards the cultivation of a nascent perceptual capacity.

Summary

The sequential progress of leadership pedagogy acknowledges that there are levels of competence within leadership skills and that these are instructable. When viewed within a structure of empirical and rational constructs that demonstrate the interrelatedness of principles, the learner is able to be guided along a path of information-processing (Resnick, 1975). This broad based model yields the ability to craft a program around acquiring expertise within key leadership competency areas and in positioning the learner for success within a complex and ambiguous world. The learner will be taken through sequenced course offerings to enhance their ability to understand, visualize, orient reasoned approaches, and influence action.

Further research needs to be conducted on the impact of reflective follow-up and coaching procedures and their impact on a learners' comprehension of leadership dimensions or competencies. An agreement on the skills that support the competency areas of technical, human, and conceptual is essential to have an agreed upon curricular sequence across leadership programs that will increase the image of professionalization of the leadership education field. Study into self-concept and identity to extrapolate in more detail the impacts this has on the ability of leaders to influence and the associated cognitive dimensions.

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