Annual Conference Proceedings

Association of Leadership Educators
27th Annual Conference

Cultivating Leadership Education for a Complex World

July 9 – 12, 2017
Charleston, SC

TABLE OF CONTENTS

EDUCATOR WORKSHOPS

But Who Grows Apples? Experiential Learning to Develop Active Listening in Leadership Education
Caitlin Bletscher, Washington State University

Developing a Campus-wide Leadership Model
Barb Kautz & Donna Freitag
University of Wisconsin – Madison

Cultivating Critical Thinking in a Complex World
Barry Boyd & Jennifer Strong
Texas A&M University

DRAG-IT: A Guide for Critical Reflection for Enhancing College Student Learning and Leadership Development *2016-17 ALE Mini-Grant Recipient*
Cheyenne Luzynski, West Virginia University
Cory Hamilton, Eastern Michigan University

The Future of Civic Leadership: Exploring the Intersections of Service-Learning and Community Engagement and Leadership Education
Kerry L. Priest, Kansas State University
Lori E. Kniffin, University of North Carolina Greensboro
Patti H. Clayton, IUPUI, UNCG, & Kansas State University

Noticing, Stopping the Action, and Starting Something New: A Look at the Core of Intentional Emergence Teaching
David Hellstrom, Jason Jackson, & Ben Marcy
University of Minnesota

The Complexities of Challenge and Support: Intersecting Identities of Leadership Educators and Students
Jason Jackson, Ben Marcy, & Cayley Reif
University of Minnesota

Leadership Coaching: The Innovative Intersection of Career and Leadership Development
Erin Morgenstern & Erika Peyton
Ohio University

A New Lens for Leadership Education: Grounding Agency in Credible Knowledge in the Face of Counter-Reality
Anthony C. Andenoro, Linnea Dulikravich, & Nicole L. P. Stedman
University of Florida

Crucial Conversations: Facilitating Dialogue in Turbulent Times
Susan Luchey, University of Delaware

Barbara Altman, Texas A&M University - Central Texas

Cultivating the Intentional Use of Art as Leadership Pedagogy: Mixing Music and Media
Daniel Jenkins, University of Southern Maine
Amanda Cutchens, University of South Florida

But Who Grows Apples?
Experiential Learning to Develop Active Listening in Leadership Education

Caitlin Bletscher
Washington State University

Abstract

"We learn in elementary school how to write, read, and speak, but virtually no class time is spent teaching techniques to make listening more effective." The challenge for the transformational leader in our current complex world is to find ways to listen effectively (Wolvin, 2005). This Educator Workshop provides the content, pedagogy, and delivery for how to effectively and experientially combat this challenge by introducing the concept of active listening in the classroom. Participants will leave this workshop with a scholarly, theoretical, and practical understanding of active listening; equipped with tools to implement an active listening exercise into their leadership and/or communication courses; and engage in discussion for addressing active listening in today's organizations and communities.

Introduction

"By learning the skills and behaviors of active listening, leaders can become more effective listeners and, over time, improve their ability to lead"
(Hoppe, 2006, p. 10).

The relationship between listening and leadership is not a novel concept. Scholars have identified listening as a cognitive (recall and memory), relational (the link between the person and the information), or behavioral process (Johnson & Bechler, 1998). Research has shown that leaders who are proactive to listen more effectively satisfy the needs of their followers, improve group performance, increase organizational effectiveness (Young, 1997) and productivity, and enhance workplace innovation (Kotter, 2001).

In today's organizations, where communication is not necessarily defined or restricted to location, listening through the medium of technology also becomes essential for leadership. Dinnocenzo (2006) identifies this as 'listening to see,' when we cannot use our eyes to pick up nonverbal cues within virtual communication situations.
In the world of leadership education, listening must therefore become a priority to infuse in our curriculum. Listening has become an essential component of constructive discussion within higher education pedagogy (Herman, 1991). However, the question remains: *How do we instill effective listening in our university students to develop effective leaders?*

"We learn in elementary school how to write, read, and speak, but virtually no class time is spent teaching techniques to make listening more effective" (Basaran, 2002, p. 109). Despite this lack of learned skill, we tend to complete a majority of our communication efforts on listening; while researchers suggest we spent 60-70% of our time communicating, an estimated 45% of that communication is dedicated to listening (Burton & Burton, 1997).

"The challenge to the transformational leader is to find ways to listen effectively" (Wolvin, 2005, p. 33). This Educator Workshop provides the content, pedagogy, and delivery for how to effectively and experientially combat this challenge by introducing the concept of active listening. Upon completion of this Educator Workshop, participants will meet the following learner objectives:

1. Develop a scholarly, theoretical, and practical understanding of active listening;
2. Become equipped with tools to implement an active listening exercise into their leadership and/or communication courses; and
3. Engage in discussion for addressing active listening in today's organizations and communities.

Review of Related Scholarship

Active listening is "a person's willingness and ability to hear and understand" (Hoppe, 2006, p. 10). During this process, the listener "reflects back her or his 'impression of the expression of the sender' by paraphrasing or interpreting what the talker is communicating" (Weissglass, 2015, p. 355). Active listening involves an interpersonal connection, and commonly includes solving problems (Weissglass, 2015); this type of listening "involves bringing about and finding common ground, connecting to each other, and opening up to new possibilities" (Hoppe, 2006, p. 10).

Active listening is both an external and internal process. Heifetz (1994) highlights this internal process in leadership by suggesting that in order for leaders to appropriate interpret the world around them, they must first "understand his[/her] own ways of processing" in order to "learn about their own filters and biases and factor them into their interpretations" (p. 272).

Previous Literature

Active listening is an interdisciplinary tool and study; previous literature on active listening has spanned across disciplines and contexts. A significant amount of listening research has been conducted within the health field, demonstrating that the providers listening skills that demonstrate relationship-centered care actually improves patient motivation and their commitment to a plan of action (Marvel, Bailey, Pfaffly, & Gunn, 2003).

Previous active listening research has also involved the field political science. Wolvin (2005) of the University of Maryland examined the significance of listening within a case study of Hillary Clinton's 1999 Listening Tour, starting her successful run for the US Senate. Drawing from Clinton's tour, Wolvin (2005) suggested that before the leader can shape the vision of his/her followers, he/she needs to listen to them in order to best understand how that vision should be developed and implemented. In this case study, he claims that Clinton was a transformational leader who used her Listening Tour to initially understand the needs of her constituents, as well as to reshape and refine her vision.

Active listening is a necessary tool to develop and introduce within leadership studies. Reave's (2005) review of over 150 studies showed that listening responsively, which includes "responding to their needs… to express caring and concern" (p. 676), is a crucial skill in

effective leadership. This type of listening means "not only acknowledging their concerns, but also recognizing and respecting good ideas" (p. 679). Similarly, Johnson and Bechler (1998) examined the relationship between listening effectiveness and leadership in task-oriented small work groups among undergraduate students. Results concluded that a strong, positive relationship existed among listening perceptions and leadership perceptions, demonstrating that leaders typically displayed more effective listening skills than the other members of the group.

A study conducted among directors of privately owned Early Childhood Education Centers in the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus revealed that listening skills among leadership needed to improve in order to form effective relationships with the organizations staff and stakeholders (i.e., children and their parents) (Basaran, 2002). However, in this study, researchers found that while the data from the Listening Profile Questionnaire (adapted from Brownell, 1989) showed leaders as adequate/excellent listeners, researcher observations concluded that leaders are lacking said skills (Basaran, 2002). Similarly, many leaders may be unaware of their inability to actively listen in organizational settings.

Listening and Leadership Studies

Listening has been further explored and developed within both transformational and servant leadership. The transformational leader requires not only a heightened level of listening, but empathetic listening (Kelley, 2000). Such empathetic listening "is a bridge in relationships. It means to understand, to respect another" (Kelley, 2000 p. 4), where the leader must "suspend [his/her] own preoccupation within himself/herself – needs, image, opinions, expertise – and enter the experience, mind and emotions of another person" (Kelley, 2000, p. 5). Similarly, from an organizational leadership perspective, Burns (1978) argues that the transformational leader must listen to know his/her stakeholders, as well as what they perceive that they need in order to create organizational change.

Larry Spears, previous longtime President and CEO of the Robert K. Greenleaf Center for Servant Leadership, drew from Greenleaf's (1996) original views on listening, which included a focus on attentiveness (manifested externally as well), drawing attention to the thought process. Spears (2002) therefore viewed listening as "getting in touch with one's own inner voice and seeking to understand what one's body, spirit, and mind are communicating" (p. 5). These fathers of servant leadership suggested that the listening leader must, in turn, develop a "persistent communicative posture marked by (a) personal self-reflection, (b) an attentive attitude towards others, and (c) consequent attentive practices" (Rennaker, 2008, p. 11).

Lesson Plan Description

Introduction to Active Listening (10 minutes)

Conference participants will first be introduced to the concept of active listening, as introduced in the course content of the Effective Communication and Life Skills course. Participants will gain not only an understanding of the definition of active listening, but also the three degrees of active listening: repeating, paraphrasing, and reflecting. These concepts will be highlighted by

example and video. The PowerPoint slides for the content of this module are included in Appendix A of this Educator Workshop paper.

Following this content, the facilitator will then ask conference participants, "What might influence which level of active listening you apply to a given situation?" After watching a short video on inhibitors, the facilitator with gather feedback from the audience on 'listening miscues' that can impact our ability to actively listen in a given situation.

Active Listening Exercise (20 minutes)

The following active listening exercise was adapted from Illingworth and Sayers from the Learnhigher CETL at the University of Bradford (2010), and is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution-Non-Commercial-Share-Alike 2.0 license (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-sa/2.0/uk/).

Following the active listening content, participants will then be divided into small groups of four.* Each member of the small group of four will be given a different sheet of paper (it helps with the organizational structure to include different colors of paper as well) with information (see Appendices B and C). Stress to participants that there are only two rules to the activity:

1. You cannot show anyone in your group your piece of paper; and
2. You cannot write anything down.

Other than these two rules, everything else in this exercise is 'fair game.' Indicate to participants that you will be walking around to answer any questions they may have. Once a group has 'the answer,' they must waive down the facilitator to check their answer.

It is important to note that at the beginning of the exercise, most groups are usually very confused with the lack of direction/instruction, indicating that they 'don't know what the purpose is.' This is a great opportunity to reiterate the two only rules in this activity; encourage them by stating that they have all the information they need. Some participants might become frustrated with this response, but try to refrain from further instruction to gain more insight in the discussion afterwards.

*Please note if there is an uneven number of participants in the groups, or participants are already assigned into small groups of larger than four, 'extra' individuals can still help in the problem solving process; however, they are also not allowed to see any pieces of paper, nor write anything down.

Active Listening Discussion Questions (20 minutes)

Upon conclusion of the exercise, once a group has provided their answer to the facilitator, the following discussion questions will be proposed, along with guided prompts for further depth:

1. **For the group who finished first, tell us a little about your process.**

2. **Who found it challenging to start initially? Why was that?**

In this discussion question, try to highlight the fact that if you did not realize where to start (i.e., that there are two questions needed to be answered, embedded in only two of the four pieces of paper), then you are unable to start. This question is essential, because for many groups, they may not understand that there are two questions present in the information provided. Because their group members did not use inflection to indicate that there was a question, or did not give the context that there was a question in their paper, this starting point can be missed.

This can lead into two conversations: **"How did context play a role in this initial start?"** *and* **"How did assumptions play a role in this?"** *In regards to context, this can be a valuable lesson if students did not provide any indication that they had questions on their paper. This conversation can lead into how context (providing our own perspective) is very important when interacting with groups to show how we perceive the project, goal, or idea. This context is essential for further innovation (new ways to solve the problem) and efficiency (figuring out the problem faster). In regards to assumptions, many students assume that their paper looks identical (or similar) to other members in the group; however, not all students have questions on their paper. This can play a significant role in how students groups (and organizational groups) are successful).*

Similarly, assumptions can be brought up by the facilitator by asking student, **"What assumptions did you have when you started this exercise, and how did that play a role in the process?"** *Students may also have assumptions about how the information is organized on the paper; for example, the heading of each piece of paper is necessary information in order to solve the problem. Many students miss this bolded heading because they assume it is not relevant to solving the problem. This can be a valuable lesson on the assumptions that we hold in our organizations or groups about what 'process' looks like, and about what happens when we do not gain all the needed/necessary information.*

This conversation can flow into, **"How does this show up in our organizations and communities?"** *which links to times when projects do not have a clear starting point and the group must decipher how to initially start. By engaging specifically how each group started (i.e., hearing from everyone at the beginning of the exercise), the discussion can include mentioning how everyone must come to the table with their information. Similarly,* **"What happens when we do not bring everyone to the conversation?"** *This can further be emphasized by asking students,* **"Would it have been helpful to have additional people to solve this problem? Why or why not?"**

3. **What were some listening 'miscues' that showed up in this exercise and how did that impact solving your problem?**

A key listening miscue that many students will emphasize is too much information. This conversation can be directed to how communicate in meetings (or perhaps overwhelming microbiology lectures), with excessive information – **"How does excessive information impact the communication process moving forward?"** *If it wasn't addressed earlier with assumptions, it might be important to ask,* **"How, on the other hand, listening miscues can happen when faced with too little information?"**

4. **How did nonverbal communication play a role in this exercise?**

For several groups, they might start to recognize that they cannot write anything down, but that doesn't mean that they cannot visually arrange any objects in the room (i.e., shoes, water bottles) to be representative of the problem, in order to find the solution. If I find that participants are getting stuck on this process, I will give them a small hint to indicate that this is allowed within the 'rules' of the exercise.

If participants do engage in this practice, facilitators should explore this by asking, **"How did this help the process?"** *and* **"Why is this important to remember when communicating with a group of people?"**

5. **Think back to the entire process: where did you see repeating, paraphrasing, and reflecting play a role in this exercise?**

If participants are stuck on this question, ask how many of them used 'repeating,' where they mindlessly went person by person to read through their paper, then repeated it again – **"How helpful was that in solving the problem?"**
In paraphrasing, try to see where they identified the 'thinking and reasoning' portion of paraphrasing (when they figured out the two embedded questions, when they figured out how many farmers there were, etc.). Then, address how they would use 'similar words' (this could have happened when participants were repeating what was already said, but trying to make sense of it).

When participants have reached reflecting, ask how this was different from repeating and paraphrasing – **"How did you use your own words and sentences?"** *This might help to direct this question to the group who was first to accomplish their task.*

6. **Our active listening definition has three specific components. When thinking about how our second piece: "listen intently with the goal of empathizing with the speaker" – how did this impact your process?**

Many times, this is reflective on the emotional process of the simply problem-solving exercise. I have found that this can be a very frustrating and challenging process for participants, which brings up various emotions. Encourage the conversation to address how it was helpful (or unhelpful) to acknowledge that this is a challenging exercise.

Similarly, this conversation can unfold to be a bit deeper and broader, to introduce, **"How do emotions impact our ability to actively listen?"** *and* **"How can empathy play a role in that process, when emotions are high?"**

Discussion of Outcomes/Results

By teaching this module several times in both communication (Effective Oral Communication, Intercultural Communication, Communication and Life Skills) and leadership (Leadership Development, Global Leadership) courses, I have discovered several necessary items.

First, this exercise is incredibly engaging for students. Even for students who I have found to be disconnected throughout the entire semester, this exercise will draw them out to interact with their group to solve the problem. Once the solution is shown for all students to see, a huge commotion ensues; if students are in small groups throughout the semester, this has been an excellent way to start to build those relationships initially.

Secondly, it is important to focus more on the discussion and debrief than the process itself. Due to time restraints, I have cut the exercise short in many occasions, which students find very frustrating. However, the power in the debrief exercise, and how it can be applied to 'real life' situations is very powerful. The discussion also allows for introspective reflection on the exercise and how participants' behaviors may or may not have been helpful to finding solutions to the presented problem. From conversations I have had with students, they have indicated a deeper understanding of how to listen among their friends and family, with a deeper understanding of how to become more empathetic.

Thirdly, infuse active listening throughout the semester. Starting with this exercise in the beginning of the semester, I have included active listening in discussions in class on other topics, started class with asking about active listening experiences that day, etc. Just recently, I have included a "Stretch Application" assignment, drawing from this concept, material, and exercise. In this Stretch Application assignment, we asked students to engage in active listening, apply the concept to their experience, and reflect how they plan to specifically engage in this in the future. Honestly, it was challenging for them to see active listening in this personal life situation, so we had to further emphasize the point in class, after reading through their assignments.

Fourthly, emphasize the fact that active listening is **active**, not passive. This was probably the biggest 'take away' after completion of the above-mentioned Stretch Application assignment. Students have suggested that active listening is simply 'shutting up and staying quiet;' to emphasize this before, during, and after the exercise allows students to truly understand why active listening is a form of communication.

Lastly, include personal examples in this experience in order to drive home the message that active listening is significantly important to our daily discussions – personal and professional. In order to be effective leaders in our organizations, among our friends, and within our communities, we must engage in all three levels of the active listening process to best communicate with others.

Workshop Plan and Implication

By engaging participants in the activity itself allows for introspective reflection and experiential learning. Participants will also be able to better implement the experience in their own classrooms (or leadership programs) after experiencing and debriefing through their own process, thoughts, and emotions throughout the presented active listening activity. This

experience will allow participants to also reflect on their current behaviors within their own personal lives that either enhance or inhibit their ability to actively listen.

References

Basaran, K. (2002). Listening: An important interpersonal communication skill for leadership. In V. Nivalu & E. Hujala. *Leadership in Early Childhood Education: Cross-cultural Perspectives.* pp. 107-114. Oulun Yliopisto, Oulu: University of Oulu.

Brownell, J. (1989). Listening Questionnaire. In C. G. Coakley & A. D. Wolvin. (eds.). *Experiential Listening: Tools for Teachers and Trainers.* New Orleans, LA: Spectra Inc.

Burns, J. M. (1978). *Leadership.* New York City, NY: Harper & Row.

Burton, J., & Burton, L. (1997). *Interpersonal Skills for Travel and Tourism.* Essex: Addison Wesley Longman Ltd.

Dinnocenzo, D. (2006). *How to lead from a distance.* Flower Mound, TX: Walk the Talk.

Greenleaf, R. K. (1996). *On Becoming a Servant Leader.* San Francisco, CA: Jossey Bass.

Heifetz, R. A. (1994). *Leadership without Easy Answer.* London: Belknap Press.

Herman, L. B. (1991). With open ears: Listening and the art of discussion learning. In *Education for Judgement: The Artistry of Discussion Leadership.* C. R. Christensen, D. A. Garvin, & A. Sweet (eds.). Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Press.

Hoppe, M. H. (2006). *Active Listening: Improve Your Ability to Listen and Lead.* Greensboro, NC: Center for Creative Leadership.

Johnson, S. D., & Bechler, C. (1998). Examining the relationship between listening effectiveness and leadership emergence. *Small Group Research, 29*(4), 452-471.

Kelley, L. A. (2000). Transformational leadership through listening.

Kotter, J. P. (2001). What leaders really do. *Harvard Business Review, 79*(11), 85-97.

Marvel, K., Bailey, A., Pfaffly, C., & Gunn, W. (2003). Relationship-centered administration: Transferring effective communication skills from the exam room to the conference room. *Journal of Healthcare Management, 48*(2), 112-121.

Reave, L. (2005). Spiritual values and practices related to leadership effectiveness.

Rennaker, M. A. (2008). *Listening and persuasion: Examining the communicative patterns of servant leadership* (Doctoral dissertation). Doctorate of Philosophy in Organizational Leadership, Regent University.

Spears, L. C. (2002). *Focus on Leadership: Servant-leadership for the 21ˢᵗ Century.* New York City, NY: John Wiley & Sons.

Weissglass, J. (2015). Constructivist listening for empowerment and change. Retrieved from http://neighborhoodpartnerships.org/wp-content/uploads/2015/12/JW-Constructivist-Listening.pdf.
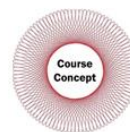
Wolvin, A. D. (2005). Listening leadership: Hillary Clinton's Listening Tour. *International Journal of Listening,* 29-38.

Young, S. L. (1997). The interplay between listening and leadership: Implications for transformational and values-based ideologies. National Communication Association. Chicago, IL.

Appendix A
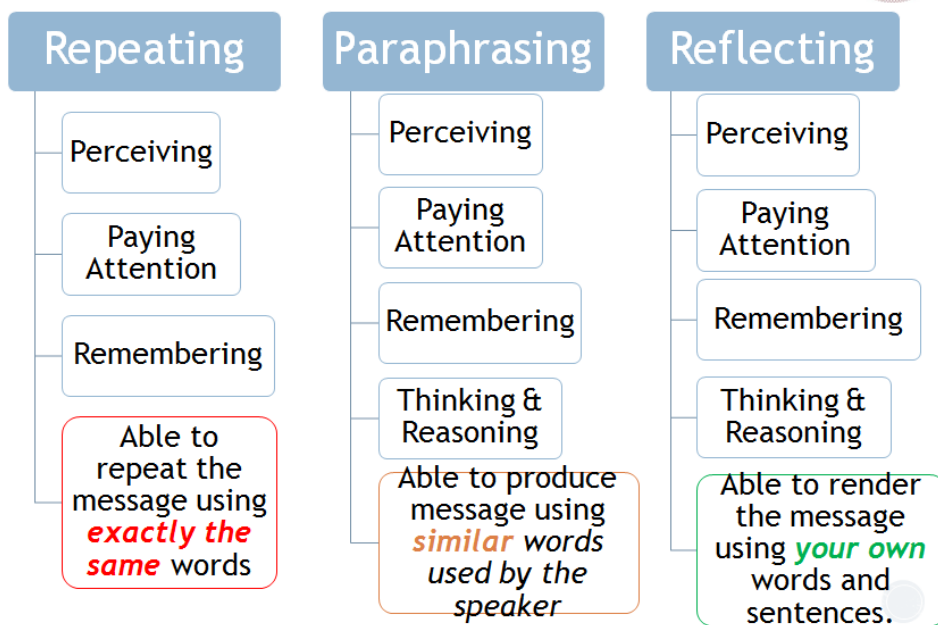Active Listening PowerPoint Slides

Appendix B
Active Listening Exercise

THE HOUSES IN THE VILLAGE ARE IN A SEMI-CIRCLE BESIDE EACH OTHER

Farmer Jones lives in the log cabin.

The farmer who lives next to Jones drives a saloon car.

Only one house is located on the east side.

Farmer Harris grows pears.

There are rabbits in the ranch house garden.

Farmer Brown lives next to farmer Skinner.
_____

EACH FARMER BREEDS A DIFFERENT KIND OF ANIMAL

The ranch house stands next to the cottage.

A motorcycle stands in the back yard of the log cabin.

Only farmer Skinner lives at the west end of the village.

Farmer Brown drives a sports car.

The person who raises cats lives next door, to the east, of the house with the almond trees.

The farmer who raises dogs also grows cherries.

EACH FARMER GROWS A DIFFERENT KIND OF FRUIT

Farmer Jones' neighbor breeds mice.

Only one house is located on the west side.

There is a hatchback in the ranch house garage.

Every week, boxes of dog food are placed at the gate of the log cabin.

Farmer Skinner raises pigeons.

???And who drives a truck???

EACH FARMER DRIVES A DIFFERENT KIND OF VEHICLE & LIVES IN A DIFFERENT TYPE OF HOUSE

Farmer Clark raises rabbits.

???But who grows apples???

The log cabin is in the most northern position in the village.

Skinner lives next to the red brick house.

The dog's owner lives next door to the house with the plum orchard.

The farmer in the bungalow breeds pigeons.

Appendix C
Active Listening Exercise – Solution

This active listening exercise was adapted from Illingworth and Sayers from the Learnhigher CETL at the University of Bradford (2010), and is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution-Non-Commercial-Share-Alike 2.0 license (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-sa/2.0/uk/).

SKINNER	BROWN	JONES	HARRIS	CLARK
BUNGALOW	RED BRICK	LOG CABIN	COTTAGE	RANCH HOUSE
TRUCK	SPORTS CAR	MOTOR CYCLE	SALOON CAR	HATCHBACK
ALMONDS	PLUMS	CHERRIES	PEARS	**APPLES**
PIGEONS	CATS	DOGS	MICE	RABBITS

Each team has to answer the questions:

Who grows apples and who drives a truck?

Developing a Campus-wide Leadership Model

Barb Kautz & Donna Freitag
University of Wisconsin – Madison

Abstract

Our institution came together to create a shared vision and common language for leadership via an intentional and unique model, the Leadership Framework. Join us for this session where we will briefly give the history and overview of this campus-wide values and competency-based leadership model and highlight some of the practical ways (course curriculum, student/professional staff development, student programs) the Framework has been implemented, with a particular focus on our Leadership Certificate program. We will explore how the **Leadership Framework** became adopted at the university, share lessons learned throughout the implementation process and highlight tools and resources that have been put to use on campus.

Introduction

In the Fall of 2011, after considerable outreach and analyzing input from hundreds of campus stakeholders, our institution could accurately state that leadership training and development existed all over campus, yet there was no shared vision, common goals or understanding of long term outcomes. During this session participants will learn how a large, decentralized research university grappled with the challenge of creating a shared commitment to intentional leadership education. Through a multi-year process, leadership educators helped outline a common language for 'leadership' that enables students, faculty and staff to engage in the process of change. The program will consist of a short orientation to the Leadership Framework (see chart below), a brief history of the process that resulted in the Leadership Framework (which is comprised of three values , seven competencies and sample outcomes), examples of implementation successes, and an overview of our Leadership Certificate Program, which serves as an exemplar of campus implementation.

The workshop will also allow participants to become familiar with the Framework through interactive activities. One of the primary focuses of this session is on the development of a unique, campus specific framework that draws on extensive leadership research and theory. This provides an example for other institutions on how to contextualize concepts of leadership on their campuses. Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership (MSL) data has highlighted the value of providing diverse leadership opportunities in a decentralized environment. The Framework provides an opportunity for alignment of those diverse opportunities while reinforcing leadership learning through shared language across a variety of campus and community contexts.

Learning Outcomes

Session participants will:

- Learn about our institution's approach to coordinating and supporting leadership development through the use of a shared Framework.

- Demonstrate how the Leadership Certificate Program aligns with a shared campus-wide leadership model and builds on key high impact practices including community service, mentorship and socio-cultural conversations.
- Explore the values and competencies of the Leadership Framework through reflection and innovative tools that have been developed to deepen leadership learning.

UW-MADISON LEADERSHIP FRAMEWORK	VALUES		
	Integrity	**Inclusive Engagement**	**Connection and Community**
Self-Awareness	Examining one's own beliefs, values, emotions, and cultural context and their influence on one's ability to provide leadership to the group	Inviting others to examine and share their beliefs, values, emotions, and cultural context as they relate to the work of the group	Helping group members connect their shared beliefs, values, emotions, and cultural context to the larger community affected by the work of the group
Interpersonal Communication	Sharing all relevant information openly with the group	Drawing out and encouraging the open sharing of all group members' perspectives	Communicating group information openly with the larger community and eliciting honest feedback
Supporting Learning and Development of Others	Engaging in continuous learning and being a model for the group	Providing learning opportunities for group members and encouraging them to participate	Helping group members develop skills to engage the community, expand their networks, and represent the group
Honoring Context and Culture	Developing one's own understanding of the group's culture(s) and acknowledging the impact of negative stereotypes	Helping group members recognize cultural values and remove cultural barriers and assumptions	Promoting trust and good will within the cultural context of each community involved
Decision-Making	Creating transparent decision-making processes and demonstrating personal accountability for decisions	Facilitating participants to reach consensus as they make decisions	Considering impact on and trust of other communities in reaching and communicating decisions
Fostering Bridge-Building and Collaboration	Listening attentively to differing ideas and considering them thoughtfully and fairly	Building shared ownership and trust among group members with diverse backgrounds and viewpoints	Developing coalitions and consensus with a diverse set of community partners
Moving Ideas into Action	Communicating a compelling vision for change while managing risk and recognizing the impact of change on others	Energizing the group around a shared vision of change and helping them face and overcome fears	Partnering with community stakeholders to identify and implement positive change

(COMPETENCIES)

Review of Related Scholarship

As a research, teaching and service oriented institution, it was critical for any share leadership language to be deeply informed by existing leadership research and theory. When it became clear that there was an institutional appetite to address this challenge, a cross-campus planning team was convened to develop a useable and portable Framework for students, faculty and staff.

Data Sources & Planning Team Sub-Groups

The first several Planning Team meetings were dedicated to conceptualizing how best to meet the stated goals of the team's charter. A framework development diagram emerged that included specific data sources that would inform the content of the Leadership Framework. During a planned Idea Session in October 2012, Planning Team members identified specific content, pertinent questions and potential resources that related to each of the data sources. The four primary data sources identified were:

Research/Scholarship: (highlighted below): Ensured that the framework is tied to the academic field of study and aligned with the current, available and relevant research on leadership.

Leadership Programs: Allowed framework to be informed by current programming's (both curricular and co-curricular) practical application of leadership development.

Institutional Values & Initiatives: Determined how our institution's guiding documents and traditions (Essential Learning Outcomes, Wisconsin Idea, etc.) align or integrate with the Leadership Framework allowing for contextualization.

Outreach & Feedback: Enacted a plan to inform shared governance groups of the initiative and gather feedback from campus and employers of alumni.

The following list provides more detailed information on what sources were reviewed and consulted when developing the Leadership Framework.

Research-Scholarship

Collaborative Leadership Model
- A management practice which is focused on the leadership skills across functional and organizational boundaries.

Council for the Advancement of Standards in Higher Education
- "CAS creates and delivers dynamic, credible standards, guidelines, and Self-Assessment Guides that are designed to lead to a host of quality programs and services. CAS aims to foster and enhance student learning, development, and achievement."

Emotional Intelligence
- The ability to identify access and control the emotions of oneself, of others, and of groups.

LeaderShape
- Strives to enable college students to lead with integrity.

Leadership Challenge, The
- Stresses leadership is not about personality, rather it's about behavior—an observable set of skills or abilities.

Multi-Institutional Leadership Study
- An instrument based on the Socially Responsible Leadership Scale measuring the Social Change Model of Leadership that assesses a broad range of leadership and college outcomes and the experiences that influence them.

Servant Leadership
- Recognizes a leader as one who shares power, puts the needs of others first and helps people develop and perform as highly as possible.

Situational Leadership
- Recognizes there is no single "best" style of leadership. Effective leadership is task-relevant, and the most successful leaders can adapt their leadership style.

Social Change Model
- The Social Change Model aims to facilitate positive social change at the institution or in the community and to enhance student learning and development; more specifically to develop self-knowledge and leadership competence.

Systems Theory
- A model of decision making in organized systems.

Trait Theory of Leadership
- Integrated patterns of personal characteristics that reflect a range of individual differences and foster consistent leader effectiveness across a variety of group and organizational situations.

Transformational Leadership
- Enhances the motivation, morale and performance of other through various mechanisms.

Tuckman's Group Development
- Four phases are necessary in order for a team to grow, face challenges, problem solve and deliver results.

Employee Competencies
- Human Resource Design recommendations for implementing a competency-based approach, and outlines current issues, challenges, and benefits of using such an approach.

<u>13 Behaviors of Trust – Covey</u>
- There are thirteen behaviors of a high trust leader.

Lesson Plan

1. Welcome, Introductions & Session Goals
2. What Does Leadership Mean to You?
   - Individual Reflection
   - Large Group Report Out
3. Purpose & History of the Leadership Framework
   - Share our Institution's Context (De-centralized, Grassroots, etc.)
   - Yearly Goals & Accomplishments
4. Introduce of the Leadership Framework
   - Three Principles, Value (contextual), Competencies & Outcomes
   - Power of Framework Structure: Values + Competencies = Outcomes
5. Leadership Certificate Overview and Alignment with the Framework
   - Values and Competency Card Activities
     o Each person shares the value or competency card they received upon arrival with a partner, discusses what that competency or value means to them
6. Campus/Community Framework Implementers
   - Implementation Support (Community of Practice and Consultants)
   - Applied in Classrooms, Student Organizations, Leadership Programs, Awards, etc.
   - Tool for Campus Change Initiatives
7. Framework Tools and Resources
   - Leadershare On-line Resource Directory
     o Programs & Resource identify which competency and values are integrated
   - Self-Assessment Booklets
     o Activity
       ▪ Fill out one competency in Self-Assessment Booklet
       ▪ Discussion as a group
   - Cards
     o Activity
       ▪ Group Split into Two Equal Sizes – ½ Competency ½ Value Cards
       ▪ Pairs: Share a Time when Intersection of Values & Competency was experienced Large Group Report Out
   - Game/Problem Solving Activity
8. Opportunities, Challenges & Successes of Initiative
   - Working with Ambiguity, Sustainability, Funding, Project Scope, etc.
   - Energy and Support from Wide Cross Section of Campus
9. Moving Ideas into Action: Applying Your Learning
   - Key Takeaways: What Have you Learned that You'll Bring Back:
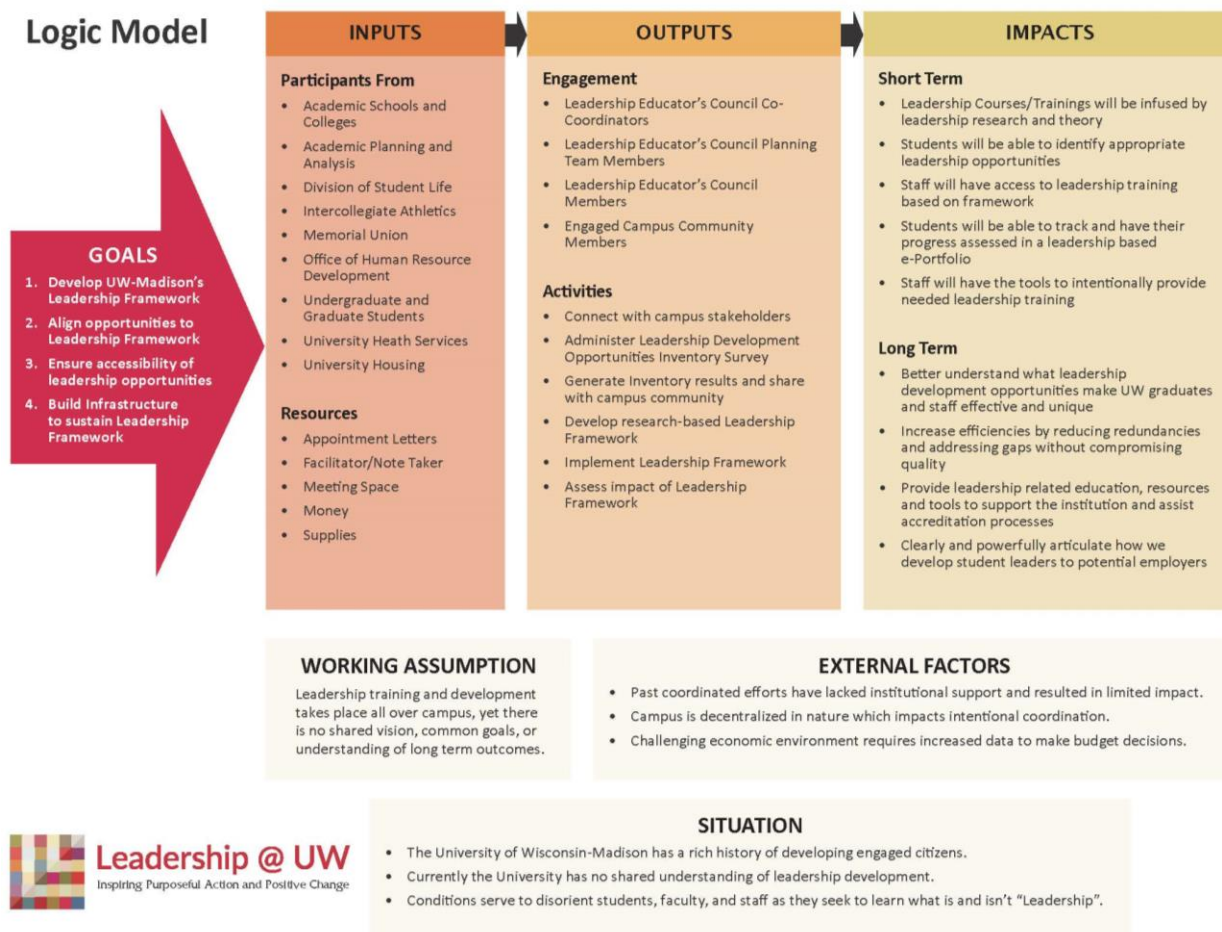   - Individual Reflection, Pair Share
   - Questions

Discussion of Outcomes and Results

Through the development of the Framework, we learned:

- The importance of relationship building which allowed us to tap into important campus resources such as printing and publications
- The value of receiving feedback/ideas from stakeholders
- New tools and resources were created to generate interest in the shared model
- A unified philosophy of leadership can be a hard sell to campus partners who are happy with their traditional ways of teaching leadership
- How our university works in terms of structure and bureaucracy when implementing new initiatives
- The importance of finding out where the support lies and fostering it (focus on the depth of that support not breathe)
- The understanding that things don't happen overnight as this was a multi-year process and patience was imperative
- The value of the bottom-up approach and campus-wide buy-in is paramount in promoting new initiatives (strength in numbers)
- The importance of obtaining Executive Sponsors (Dean, Department Chair, etc.)
- Through ambiguous and uncertain situations wonderful new ideas and solutions were discovered
- We were able to provide a means of support for those interested in implementing the Framework by offering consulting opportunities and a Community of Practice process
- To celebrate the implementation of the framework, we host an annual Open House to honor the leadership work that has been done across campus
- We aligned our Leadership Certificate program with the Leadership Framework

Workshop Plan & Implications

Participants will gain an understanding of how to develop a campus-based leadership model and tools for integrating it into their campuses curriculum, programs and Certificate Programs, if applicable. Listed below is the **Logic Model** used to create our leadership model, the Leadership Framework.

Logic Model

GOALS
1. Develop UW-Madison's Leadership Framework
2. Align opportunities to Leadership Framework
3. Ensure accessibility of leadership opportunities
4. Build Infrastructure to sustain Leadership Framework

INPUTS

Participants From
- Academic Schools and Colleges
- Academic Planning and Analysis
- Division of Student Life
- Intercollegiate Athletics
- Memorial Union
- Office of Human Resource Development
- Undergraduate and Graduate Students
- University Heath Services
- University Housing

Resources
- Appointment Letters
- Facilitator/Note Taker
- Meeting Space
- Money
- Supplies

OUTPUTS

Engagement
- Leadership Educator's Council Co-Coordinators
- Leadership Educator's Council Planning Team Members
- Leadership Educator's Council Members
- Engaged Campus Community Members

Activities
- Connect with campus stakeholders
- Administer Leadership Development Opportunities Inventory Survey
- Generate Inventory results and share with campus community
- Develop research-based Leadership Framework
- Implement Leadership Framework
- Assess impact of Leadership Framework

IMPACTS

Short Term
- Leadership Courses/Trainings will be infused by leadership research and theory
- Students will be able to identify appropriate leadership opportunities
- Staff will have access to leadership training based on framework
- Students will be able to track and have their progress assessed in a leadership based e-Portfolio
- Staff will have the tools to intentionally provide needed leadership training

Long Term
- Better understand what leadership development opportunities make UW graduates and staff effective and unique
- Increase efficiencies by reducing redundancies and addressing gaps without compromising quality
- Provide leadership related education, resources and tools to support the institution and assist accreditation processes
- Clearly and powerfully articulate how we develop student leaders to potential employers

WORKING ASSUMPTION
Leadership training and development takes place all over campus, yet there is no shared vision, common goals, or understanding of long term outcomes.

EXTERNAL FACTORS
- Past coordinated efforts have lacked institutional support and resulted in limited impact.
- Campus is decentralized in nature which impacts intentional coordination.
- Challenging economic environment requires increased data to make budget decisions.

SITUATION
- The University of Wisconsin-Madison has a rich history of developing engaged citizens.
- Currently the University has no shared understanding of leadership development.
- Conditions serve to disorient students, faculty, and staff as they seek to learn what is and isn't "Leadership".

Leadership @ UW
Inspiring Purposeful Action and Positive Change

References

Allen, S. J. & Roberts, D. C. (2011). Our response to the question: Next steps in clarifying the language of leadership learning. *Journal of Leadership Studies*, 5(2), 63-69.

Dugan, J. P., Bohle, C. W., Woelker, L., & Cooney, M. A. (in press). Contributions of social perspective-taking to the development of college students' leadership capacities. *Journal of Student Affairs Research and Practice*.

Seemiller, C. (2014). The Student Leadership Competencies Guidebook: Designing Intentional Leadership Learning and Development. San Francisco : Jossey-Bass.

Schmid, M. Gillian-Daniel, D., Kraemer, S. & Kuppers, M. (2016 September/October). Promoting Student Academic Achievement Through Faculty Development about Inclusive Teaching. *Change: The Magazine of Higher Learning*, 48(5), 17-25

Cultivating Critical Thinking in a Complex World

Barry Boyd & Jennifer Strong
Texas A&M University

Abstract

Employers expect colleges and universities to prepare work-ready graduates who are critical thinkers. While colleges and universities have begun to make critical thinking a priority, most do not appear to have a strategy on educating faculty how to develop critical thinking skills in their students. Participants at this educator workshop will learn the theoretical basics, a model for critical thinking, and specific strategies and activities to implement, in the classroom, to increase students' critical thinking skills. Outcomes include increased knowledge of critical thinking standards and the elements of thought as well as practical and implementable teaching strategies to increase student critical thinking.

Introduction

There is a noticeable deficiency in critical thinking skills with current undergraduate students (Strong, & Williams, 2014). Some point to primary education and standardized testing as the source of the deficiency, but higher education does not seem to be actively working to change this deficit. John Henry Newman, in his classic treatise on the role of religion and moral values in education, stated:

A man may hear a thousand lectures, and read a thousand volumes, and be at the end of the process very much where he was, as regards knowledge. Something more than merely *admitting* it in a negative way into the mind is necessary, if it is to remain there. It must not be passively received, but actually and actively entered into, embraced, and mastered. The mind must go half-way to meet what comes to it from without (Newman, 1853, p. 489).

Paul and Elder state "college today is a product of college yesterday" (2012, p. 156). In other words, college has not changed much in a hundred years. The primary way faculty get students to learn a body of knowledge is to present that knowledge to them via a series of lectures and then expect them to internalize that information outside of class. Through this method, students fail to make connections between abstract theoretical constructs and the applicability and utility of new knowledge.

As leadership educators, we often are the first in our institutions to implement innovative teaching strategies, such as service-learning and high-impact experiential leaning, which challenge students to think deeper about the applicability of new knowledge. But, even those strategies only implicitly contain critical thinking. Very few educators explicitly teach the construct of critical thinking (Stedman & Adams, 2012).

Priority III, The Psychological Development of Leaders, Followers, and Learners, of the National Leadership Education Research Agenda (NLERA) challenges researchers of leadership education to deeply explore the "how" of leadership learning as well as the application of

psychological development and its link to leadership development (Andenoro et al., 2013). Specifically, the NLERA proposes researchers should stive to understand the development of critical and creative thinking dispositions.

A recent roundtable at the 2016 Association of Leadership Educators (ALE) Conference ascertained how common purposeful teaching of critical thinking is among the participants and their institutions (Boyd & Strong, 2016). Seven questions guided the discussion:

Macro
- Is critical thinking a priority at your institution?
- How is critical thinking taught/implemented at your institution?
- How is critical thinking assessed at your institution?
- How can leadership educators lead initiatives to improve critical thinking?

Micro
- What training or professional development have you had on how to teach critical thinking?
- What teaching strategies have you used to engage students in critical thinking?
- How do you assess critical thinking in the classroom?

Participants of the roundtable indicated critical thinking is a required part of most colleges and university's learning outcomes and is even part of their Quality Enhancement Plan (QEP), but participants readily admitted that little is being done to purposefully teach critical thinking. In addition, many participants did not know how well CT was being taught because it was either not being assessed or critical thinking was too difficult to accurately assess (Boyd & Strong, 2016).

Objectives of the Workshop

At the conclusion of the workshop, participants will be able to
1. Identify and define the standards for critical thinking
2. Identify and define the elements of thought in critical thinking
3. Apply standards for critical thinking to at least one assignment, lecture, or activity
4. Apply elements of thought to at least one assignment, lecture, or activity

Review of Related Scholarship

Employers expect colleges and universities to prepare work-ready graduates. Key among the skills sought by employers is the ability to think critically (Burnett, 2003; McMurtrey, Downy, Zeltmann, & Friedman, 2008). More than three-fourths of employers want colleges to place more emphasis on key learning outcomes like critical thinking and complex problem-solving (AACU, 2015). This emphasis on critical thinking by employers is seen as a way to increase the competitiveness of the United States in a global market.

However, colleges and universities do not appear have a firm grasp on developing critical thinking skills in their undergraduate students. Casner-Lotto, Barrington, and Wright (2006) note

less than 28% of employers rated college graduates' critical thinking abilities as *excellent*. In their 2015 report, the American Association of Colleges and Universities (AACU) found only 26% of employers believe students to be prepared for the workforce in the area of critical thinking and analysis.

While many faculty claim to develop critical thinking skills in their students, Stedman and Adams (2012) found faculty in the food, agriculture, and natural resources fields have little knowledge on the intricacies of critical thinking. To add to the problem, Tsui (2007) noted many faculty lack instructional training to help students gain critical thinking skills. The gap between perception of ability and actual results is too great to ignore. Instructors who are well-trained in educational methodology can positively influence students' critical thinking disposition, even within the time limits of a college semester (Burbach, Matkin, Quinn & Searle, 2012; Ewing & Whittington, 2009). Therefore, educating leadership educators about the intricacies of critical thinking, so they can educate their students and possible other faculty, is imperative.

As a discipline, leadership has a vested interst in the concept of critical thinking. Whether it is trait theory, skill theory, situational theory, or post-charismatic theory, all incorporate elements of critical thinking (Bass & Bass, 2008). Many trait theorists, including Stogdill and Kirkpatrick and Locke include elements of critical thinking, i.e. insight and cognitive ability in their lists of leader traits (Northouse, 2016). Skill theories discuss the abilities to think conceptually and develop multiple versions of a vision to lead, which requires critical thinking skills. Again, Situational Leadership Theory does not overtly discuss critical thinking, but critical thinking skills must be enacted for a leader to diagnose her followers (Blanchard, Zigarami, & Zigarami, 2013). Specifically, Kelly's (2008) Model of Followership features critical thinking as a integral competency to defining followership types. Followers cannot be classified as "Star" followers without high critical thinking capabilities.

Lesson Plan Description

At the conclusion of the workshop, participants will be able to
1. Identify and define the standards for critical thinking
2. Identify and define the elements of thought in critical thinking
3. Apply standards for critical thinking to at least one assignment, lecture, or activity
4. Apply elements of thought to at least one assignment, lecture, or activity

Interest Approach

Mind-Map: Participants will divide into small groups and brainstorm what they believe are the elements of critical thinking. They will then create a Mind Map of the elements to demonstrate how they connect to critical thinking. Participants will then use their mind map to create a definition of critical thinking. Their definitions will be used to introduce the concepts and elements of critical thinking.

Lesson Procedure

1. Introduce the Standards of Critical Thinking – Appendix A (Paul & Elder, 2014)

      a. Concepts will be taught via power point and public pedagogy
      b. Discussion questions for the participant will include:
         i. (after video case)-identify each standard of critical thinking in the movie clip
         ii. Do you explicitly teach any of these standards?
         iii. How open would students be to this type of thinking?

2. Introduce the Elements of Thought - Appendix A (Paul & Elder, 2014)
      a. Concepts will be taught via power point and public pedagogy
      b. Discussion questions include:
         i. How are the elements of thought like Senge's work in learning organizations?
         ii. What are specific leadership theories that utilize the elements of thought?
         iii. What are some class topics you can integrate the elements into

3. Strategies for teaching Critical Thinking
      a. SEEI – State your point, Elaborate, give Examples, Illustrate using analogies or metaphors. The SEEI concept helps bring clarity to concepts that seem abstract to students. Participants will practice using the SEEI method by applying it to a difficult concept that they teach.

         ▪ Asking questions that require reason. The presenters will demonstrate the difference between questions of fact; questions of preference; questions of judgement/reason
            • Activity: Identifying types of questions
            Participants will brainstorm typical questions that are common to leadership or questions that they ask students in their classrooms. They will then categorize their questions as to questions of preference, fact, judgement or reason

      b. Teaching students critical reading strategies: Presenters will discuss how to use the standards of thinking and the elements of thought to be more critical readers.
            • Activity: Participants will read a short article and apply the elements of thought to their reading to gain deep understanding. A discussion of how they can specifically apply this to their classroom will ensue.

Outcomes/Results

A similar workshop was presented to the Critical Thinking Academy at [university] in 2016 and 2017. Faculty participants of those workshops have been able to correctly identify and define the standards of critical thinking and elements of thought with 100% accuracy. These faculty members have also integrated explicit critical thinking teaching strategies, and mentor other faculty members in the college in integrating critical thinking into teaching.

Workshop Implications

ALE participants will leave with a general understanding of what critical thinking is, as well as strategies that can be used in any classroom to improve students' critical thinking skills. Through the application of the concepts learned in the workshop, we expect participants to be able to increase their knowledge in the conceptual framework of critical thinking, thus increasing their implicit and explicit teaching of critical thinking in the classroom. Leaving the workshop with applied pedagogical practices will also help participants integrate critical thinking activities in their courses. This integration would create more students who have the knowledge, skills, and ability to increase their critical thinking skills. The growth of critical thinking ability would also prepare the students to fully engage in the complex problems they will face inside and outside the classroom as leaders and consumers of leadership.

References

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

Association of American Colleges & Universities. (2015). *It takes more than a major: Employer priorities for college learning and student success*. Washington, D.C.: Hart Research Associates.

Bass, B. M., & Bass, R. (2008). *The Bass handbook of leadership: Theory, research, and managerial applications* (4th ed.). New York, NY: Free Press.

Blanchard, K., Zigarami, P., & Zigarami, D. (2013). *Increasing Effectivness Through Stuational Leadership II*. New York, NY: William Morrow.

Boyd, B. L., & Strong, J. (2016, July). *Mining leadership for critical thinkers*. Roundtable presentation for the annual conference of the Association of Leadership Educators, Sacramento, CA.

Burbach, M.E., Matkin, G.S., Quinn, C.E., & Searle, T.P. (2012). The impact of preparing agriculture faculty to influence student critical thinking disposition. *Journal of Agricultural Education, 53*(2), 1-14. doi: 10.5032/jae.2012.02001.

Burnett, S. (2003). The future of accounting education: A regional perspective. *Journal of Education for Business, 78,* 129-134.

Casner-Lotto, J., Barrington, L. & Wright, M. (2006). *Are they really ready to work? Employers' perspectives on the basic knowledge and applied skills of new entrants to the 21st century U.S. workforce*. New York, NY: The Conference Board. Retrieved from http://www.conference-board.org/Publications/describe.cfm:id=1218.

Ewing, J. C. & Whittington, M.S. (2009). Describing the cognitive level of professor discourse and student cognition in college of agriculture class sessions. *Journal of Agricultural Education, 50*(4), 36-49. doi: 10.5032/jae.2009.04036

Kelly, R. E. (2008). Rethinking followership. In R. E. Riggio, I. Chaleff, & J. Lipman-Blumen (Eds.), *The art of followership: How great followers create great leaders and organizations* (pp.5-15). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

McMurtrey, M.E., Downey, J.P., Zeltmann, S.M., & Friedman, W.H. (2008). Critical skills sets of entry level IT professionals: an empirical examination of perceptions from field personnel. *Journal of Information Technology Education, 7*, 101-120.

Newman, J. H. (1853). *The Idea of a University.* National Institute for Newman Studies.

Northouse, P. G. (2016). *Leadership: Theory and practice* (7th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Paul, R., & Elder, L. (2014). *How to improve student learning: 30 practical ideas based on critical thinking concepts and principles.* Tomales, CA: Foundation for Critical Thinking.

Paul, R., & Elder, L. (2012). *Critical thinking: Tools for taking charge of your learning and your life.* 3rd Ed. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Paul, R. & Elder, L. (2010). *Foundation for Critical Thinking*, Retrieved February 27, 2017 from: www.criticalthinking.org

Paul, R., Elder, L., & Bartell, T. (1997). *Study of 38 public universities and 28 private universities to determine faculty emphasis on critical thinking instruction.* Foundation for Critical Thinking. Retrieved March 30, 2016 from: http://www.criticalthinking.org.

Stedman, N.L. P., & Adams, B.L. (2012). Identifying faculty's knowledge of critical thinking concepts and perceptions of critical thinking instruction in higher education. *NACTA Journal, 56*(2), 9-14.

Strong, R. L., & Williams, J. (2014). Understanding students as followers: Discovering the influence of followership on self-directed learning. *Journal of Agricultural Education, 55*(2), 201-213. doi: 10.5032/jae.2014.02201

Appendix A
Critical Thinking Handouts

Universal Intellectual Standards

Universal intellectual standards are standards which must be applied to thinking whenever one is interested in checking the quality of reasoning about a problem, issue, or situation. To think critically entails having command of these standards. While there are many universal standards, the following are some of the most essential:

CLARITY: *Could you elaborate further on that point? Could you express that point in another way? Could you give me an illustration? Could you give me an example?* Clarity is the gateway standard. If a statement is unclear, we cannot determine whether it is accurate or relevant.

ACCURACY: *Is that really true? How could we check that? How could we find out if that is true?* A statement can be clear but not accurate, as in "Most dogs are over 300 pounds in weight."

PRECISION: *Could you give more details? Could you be more specific?*
A statement can be both clear and accurate, but not precise, as in "Jack is overweight." (We don't know how overweight Jack is, one pound or 500 pounds.)

RELEVANCE: *How is that connected to the question? How does that bear on the issue?*
A statement can be clear, accurate, and precise, but not relevant to the question at issue.

DEPTH: *How does your answer address the complexities in the question? How are you taking into account the problems in the question? Is that dealing with the most significant factors?* A statement can be clear, accurate, precise, and relevant, but superficial (that is, lack depth). For example, the statement, "Just say No!" which is often used to discourage children and teens from using drugs, is clear, accurate, precise, and relevant. Nevertheless, it lacks depth because it fails to deal with the complexities of the issue.

BREADTH: *Do we need to consider another point of view? Is there another way to look at this question? What would this look like from a conservative standpoint? What would this look like from the point of view of . . .?* A line of reasoning may be clear accurate, precise, relevant, and deep, but lack breadth (as in an argument from either the conservative or liberal standpoint which gets deeply into an issue, but only recognizes the insights of one side of the question.)

LOGIC: *Does this really make sense? Does that follow from what you said? How does that follow? But before you implied this, and now you are saying that; how can both be true?* When we think, we bring a variety of thoughts together into some order. When the combination of thoughts are mutually supporting and make sense in combination, the thinking is "logical."

FAIRNESS: *Do I have a vested interest in this issue? Am I sympathetically representing the*

viewpoints of others? Human think is often biased in the direction of the thinker - in what are the perceived interests of the thinker.

Paul, R. & Elder, L. (2010). Foundation for Critical Thinking, Retrieved February 27, 2017 from: www.criticalthinking.org

Elements of Thought

What follows are some guidelines helpful to students as they work toward developing their reasoning abilities:

1. All reasoning has a **PURPOSE:**
   o Take time to state your purpose clearly
   o Distinguish your purpose from related purposes
   o Check periodically to be sure you are still on target
   o Choose significant and realistic purposes
2. All reasoning is an attempt to **FIGURE SOMETHING OUT, TO SETTLE SOME QUESTION, TO SOLVE SOME PROBLEM:**
   o Take time to clearly and precisely state the question at issue
   o Express the question in several ways to clarify its meaning and scope
   o Break the question into sub questions
   o Identify if the question has one right answer, is a matter of opinion, or requires reasoning from more than one point of view
3. All reasoning is based on **ASSUMPTIONS:**
   o Clearly identify your assumptions and determine whether they are justifiable
   o Consider how your assumptions are shaping your point of view
4. All reasoning is done from some **POINT OF VIEW:**
   o Identify your point of view
   o Seek other points of view and identify their strengths as well as weaknesses
   o Strive to be fair-minded in evaluating all points of view
5. All reasoning is based on **DATA, INFORMATION and EVIDENCE:**
   o Restrict your claims to those supported by the data you have
   o Search for information that opposes your position as well as information that supports it
   o Make sure that all information used is clear, accurate, and relevant to the question at issue
   o Make sure you have gathered sufficient information
6. All reasoning is expressed through, and shaped by, **CONCEPTS** and **IDEAS:**
   o Identify key concepts and explain them clearly
   o Consider alternative concepts or alternative definitions to concepts
   o Make sure you are using concepts with care and precision
7. All reasoning contains **INFERENCES** or **INTERPRETATIONS** by which we draw **CONCLUSIONS** and give meaning to data:
   o Infer only what the evidence implies
   o Check inferences for their consistency with each other
   o Identify assumptions which lead you to your inferences
8. All reasoning leads somewhere or has **IMPLICATIONS** and **CONSEQUENCES:**
   o Trace the implications and consequences that follow from your reasoning
   o Search for negative as well as positive implications
   o Consider all possible consequences

Paul, R. and Elder, L. (2010). Foundation for Critical Thinking, Retrieved February 27, 2017 from: www.criticalthinking.org)

DRAG IT: A Guide to Critical Reflection for Enhancing College Student Learning and Leadership Development

Cheyenne Luzynski
West Virginia University

Cory R. Hamilton
Eastern Michigan University

Abstract

High Impact Practices (HIPs) have been shown to enhance student engagement, student learning, and leadership development at institutions of higher education. The outcomes of these practices however are highly reliant on students' opportunity and ability to engage in effective critical reflection. This workshop will present the DRAG-IT Critical Reflection Guide, an innovative tool to aid faculty, staff, and student leaders in effectively leading college students in different forms of critical reflection and discourse. Presenters will share the inspiration for and design of the tool, including the generous support of a 2016 - 17 ALE Mini-Grant and feedback from two pilot universities. Participants will then engage in critical reflection activities, discussions, and practice meaningful ways to integrate the ideas shared. Finally, participants will create a plan to implement the DRAG-IT Critical Reflections Guide upon return to their own setting.

Introduction

High Impact Practices (HIPs) have been shown to enhance student engagement and student outcomes at institutions of higher education (Kuh, 2008; Pascarella and Terenzini, 2005). These practices also aid in developing leadership capacity and efficacy when paired with intentional practices in critical reflection (Dugan, Kodama, Correeia & associates, 2013). Leadership educators, including faculty, student affairs staff, and student leaders, assist in student learning and development by leading students through this process. Debriefs, effective evaluations, and post experience discussions, however, can be difficult. When, where, and how should a facilitator, faculty, or student leader effectively process an experience or curriculum component? The impact of leadership education and high impact experience hinges on effective critical reflection.

The DRAG-IT Critical Reflection Guide is a user friendly guide for faculty, staff, and student leaders to facilitate college students in the effective connection of personal experience to academic coursework and other learning opportunities. DRAG-IT is an acronym that stands for Do, Reflect, Analyze, Generalize, Identify, and Take it Home (See Appendix A). The guide is based on conventional and experiential pedagogy and provides a framework for designing and facilitating individual and group conversations, class curriculum and assessments, and student affairs programs. Through various forms of critical reflection and discourse, leadership educators can successfully support students in enhancing their leadership capacity and efficacy.

The presenters have been using and refining the techniques in the guide for almost ten years in their many roles working with college students; as instructors in undergraduate leadership

courses, coach and athletic director, academic advisor, undergraduate research supervisor, career coach, adventure programs and ropes course facilitator, and mentors to a variety of student organizations. With the support of a 2016 - 17 ALE Mini-Grant the presenters compiled the techniques into a draft guide and began a multi-institutional pilot study to train both student and professional leadership educators to incorporate effective critical reflection into their practice and to elicit critical feedback for improving the techniques and delivery of the resources contained in the guide.

The purpose of this workshop is to share the inspiration for, and design of, the DRAG-IT Critical Reflection Guide. The presenters will report the initial feedback from the pilot study, and engage participants in critical reflection activities, discussions and practical design. Participants will gain insight into the importance of critical reflection in student learning and leadership development, while learning practical strategies and techniques for enriching their own practice in guiding critical reflection.

Learning Outcomes

1. Participants will practice multiple techniques from the DRAG-IT Critical Reflection Guide.
2. Participants will discuss the concept of critical reflection and the impact it has on student learning and leadership development, both in and out of the classroom.
3. Participants will identify, design, and discuss practical uses for the DRAG-IT approach in their own context.

Literature Review

Pascarella and Terenzini (2005) suggest actively engaged students in both academic and beyond the classroom activities benefit more than students not involved. Kuh (2008) identified ten High-Impact Practices (HIPs) that increase rates of student engagement, retention and deeper learning. HIPs include first-year seminars and experiences, common intellectual experiences, learning communities, writing-intensive courses, collaborative assignments and projects, undergraduate research, diversity/global learning, service or community-based learning, internships, and capstone courses and projects. The Multi-Institutional Study on Leadership also found that participation in High Impact Practices led to leadership development gains in both leadership capacity and leadership efficacy, particularly when paired with the opportunity for critical reflection (Dugan, Kodama, Correeia & associates, 2013). HIPs extend connection to peers, faculty, staff, mentors, community and conceptual knowledge yielding learning on multiple levels (Landy, 2015).

Two critical factors influence student engagement, students' devotion to educationally purposeful activities and the institutions role in facilitating learning and development (Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005). Student learning and development, therefore, relies on the symbiosis of the student's experience and the educator's role in making sense of that experience--emphasizing the value in critical reflection (Brookfield, 2010).

The DRAG-IT Critical Reflection Guide is a tool for leading critical reflection in formal and informal educational settings. The guide provides design and implementation techniques for

individual reflection, group discussions, academic curriculum (i.e. assignments, projects, rubrics, etc.) and student affairs programming (program design, facilitator techniques, and assessment tools). The DRAG-IT framework is an acronym for Do, Reflect, Analyze, Generalize, Identify, and Take Away that incorporates multiple theoretical models from experiential learning (Dewey, 1933; Kolb, 1984; Freire, 1970), the social change model and relational leadership (Komives, Lucas & McMahon, 2013), and key frameworks for critical reflection and discourse (Brookfield, 2010; Mezirow, 2003).

The DRAG-IT Critical Reflection Guide represents an innovative pedagogical approach with the "intentional development of interdisciplinary connections," (Andenero et al., 2013, p. 5) to engage students in critical reflection while engaged both in and out of the classroom. The guide is designed to combine teaching, leadership development, and student learning approaches and integrates diverse forms of individual and group reflection; enhancing our understanding of effective mechanisms for critical reflection with students. The guide is a response to a call for creative approaches and research from the National Leadership Educators Research Agenda, specifically *Priority #1*: *Teaching, Learning and Curriculum Development* and *Priority 3: Psychological Development of the Leader, Learner and Follower* (Andenero et al., 2013).

Lesson Plan Description

Title: DRAG IT: A guide for leading effective critical reflection with college students to enhance student learning and leadership development in and out of the classroom

Time: 90 Minutes

Objectives:
1. Describe the importance of critical reflection in student learning, leadership, and engagement
2. Explain the DRAG-IT Critical Reflection Guide, purpose, creation, and feedback from the pilot program
3. Demonstrate DRAG-IT techniques through group activities
4. Design and discuss methods for participants to use DRAG-IT model

Workshop Timeline:
I. Personal Introductions (5 min)
    a. Introduce presenters, backgrounds, and current roles
    b. Share objectives of the workshop
II. Introduce critical reflection and its relationship to student learning, student engagement, and leadership development (5 min)
    a. Video with Student Leaders from pilot program
III. Activity ONE (20 min)
    a. Group Expectations and Commitments Activity
    b. Group discussion using the DRAG-IT reflection model
IV. Hand out and explain the DRAG-IT Critical Reflection Guide (10 min)
    a. Inspiration
    b. Creation

c. Purpose
d. Implementation
e. Results and feedback from pilot
f. Discussion about the Guide

V. Activity TWO (15 min)
a. Student Scenarios Activity
b. Group discussion led by participants using DRAG-IT reflection model

VI. Small group brain-storm, design, sharing, and discussion (20 min)
a. Participants will brainstorm ways they will implement the practices in their context and design one specific activity, assignment, rubric, program, or other use of the DRAG-IT model
b. Small Groups will share designs and give feedback

VII. Large group sharing and closing remarks (5 min)
a. 1-2 participants will share their implementation design with the large group and share the feedback they received
b. Presenters will summarize the implications of the workshop and invite volunteers for future study on critical reflection

VIII. Questions & feedback (10 min)

Discussion of Outcomes/Results

The DRAG-IT Critical Reflection Guide continues moving through a life cycle of ideation. What once was an idea between two colleagues has embarked in a pilot study of implementation, product feedback, improvement, and will eventually become a practical tool for student learning and leadership development. The multi-institutional pilot study has introduced, trained, and assessed the facilitation of the DRAG-IT tool in both a peer to peer leadership model and faculty and staff led instruction.

At the time of this proposal, the researchers have conducted four formal DRAG-IT workshops uniquely constructed for student leader and faculty/staff use. Both authors have participated in a series of DRAG-IT observations and collected facilitator feedback on the use of the tool. In total, nine students and nine faculty and staff have participated in the pilot study. Twelve of the participants (9 students, 3 staff) were trained to support students in service learning initiatives at one of the institutions. As service learning teaching assistants, student leaders had the opportunity to engage with their peers about the service learning experience through DRAG-IT's guided reflection principles. This peer to peer learning model is not unique however, the educational role they provide has shown immense value. The service learning TA's trained in the DRAG-IT method have thus far guided students in problem solving, encouraged self-regulation for academic success, and helped bridge classroom content to their applied service learning experiences. These outcomes were achieved not by the TA's sharing their own experiences and insights, but instead by asking critical questions to guide students toward their own solutions. As students confidence and comfort with the facilitation of the DRAG-IT method improved, the connection between classroom content and their service learning appeared greater. Previously without the DRAG-IT training, service learning TA's would ask students about their service learning experience and settle for a benign response. Now they are trained in a way that helps transcend learning from the superficial to deeper meaning.

Four student leaders are working specifically with leadership courses and attend the class for which is paired with the service learning component. This allows them to be a conduit for the intentionally coupled formal classroom environment to the co-curricular experience (Wawrzynski & Baldwin, 2014). Students have demonstrated their use of critical reflection in various ways including one on one discussions, small group meetings, paper feedback, and in-class reflections. The remaining five students are using the DRAG-IT tool in Communications, Journalism, and Sociology courses. Here, leadership is not an explicit focus, but has become a by-product as students reflect on the service in terms of power, inequality, and culture. They are encouraged to see their experience through lenses for which change is possible. Some of the TA's greatest impacts have been realized when they approached their instructors about using the method. To their surprise, the faculty accepted the DRAG-IT framework and have integrated assessments that supports the deeper learning through critical reflection into the classroom curriculum. Thus demonstrating a truly student-centered learning environment. Examples of the training materials and guided critical reflection questions can be referenced in the Appendix (See Appendix A and B).

Faculty and staff implementation of the DRAG-IT Critical Reflection Guide has been the focus at the second institution. Training targeted application of the tool in guiding classroom discourse, assignment and rubric design, and program evaluation. Participants provided feedback on the use and will continue to inform the development of this practical tool. The researchers will welcome critiques and feedback from leadership educators attending the 2017 ALE conference. With this session in innovative practices, the researchers anticipate added value from multiple perspectives and positions of how this tool could best serve the needs of educators in becoming an effective pedagogical tool. Therefore, a primary outcome for this presentation is to collect ideas from ALE attendees, while understanding how they envision the DRAG-IT Critical Reflection Guide to advance student learning and leadership development. See (Appendix C) for a draft Table of Contents in the proposed DRAG-IT Critical Reflection Guide.

Workshop Implications

High Impact Practices have been demonstrated to improve student engagement and learning outcomes and prepare students to be socially responsible leaders (Kuh, 2008; Kuh & O'Donnell, 2013; Dugan, Kodama, Correeia & associates, 2013). The Multi-Institutional Study on Leadership, however, also reported that participation in high-impact practices was seemingly not enough to elicit leadership development on its own. Instead it was found that effective pedagogy, or how educational content was delivered, proved to be a better predictor of increased student leadership capacity and efficacy.

Reflection and discourse are two pedagogical approaches found to be effective in producing deep, transformative learning (Brookfield, 2010; Mezirow, 2003). Being challenged to investigate experiences, values, and deeply held beliefs in individual reflection and group discussions often enhances a student's understanding of complex issues. These approaches to learning are not always easy to facilitate, especially for faculty, staff, and student leaders who have not studied and practiced these techniques through education or professional development. Wawrzynski & Baldwin (2014) point out that in order to fully promote student leadership

development and learning, we must discover ways to intentionally link the formal (classroom) and informal (co-curricular) learning processes that happen on college campuses every day.

This workshop will share a practical tool for designing and facilitating quality critical reflection opportunities with college students to improve student outcomes and student leadership development. Participants will leave the presentation with background knowledge about how the tool was designed and details surrounding the initial results from the multi-institutional pilot program. Participants will also gain practical tools and skills, developed and practiced in small group during the workshop, for leading critical reflection and discourse in their own settings upon their return from the conference.

References

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

Brookfield, S. (2010). Critical reflection as an adult learning process. In N. Lyons (Ed.), Handbook of reflection and reflective inquiry (pp. 215–236). New York, NY: Springer.

Dewey, J. (1933). How we think: A restatement of the relation of reflective thinking to the educative process. Lexington, MA: Heath.

Dugan, J. P., Kodama, C., Correia, B., & Associates. (2013). *Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership insight report: Leadership program delivery*. College Park, MD: National Clearinghouse for Leadership Programs.

Freire, P. (1970). Pedagogy of the oppressed. New York, NY: Continuum.

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

Komives, S. R., Lucas, N., & McMahon, T. R. (2013). *Exploring leadership: For college students who want to make a difference* (3rd ed.). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Kuh, G. D. (2008). *High-impact educational practices: What they are, who has access to them, and why they matter*. Washington, DC: Association of American Colleges & Universities.

Kuh, G. D., & O'Donnell, K. (2013). *Ensuring Quality & Taking High-Impact Practices to Scale.* Washington, DC: Association of American Colleges & Universities.

Kuh, G. D., Kinzie, J., Schuh, J.H., Whitt, E.J., & Associates. (2005/2010). *Student success in college: Creating conditions that matter*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Landy, K. (2015). Structure, Connectivity, and Authenticity: The How and Why of High-Impact Practices. *About Campus 19(6),* p. 29-32.

Mezirow, J. (2003). Transformative learning as discourse. *Journal of Transformative Education*, 1(1), 58–63.

Pascarella, E. T., & Terenzini, P. T. (2005). *How college affects students: A third decade of research.* San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Wawrzynski, M., & Baldwin, R. (2014), Promoting High-Impact Student Learning: Connecting Key Components of the Collegiate Experience. *New Directions for Higher Education*, *165*, p. 51-62.

Appendices

Appendix A: DRAG-IT HANDOUT
Appendix B: Critical Reflection Guiding Questions
Appendix C: Table of Contents for DRAG-IT Guidebook

Appendix A:
DRAG-IT: A Model for Critical Reflection in High Impact Educational Settings

DRAG-IT is an acronym that helps guide student learning through reflective conversations and activities. Critical reflection is a tool to facilitate learning and foster leadership for social change. The DRAG-IT method is iterative. Many times it is great to ask multiple questions in each piece of the thread or to walk through the thread many times: asking a reflection question that leads into an analyze question, which prompts a generalize question and then back to another reflection.

D – Do (This represents the subject of the conversation: a personal/group experience, planned activity, conflict, success, or any other student **experience**).

R – Reflect (These questions should aim to bring out the details and information of **what** happened during the experience or what was important to the person about the experience).

EX: What happened when…? What was the most surprising aspect of…? What do you remember most about…? What did you do? What were the positive and negative aspects of…?

A – Analyze (These questions get to the **how & why** of the experience. Digging deeper into the cause and effect of the trip/activity/service/reading etc.)

EX: Why were you successful? Why was the task/activity/experience easy or difficult? How did it feel to…? How did you find resources that were helpful? Who was involved that helped or hindered in this experience? How did you react to the

G – Generalize (These questions ask the "**now what**" and are a critical piece of the student's development. Great questions can help people learn to build on their experiences and take control when faced with future issues. It is also the hardest to become skilled with as this is where we tend to inject our opinion and tell them what they ought to do next.)

EX: Have you ever experienced something like this before and how did you react then? What is the most important thing you learned from this experience? How can you use what you've learned for your future? If something like this happened again (good or bad), how would you deal with it differently? If someone else were about to experience what you are experiencing (good or bad) what would you want to share with them?

I – Identify (These questions should aim to help the student identify **their role** in the process, clarifying their current situation and their personal perspective).

EX: What questions does this raise for you to explore in the future? What are the next steps in answering these questions? How did you experience this differently than others may have? Where does your bias play a part in this? How can you turn this experience into a positive move forward?

T- Take Away (Providing a gift, physical object, challenge, or homework assignment as a connection for students to stay engaged in the learning. Processing of their experience provides the opportunity to practice reflection and leadership behaviors on their own.)

EX: Writing a key word that reminds them of their conversation on a small stone/key chain, stress ball/etc. Giving a homework assignment like finding information or examples

Ten Phases of Perspective Transformation

1. Experiencing an event in society that disorients one's sense of self within a familiar role.
2. Engaging in reflection and self-reflection.
3. Critically assessing personal assumptions and feelings.
4. Relating discontent to similar experiences of others; recognizing shared problems.
5. Identifying new ways of acting.
6. Building personal confidence and competence.
7. Planning a new course of action.
8. Acquiring knowledge and skills necessary to implement this new course of action.
9. Trying out the planned action and assessing the results.
10. Reintegrating into society with new roles behaviors, new assumptions, and perspectives.

*"The key element to [**reflective conversations**] is encouraging students to make sense of their experience rather than the educator making sense of it for them," (Baxter Magolda & King, 2008).*

*"**Critical reflection** is the bridge that allows learners to connect their community service experience to leadership-related themes such as developing critical group-related skills, deepening personal commitments to shared public problems, building resilience for working in complex systems to create change, and disrupting assumptions about social systems and how they operate," (Owens, 2016, p. 41).*

Sources:
Baxter Magolda, M. B., & King, P. M. (2008). Toward reflective conversations: An advising approach that promotes self-authorship. *American Association of Colleges and Universities, 10*(1).
Cranton, P. (2002). Teaching for transformation. In J. M. Ross-Gordon (Ed.), *New Directions for Adult and Continuing Education: No.93. Special issue: Contemporary viewpoints on teaching adults effectively* (pp. 63-72). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
Owen, J. (2016). Fostering critical reflection: Moving from a service to a social justice paradigm. *New Directions for Student Leadership, 150*(Summer 2016), p. 37-48.

Appendix B:
Critical Reflection Guiding Questions

Service Learning TA:_____ Service Learning Group:_____

D- Do: List facts learned, places visited, tasks completed
What has happened thus far? (May pertain to the service learning project or their group interaction)
What did you see, hear, smell, touch, say?

R- Reflect: May acknowledge different perspectives without valuing or discriminating among them.
What is the moment that stands out for you?
What surprised you? Frustrated you? Confused you? Disappointed you? Angered you?
How did this affect you? Or your group?

A- Analyze: May make some connection to the issue or discipline, but the connection may not be deep or insightful. Demonstrate ability to interpret evidence and draw reasonable conclusions.
What are you learning from this? (May pertain to the service learning project or their group interaction)
What do you understand differently now?
What are the strengths and limitations of this service experience?
How does it relate to larger contexts, theories, ideas you have learned in class?

G- Generalize: Make connections with their experience to other aspects of their lives. Deepen connection of the issue or service to the broader system in which it is situated.

What social issues are connected to the problem addressed by the service experienced?
Where have you seen or experienced similar issues in your life?
What influence does power have on this interaction?
What influence does culture have on this interaction?
What current system maintains the problem and how can it be addressed?

I- Identify: Recognize that participant's view situations from several perspectives and experiences. They may start to place their understanding in broader and complex contexts and examine their own responsibility and connection to the issues.
How does your understanding of service impact this interaction?
How have my own assumptions been challenged through this experience?
How will you use this experience moving forward?
Are there additional skills or knowledge necessary for this work?

T- Take Away: Recognize that decisions and actions are situationally dependent. Give students a task or goal for next meeting. It can be anything from paying attention to leadership theories or investigating how power or culture influence the service. Consider which voices are missing from the conversation or attempt to take on new perspectives throughout the service experiences.

Appendix C:

DRAG-IT Critical Reflection Guide
Table of Contents

Foreword - Tales of a Fourth Grade Leader

Introduction

Chapter 1: Critical Reflection in Student Learning, Leadership, and Engagement

Chapter 2: The DRAG-IT Model Explained

Implementing DRAG-IT

Chapter 3: Leading Conversations - Critical Reflection and Group Discourse

Chapter 4: Designing Course Curriculum & Content

Chapter 5: Student Affairs Program Design & Evaluation

Chapter 6: Peer Mentor Use of the DRAG-IT Model

Chapter 7: Assessing the DRAG-IT Model

Additional Resources

Appendix A - Workshop Outline for DRAG-IT Training

Appendix B - EXAMPLES for the Classroom - Syllabus, Questions, Assignment Guidelines, and Rubrics

Appendix C - EXAMPLES for Student Affairs - Program Guidelines, Design Worksheets, and Evaluations

The Future of Civic Leadership: Exploring the Intersections of Service-Learning and Community Engagement and Leadership Education

Kerry L. Priest
Kansas State University

Lori E. Kniffin
University of North Carolina Greensboro

Patti H. Clayton
IUPUI, UNCG, & Kansas State University

Abstract

It has been over 20 years since the Social Change Model (HERI, 1996) was introduced as a values-based framework for developing socially responsible leaders through a commitment to service. At the same time, Edward Zlotkowski (1995) wrote, "Does Service-Learning Have a Future?" - challenging the service-learning/community engagement (SLCE) community to stay relevant as a pedagogy and field. Since then, both social justice oriented leadership education and the practices of service-learning and community engagement have become more pervasive in higher education. There are overlaps between SLCE and leadership education for social change (which we refer to as civic leadership), but these connections should be explored and made more explicit. This workshop will explore the future directions of civic leadership.

Introduction

The Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership (MSL) identifies engagement in community service as a high-impact practice in student leadership development (Dugan, Kodama, & Associates, 2013). Service-learning and community engagement (SLCE) is a popular pedagogy among leadership educators – in recent years we have seen numerous examples shared at the ALE Annual Conference and in the *Journal of Leadership Education* (e.g., Buschlen, Warner, & Goffnet, 2014; Priest, Bauer, & Fine, 2015; Seemiller, 2006). Indeed, leadership educators have helped champion the service-learning movement on many of our campuses.

The SLCE Future Directions Project (http://slce-fdp.org/) is a learning community intended to stimulate and assemble ideas from multiple voices throughout and beyond the SLCE community, and enrich dialogue about the future and inform current and future practice and policy. Through thought pieces published in the *Michigan Journal of Service Learning*, online posts and discussions, and regional workshops/presentations, the Future Directions Project is designed to catalyze, facilitate, organize, and analyze international conversations in a way that positions everyone involved as a co-educator, co-learner, and co-generator of new questions and new knowledge.

This session invites leadership educators to join the conversation and consider how the future of service-learning and community engagement intersects with the teaching, practice, and study of leadership. After this session participants will be able to:

- Understand the historical context of the SLCE movement
- Recognize various ways that practitioner-scholars use SLCE for leadership education in and outside of the classroom
- Appreciate the way SLCE can be used as a leadership practice for both students, staff, faculty, administrators, and community members
- Identify ways to contribute to the future of the SLCE movement through the SLCE Future Directions Project
- Create new partnerships to develop scholarship and practice that integrates SLCE into leadership education
- Express the importance of civic leadership in cultivating leadership education for a complex world

Review of Related Scholarship

While a full theoretical examination of the intersections of theory and practice of leadership and service-learning go beyond the scope of this proposal, (see also Wagner & Pigza's 2016 *New Directions for Student Leadership* article/issue dedicated to this topic), we will offer a brief rationale for bridging leadership education and the SLCE community.

The pursuit of civic purposes of higher education (i.e., engaged citizenship, civic engagement, personal and social responsibility) has been linked to outcomes of leadership learning (Priest & Clegorne, 2015; Wagner & Mathison, 2015). Many of today's leadership programs report an emphasis on socially responsible leadership (Owen, 2012). The Social Change Model of Leadership (HERI, 1996; Komives, Wagner & Associates, 2016) frames socially responsible leaders as individuals who are motivated to exercise leadership for the common good. Public engagement, academic service-learning, and community-engaged scholarship are examples educational practices that promote learning linked to citizenship, civic-mindedness, and increased leadership capacity, efficacy, and motivation (Dugan, Kodama, & Correia, 2013; Eyler & Giles, 1999; Jacoby, 1996; Longo, 2013; Steinberg, Hatcher, & Bringle, 2011). Yet, Jenkins (2012) reported that out of a sample of 303 leadership educators, only 11.2% ($n = 34$) identified service-learning as one of their "top three" most used instructional strategies (p. 13).

Civic engagement - through forms of service learning and community engagement – can be described as collaborative processes between institutions of higher education and organizations/communities (local, regional/state, national, and global) for the mutually beneficial exchange of knowledge and resources in a context of partnership and reciprocity (Saltmarsh & Driscoll, 2014). Wagner and Mathison (2015) suggest that civic engagement provides both the *why* and *how* for leadership development, meaning that through service, students engage in experiences where they can collaborate with others to make progress on real issues facing groups and communities.

Morton (1995) explores the idea that service experiences lie on a continuum made up of three distinct paradigms: charity, project, and social change. All three paradigms can be enacted deeply through increased understanding of root causes and investment in relationships.

Mitchell's (2008) distinction between traditional and critical service learning challenges educators to consider how outcomes serve individual change and student development (traditional) or emphasize outcomes of social change and social justice (critical). Owen (2016) outlines approaches to critical reflection of community engagement that move learners from a service to a social justice paradigm. Dugan's recent (2017) exploration of critical perspectives of leadership illustrate a turn towards justice based leadership models. Developing capacities for social justice leadership require critical perspectives and pedagogies. The strength of SLCE is its long tradition of critical reflection that can help students become more aware of injustice; enacting SLCE through a leadership lens, these practices become mobilizing actions for creating change.

Seemingly parallel to the development of leadership education, the SLCE movement has been responding to Edward Zlotkowski's (1995) important warming and challenge, a piece titled "Does Service-Learning Have a Future?" This writing noted that although SLCE was occurring in small pockets of the academy, it would need to become institutionalized to survive. Zlotkowski urged the SLCE movement to adapt, professionalize, and commit to social ideals in order to stay relevant as a pedagogy and field. In those two decades, many heeded the call, working thoughtfully and collaboratively across campuses and communities to create programs, partnerships, courses, and projects that foregrounded the academic dimensions of the pedagogy. In the last 20 years, SLCE practices have become more widespread in the academic community including the establishment of many centers and institutes. Indeed, many of these programs can be found aligned with leadership education aims.

The timing of leadership education and SLCE have been similar, and is not random. Both movements aim to address social justice issues and stemmed from activism work in the 1960s with more formalization in the 1980s in response to higher education trends. In the last 3-5 years our nation has seen an upsurge in activist activity including many student protests. The trends of our social and political environment are creating an urgency for leadership education and SLCE education to provide students with democratic skills to engage in this complex world. In 2017, leadership educators and SLCE scholar-practitioners stand poised to reimagine the future of leadership education for social change and social justice.

Lesson Plan Description

1. **Welcome and Overview of Historical Context of SLCE and Leadership Education (5 minutes)**

2. **Introductions/What is your "Why": Reflecting on Pathways into SLCE (30 minutes)**

   a. We will seek to understand the diversity of SLCE rationales held by participants. Participants explore and discuss pathways into SLCE, from the lens as leadership educators (practitioner scholars), students, and institutions/organizations (Kniffin & Clayton, 2017).
      i. Question: Considering the social, political, and economic contexts that have shaped higher education over the last 20 years, what has brought you to your current reality with leadership education?

      ii. Activity: Use of virtual "continuums" to represent positionality/movement within the space of the room.

  b. Debrief & Transition:

      i. Based on where you/we have been and where we are now, what do you think about the future of SLCE in leadership education?

      ii. What is required, what must we learn or give attention to?

3. Overview of Future Directions Project (5 minutes) - *(See Appendix A)*

4. Small Group Work (30 minutes)

  a. Participants will work in small groups to review a series of "thought pieces" (excerpts) from the *Future Directions Project* with implications towards social justice aims.

      i. Example Thought Pieces: *(See Appendix B for sample)*

         1. *The Future of Service-Learning and Community Engagement: Asset-Based Approaches and Student Learning in the First Year*

         2. *Democratic Relationships in Service-Learning: Moving Beyond Traditional Faculty, Student, and Community Partner Roles*

         3. *Learning From and With Community Organizations to Navigate the Tensions of Democratic Engagement*

         4. *Beyond Superheroes and Sidekicks: Empowerment, Efficacy, and Education in Community Partnerships*

         5. *How Service-Learning and Intergroup Dialogue Can Answer Student and Community Calls to Action*

  b. Within each small group, participants will reflect/respond to the following questions:

(See full worksheet, Appendix C)

      i. What are the key tensions or opportunities highlighted by this thought piece?

      ii. What are the implications of these tensions/opportunities for what we teach (content), how we teach (pedagogy) and who we are (our identities within classrooms, programs, communities, institutions)?

5. Large Group Sharing and Bridge Building (20 minutes)

  a. Participants will offer insights from small group discussion back to the whole group. We will conduct a closing debrief around the following questions:

      i. What do you want to think more about in terms of the future of SLCE in leadership education? What questions or concerns do you have about the future of our work?

      ii. What ideas has our time together today generated for how you and your colleagues can contribute to the intentional growth of SLCE in leadership education?

      iii. In what ways might we build bridges between the *Future Directions Project* and ALE?

Discussion of Outcomes/Results

This workshop addresses the National Leadership Education Research Agenda priorities of *Teaching & Learning* as well *as Social Change and Community Development* (Andenoro et. al., 2013). The authors have conducted similar workshops within Applied Learning and SCLE communities. In these cases, rich discussion generated new insights for individuals, as well as created connections for collaboration on new practices, research, and scholarship. Three special sections in the *Michigan Journal of Community Service-Learning* have featured essays and thought pieces from a variety contributors including community members, faculty, students, staff, and administrators. The contributors also come from a range of disciplines including leadership. Two pieces specifically focus on how leadership programs have already helped shape the SLCE movement and call for attention to asset-based service-learning and more engaged approaches to graduate education. Several thought pieces will be shared with participants as data of how other practitioner-scholars envision the future of SLCE.

Leadership educators may also find themselves serving in formal or informal roles as SLCE advocates and resources at their institutions or organizations. Participants will leave with resources and discussion questions that can serve as tools for advancing critical approaches to SLCE in their own contexts.

Workshop Implications

Participants who have not used SLCE practices in their leadership education practices will gain new understanding of how SLCE can lead toward social justice aims. They will learn about ways that other practitioner-scholars are using SLCE to both teach and practice civic leadership. Participants who have been using SLCE practices in their leadership education will have an opportunity to reflect on their practices and purposes. Furthermore, everyone will be exposed to an international movement-building project, the SLCE Future Directions Project, and will contribute ideas about how leadership education can help advance the SLCE movement. Participants will be invited to contribute traditional and alternative scholarly products to the SLCE Future Directions Project. Participants will have the opportunity to make connections with other civic leadership practitioner-scholars to collaborate on practices or contribute scholarship to the SLCE Future Directions Project or elsewhere.

References

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

Buschlen, E., Warner, C., & Goffnet, S. (2015). Leadership education and service: Exploring transformational learning following a tornado. *Journal of Leadership Education, 14*(1), 33-54. doi: 1012806/v14/11/r3

Dugan, J. P. (2017). *Leadership theory: Cultivating critical perspectives*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Dugan, J. P., Kodama, Correia, B., & Associates. (2013). *Multi-Institutional Study of leadership insight report: Leadership program delivery*. College Park, MD: National Clearinghouse for Leadership Programs.

Eyler, J., *& Giles, D. E. J. (*1999*). Where's the learning in service-learning*? San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Higher Education Research Institute. (1996). *A social change model of leadership development (Version III)*. Los Angeles, CA: University of California Higher Education Research Institute.

Jacoby, B. (Ed.). (1996). *Service-learning in higher education: Concepts and practices*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Jenkins, D. M. (2012). Exploring signature pedagogies in undergraduate leadership education. *Journal of Leadership Education, 11*(1), 1-27.

Kniffin, L. E., & Clayton, P. H. (2017, February). *Why service learning and community engagement?* [Blog]. Retrieved from: http://www.centerforengagedlearning.org/why- service-learning-and-community-engagement/

Komives, S. R., Wagner, W., & Associates. (2016). *Leadership for a better world: Understanding the social change model of leadership development, 2nd ed*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Longo, N. V. (2013). Deliberative pedagogy in the community: Connecting deliberative dialogue, community engagement, and democratic education, *Journal of Public Deliberation*, *9*(2), Article 16.

Morton, K. (1995). The irony of service: Charity, project and social change in service-learning. *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning*, *2*(1), 19-32.

Mitchell, T. D. (2008). Traditional vs. critical service-learning: Engaging the literature to differentiate two models. *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning*, *14*(2), 50- 65.

Owen, J. E. (2012). *Findings from the Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership Institutional Survey: A national report*. College Park, MD: National Clearinghouse for Leadership Programs.

Owen, J. E. (2016), Fostering critical reflection: Moving from a service to a social justice paradigm. *New Directions for Student Leadership*, 2016, 37–48. doi:10.1002/yd.20169

Priest, K. L. and Clegorne, N. A. (2015), Connecting to Experience: High-Impact Practices for Leadership Development. *New Directions for Student Leadership,* 2015, 71–83. doi:10.1002/yd.20125

Priest, K. L., Bauer. T., & Fine, L. (2015). The hunger project: Exercising civic leadership with the community for the common good in an introductory leadership course. *Journal of Leadership Education*, *14*(2), 218-228. doi: 10.12806/v14/i2/ab2

Saltmarsh, J. & Driscoll, A. (2014). *Classification descriptions.* Retrieved from: http://classifications.carnegiefoundation.org/descriptions/community_engagement.php

Seemiller, C. (2006). Impacting social change through service learning in an introductory leadership course. *Journal of Leadership Education, 5*(2), 41-48.

Steinberg, K. S., Hatcher, J. A., & Bringle, B. G. (2011). Civic-minded graduate: A north star. *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning*, 18(1), 19-33.

Wagner, W. and Mathison, P. (2015), Connecting to Communities: Powerful Pedagogies for Leading for Social Change. New Directions for Student Leadership, 2015: 85–96. doi:10.1002/yd.20126

Wagner, W. and Pigza, J. M. (2016), The Intersectionality of Leadership and Service-Learning: A 21st-Century Perspective. *New Directions for Student Leadership,* 2016, 11–22. doi:10.1002/yd.20167

Zlotkowski, E. (1995). Does service-learning have a future? *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning, 2*(1), 123-133.

Appendix A
Handout

The SLCE Future Directions Project

www.slce-fdp.org

Twenty years ago, Edward Zlotkowski (1995) posed the question "Does service-learning have a future?" and issued a warning and a challenge to the movement: focus on the academic in order to survive and thrive. The richness of what we now understand as service-learning and community engagement (SLCE) and the complexities of how we now position it in local and global social, political, economic, cultural, and ecological contexts give rise to different questions for the coming decades. How can we best come together around the question of our work's ultimate purposes and focus effectively on what we are trying to achieve? How can we leverage the movement to advance those ends – intentionally, inclusively, and with integrity? The SLCE Future Directions Project is a co-created space for such critical reflection by all who wish to contribute their voices.

What are our visions now for the future of SLCE? Why? What will it take to get there?

Primary objectives:

- To form an inclusive international learning community
- To catalyze, facilitate, organize, and analyze international conversations
- To support, inform, sustain, and excite people involved in SLCE in thinking creatively and collaboratively about the future of SLCE
- To shape the future of SLCE in accordance with co-created priorities

Products: 2500 word thought pieces, guided by the questions:

- What is your vision for the future of SLCE?
- What is the thing you particularly think we must attend to in order to advance and nurture the flourishing of SLCE, and why is it consequential for the future flourishing of SLCE?
- What has helped us get us to the point that your particular priority is thinkable and doable?
- What will it take for us to move forward with advancing your particular priority?

- What questions do we need to ask, what do we need to keep thinking about, and what are the tension points with which we need to engage as we move forward?

Venues:
- Project website: www.slce-fdp.org

- *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning* Special Sections beginning with Volume 22, Number 1 (Fall 2015)
- Conferences and meetings: Imagining America, Gulf South Summit, International Association for Research on Service-Learning and Community Engagement, Pathways to Achieving Civic Engagement, Campus Compact, International Service-Learning Summit, Conference on Applied Learning in Higher Education, etc.
- By invitation to campuses and convenings

Ways you can get involved:

I. Commenting on the website
Readers are welcome to become learning community members at any time by commenting on blog posts and thought pieces, offering your perspectives from a theoretical and/or experiential perspective. *Commenting is open to all and does not require specialized permissions. Share your thoughts and questions freely in the comment box at the bottom of each page.*

II. Blogging
Have ideas and questions that will take a bit longer than the comment box to share? Do you want to share your thinking about the future of SLCE in the form of a video clip, artwork, short essay, or other product? *Contact slce.fdp@gmail.com to pitch an idea.*

III. Crafting a substantive thought piece (1500 - 2000 words) of your own for the website
Do you want to respond in depth to a piece we have already published and/or develop your own new topic as a thought piece? *Contact slce.fdp@gmail.com to propose a topic.*

IV. Developing a thought piece for potential publication in MJCSL
Contributors are invited to develop thought pieces for potential publication in Special Sections of the *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning. Contact slce.fdp@gmail.com to express interest in developing a thought piece for MJCSL.*

V. Collaborating more generally
If you represent an organization or entity committed to the work of the SLCE-FDP and want to collaborate more deeply (e.g., become a sponsor of the project, bring the project to your organization as a professional development and scholarship opportunity, provide leadership in the ongoing evolution of the project), please let us know. We are eager to connect with others in support of this international learning community and are open to suggestions and ideas for enhancing the project. *Contact slce.fdp@gmail.com to discuss collaboration opportunities.*

Appendix B
Sample "Thought Piece"

Asset-Based Approaches in First Year

The Future of Service-Learning and Community Engagement: Asset-Based Approaches and Student Learning in First-Year Courses

███████████████████████████████

Given the particular challenges of first-year courses, it is all too easy to default to an approach that unintentionally sets students on a problematic path … We call for attention to asset-based approaches that, from the beginning, help undergraduates see themselves and others on an equal footing and learn to look for, appreciate, and build on their own and others' strengths.

EXCERPT

It has become clear to us that *how* students experience SL in the first year is especially important in shaping their attitudes toward service and community and their roles as learners and engaged citizens while on campus and in the future. Thus, it is also especially important for faculty to be mindful of SL design in the first year. How can we enhance SL experiences so as to help students make progress on the mindset and practice of civic engagement while scaffolding them toward more challenging commitments and also engaging in a meaningful way with social concerns? …

Many of our students come from high school having done community service; for those whose past service experience has not been tied explicitly to meaningful learning, we have noticed it can be even harder to engage them in the first year – their assumptions about the process at times leading them to resist or lack confidence as they begin to sense the more difficult and riskier work of SL. And, arguably, for most first-year students, an orientation toward SL that includes engagement with the systems underlying social injustices is challenging, insofar as it pushes them to unfamiliar levels of analysis and action.

Our experience suggests that, given the particular challenges of first-year courses, it is all too easy to default to an approach that unintentionally sets students on a problematic path in their interactions with communities…. We call for attention to asset-based approaches that, from the beginning, help undergraduates see themselves and others on an equal footing and learn to look for, appreciate, and build on their own and others' strengths.… setting the stage for future community involvement while on campus and after graduation and advancing social change and student learning about social justice.

Appendix C
Worksheet ALE 2017

The Future of Civic Leadership: Exploring the Intersections of Service-Learning and Community Engagement and Leadership Education

Guiding Questions: What seems most important to you as you think about the future of leadership education? What do you think needs to happen for our work to flourish in the future? What do you think is the role of service-learning and community engagement in the future of leadership education?

Past, Present, and Future
Considering the social, political, and economic contexts that have shaped higher education over the last 20 years, what has brought you to your current reality with leadership education?

Based on where you/we have been and where we are now, what do you think about the future of SLCE in leadership education?
What is required, what must we learn or give attention to? Engaging with Thought Pieces
What are the key tensions or opportunities highlighted by this thought piece?

What are the implications of these tensions/opportunities for what we teach (content), how we teach (pedagogy) and our who we are (our identities within classrooms, programs, communities, institutions)?

Moving Forward
What do you want to think more about in terms of the future of SLCE in leadership education?
What questions or concerns do you have about the future of our work?
What ideas has our time together today generated for how you and your colleagues can contribute to the intentional growth of SLCE in leadership education?

In what ways might we build bridges between the SLCE Future Directions Project and ALE?

Noticing, Stopping the Action, and Starting Something New: A Look at the Core of Intentional Emergence Teaching

David Hellstrom, Jason Jackson, & Ben Marcy
University of Minnesota

Abstract

The need for transformational leadership education has likely never been more necessary then it is today. One response to this need has been the evidence-based pedagogy directed by the Intentional Emergence Model. This session will give an overview of the Intentional Emergence Model as a way to teach leadership to emerging adults, but will focus specifically on one of the core practices educators can use in the classroom: noticing, stopping the action, and then starting something new.

Introduction

While many professional fields have teaching tools and experiences that explicitly bridge theory to practice, the field of leadership education continues to search for a way to best ground theory in practice for its students. This session presents educators with three distinct skill sets the can be learned and practiced.

Noticing – those things happening in the space, such as patterns of engagement, micro-aggressions and marginalization, multiple perspectives from various identities, to simply engaging the energy in the room.
Stopping the Action – once there is momentum (or lack thereof) inside the space, the educator has the power to "stop" (or at least pause) the action. Choosing when, if, and then how become vital questions for the instructor.
Starting Something New – once stopped, now the class had the opportunity to begin again in a new direction or with a new purpose. Giving that work of "re-starting" back to the class is a key role in leadership education.

By the end of this session, participants will be able to identify key elements of Noticing, Stopping the Action, and Starting Something New and be able to start creating a "toolbox" of potential interventions to use. This will be done in ab activity using the wisdom in the room as educators, while the workshop presenters ground this work inside the theory of the Intentional Emergence Model.

Review of Related Scholarship

Many models identify specific elements of an unidentified general pedagogy, rather than putting forth a comprehensive model. Elsewhere, models and methods for learning about leadership provide useful frameworks, but rarely specific practices for teachers that bridge the gap between learning about theory and integrating theory into practice (Astin & Astin, 1996; Komives, et al., 2011).

Sharon Daloz Parks' seminal text *Leadership* Can *Be Taught: A Bold Approach for a Complex World* (2005) documented an approach used at Harvard Graduate School with mid-career executives called Case-in-Point (CIP) teaching that explicitly acknowledges the need to address the gap between theory and practice. However, while CIP recognizes a need to create curriculum that engages students in developing skills and strategies for practicing leadership in a complex world, the strategies used within CIP are difficult at best to translate from its specific Harvard graduate context to more universal contexts, which require addressing several major differences in student characteristics and experience including: 1) a lack of extensive and shared lived experiences of leadership, 2) students' consumer mindset toward education, 3) often the inattention of large and/or research universities to student development, and 4) the differing places students fall along developmental trajectories.

The next step in building on Case-in-Point theory and creating a new branch of Adaptive Leadership (Heifetz, 1998) came from the concept of Intentional Emergence (Werner et. al 2016). Intentional Emergence asks us to consider three main components which are "intention, emerging moments, and the alignment of these two" (Werner et al, 2016, p 207). The *intention* in essence begs the question of, what am I as a Leadership Educator hoping that my students will learn and achieve (Werner et. al 2016)? *Emerging moments* are what actually happens into the classroom, be it verbal, nonverbal or even outside influences that find their way into the classroom (Werner et. al 2016). Lastly, *alignment of these two* asks the Leadership Educator to consider, how do I make this into a teachable moment (Werner et. al 2016)? Knowing when and or how to offer Challenge/Support in the Leadership Classroom when taking into consideration our multiple social identities can be tricky. However, using the Intentional Emergence model has the potential to enable leadership educators to take a big picture view on how they may put this into practice. Emerging teachable moments from challenge and support and its impacts on our multiple social identities are happening in our classrooms everyday, whether we notice them or not. We will use the Intentional Emergence model as a way for the participants to be more mindful about when those moments arise, and furthermore, what are the possibilities of making constructive and teachable moments in our leadership classrooms.

Overview of Lesson Plan

This session will be both informative and interactive for the participants who choose to attend the session. Here is a brief outline of the activities (a more-in depth look at the knowledge behind the activity will be listed in the Outcomes/Results part of this submission).

Item	Description Outline	Who is facilitating	Time
Introduction	• Welcome and Gratitude • Introduce the Presenters • Frame the Workshop	Facilitator 1, 2, & 3	5 min
Explain the Intentional Emergence Model	Because the competencies we will be working on today exist inside the pedagogy of the Intentional Emergence Model – a brief description of the Model will be given (see Handout #1)	Introduced by Facilitator 1	5-7 min

One: Noticing Pt 1: Overview	A short overview of the competency of Noticing will be given in order to frame the activity the participants will be doing	Facilitator 2	2-3 min
One: Noticing Pt 2: Small Groups	Participants will be asked to move into small groups and start listing ways they have been able to discern moments worth "noticing" in the classroom. The small group will write down these thoughts on flipchart paper.	Participants	7 min
One: Noticing Pt 3: Group Debrief	Participants will each tape their flipchart paper in the front of the room. With the help of the facilitators, the room will be asked: • What are the main or common thoughts between the groups? • Any idea that needs extra clarification?	Facilitator 1, 2, & 3	10 min
One: Noticing Pt 4: Takeaways	The facilitator will offer some key takeaways on the technique of noticing that may be helpful.	Facilitator 2	3-4 min
Two: Stopping the Action Pt 1: Overview	The facilitator will repeat the same format that was used in the Noticing Section, but now will begin the framing of the skill set "Stopping the Action." A short overview of the competency of Stopping the Action will be given in order to frame the activity the participants will be doing	Facilitator 3	2-3 min
Two: Stopping the Action Pt 2: Small Groups	Participants will be asked to move into small groups and start listing techniques they have used to "stop the action" in the classroom. Each small group will write down these thoughts on flipchart paper.	Participants	7 min
Two: Stopping the Action Pt 3: Group Debrief	Participants will each tape their flipchart paper in the front of the room. With the help of the facilitators, the room will be asked: • What are the main or common thoughts between the groups? • Any idea that needs extra clarification?	Facilitator 1, 2, & 3	10 min

Two: Stopping the Action Pt 4: Takeaways	The facilitator will offer some key takeaways on the technique of noticing that may be helpful. As importantly, a discussion about "when do you choose to stop the action and when do you allow it to continue?" will take place	Facilitator 3	5-6 min
Three: Creating Something New Pt 1: Overview	A short overview of the competency of Creating Something New will be given in order to frame the activity the participants will be doing	Facilitator 1	2-3 min
Three: Creating Something New Pt 2: Small Groups	Participants will be asked to move into small groups and start listing techniques they have used to "create something new" to start again after the action has been stopped in the classroom. Each small group will write down these thoughts on flipchart paper.	Participants	7 min
Three: Creating Something New Pt 3: Group Debrief	Participants will each tape their flipchart paper in the front of the room. With the help of the facilitators, the room will be asked: • What are the main or common thoughts between the groups? • Any idea that needs extra clarification?	Facilitator 1, 2, & 3	10 min
Three: Creating Something New Pt 4: Takeaways	The facilitator will offer some key takeaways on the technique of Creating Something New that may be helpful. As importantly, a discussion about "how do you give that work back to the students?" will take place	Facilitator 1	5-6 min

Discussion of Outcomes/Results

Proof of the effectiveness of the IE model comes from an ongoing program evaluation and research initiative. The IE model has nearly a decade of evaluation behind it, through which we have established a culture of curiosity, exploration and ongoing improvement. Through complex survey techniques that embed demographic data into student responses, we are able to identify, better understand and adapt to students' unique needs as well as recognize the nuances across course sections and instructors. We found instructors employing the IE model consistently receive 30% higher student satisfaction ratings over their counterparts. After standardizing the IE model across sections, the gap dissipated, increasing the average course recommendation rate by 10% and the overall course experience by 23%. With 40% of students enrolling in our courses through peer recommendation, the rapid enrollment growth of 15% each year also demonstrates increase in student experience.

Moving beyond student self-report, we adopted a research agenda to better assess the impact of the IE Model on its students. The initial research findings on the IE model also indicate that the model is highly effective in retaining students, persistence toward graduation, and campus engagement when compared to matched samples of peers. For example, students who took even one course using this model of teaching, were six times more likely to be retained their first and second years of college than students who were not exposed to this model (n=528, $e^{\beta} = 6.692$, B = 1.901, $p < .001$). A comprehensive analysis of SERU data corroborated these findings. Students who participated in one course using the IE had significantly greater academic engagement ($\beta = .211$, $p < .001$), more engagement in advanced scholarship ($\beta = .129$, $p < .05$), and greater development of an understanding of diversity over their peers ($\beta = .200$, $p < .05$).

Workshop Implications

Participants will benefit from learning both from each other and the facilitators that various techniques of noticing, stopping the action, and creating something new. These skills can be immediately used in the classroom setting. In addition – participants will benefit from seeing how this fits inside the greater pedagogy of the Intentional Emergence Model.

Understanding the Intentional Emergence Model

The Intentional Emergence (IE) Model for Leadership Education relies on three components (intention, emerging moments, and the alignment of these two) to define the most optimal bridging moments to engage within the classroom.

Intention

The first component of the model, *intention,* may seem deceptively simple because many instructors rely heavily on planning for the class. Such intentional construction of a unit, lesson plan, or assignment is critical to the academic rigor and success of a leadership course, but it is not uncommon that intention falls along the lines of interesting activities or simulations without a deeper scaffolding process from one moment, class, and course, to the next.

As Figure 1 demonstrates, sources for intention are available to the leadership educator through many planning venues and tools, which create the foundation for intention in the classroom.
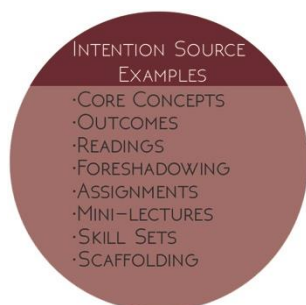

Figure 1. Examples of planning sources which create the intentional foundation

Emergence

It is often clear to see how necessary well-scaffolded lesson plans are to moving students along the continuum of development in their understanding and leadership skill-building. However, highly controlled and well-planned out lessons are not enough to transform theory into lived practice. The ability to connect content to moments of consequence is where transformation is possible. Emergent moments in the classroom hold the key to this bridge from theory to practice. Jeffrey Goldstein (1999), in the inaugural issue of the Journal entitled *Emergence: Complexity and Organization*, states "Emergence...refers to the arising of novel and coherent structures, patterns, and properties during the process of self-organization in complex systems. Emergent phenomena are conceptualized as occurring on the macro level, in contrast to the micro-level components and processes out of which they arise," (Goldstein, 1999, p.49).

Second, is the idea that "[e]mergent phenomena are conceptualized as occurring on the macro level, in contrast to the micro-level components and processes out of which they arise," (Goldstein, 1999, p.49). In leadership terms, this would be the idea of the big picture versus the details (or the balcony and the dance floor in terms of Heifetz's (1998) Adaptive Leadership model). Instructors must be able to engage at the micro level (the dance floor) as an authentic member of the community, but our primary responsibility is to be vigilantly aware of the patterns that are emerging at the macro level (the balcony overlooking the dance floor) in order to call these out to the class.

This spontaneous self-organizing process also surfaces a key element of the IE model and how it differs from classic CIP teaching. While the foundations of both theories are similar and vital to learning (noticing and engaging what is happening in the moment), IE focuses more on what the system *does* with the here and now through organizing, bridging and leading to the *next* moment where effective and compassionate action can be taken.
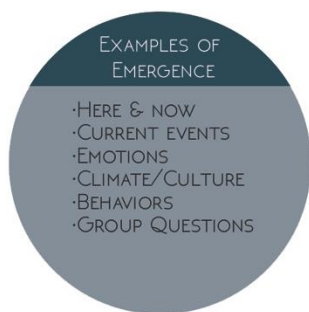

Figure 2. Examples of sources for emergent moments

Arising Teachable Moments

Instructors who are new to emergent pedagogy can sometimes err too far on the emergence side of the model which leaves students confused as to the larger point of their learning and experiences. However, it is the confluence of intention and emergence that creates the ideal teachable moments in the leadership classroom--those moments where theory and practice are most likely to support long-term changes in default leadership behaviors.
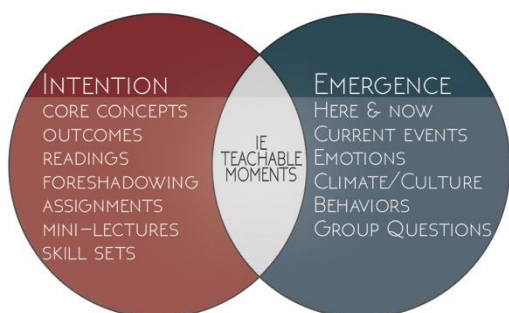
Figure 3. When intention and emergence meet, ideal teachable moments arise

However, not all emerging teachable moments can or should be engaged in the moment they arise. In an average 90 minute course period, there may be a plethora of emergent moments that overlap with the deeper intention for the course and the class period, however, only a few of these moments will be engaged during that time (please see handout #1 for diagram).

Engaging with these emergent and relevant moments creates a vibrant learning environment, where students are connecting what is happening with larger leadership concepts. At its best, IE helps students make rich connections between theory and practice through various inductive and deductive reasoning activities, adding connections between concepts and students' current mental schema of ideas. Deepening these connections and building them even further allows the learning to "come alive" and be taken from inside the classroom to outside of it. That is the ultimate leadership educator's goal: to take the learning into the world.

References

Astin, H., & Astin, A. (1996). *A social change model of leadership development: Guidebook.* Los Angeles: University of California Education Research Institute.

Goldstein, J. (1999). Emergence as a construct: History and issues. *Emergence: Complexity and Organization, 1*(1), 49–72.

Heifetz, R. (1998). *Leadership without easy answers* (1st ed.). Boston: Harvard University Press.

Heifetz, R., Grashow, A. & Linsky, M. (2009) *The Practice of Adaptive Leadership: Tools and Tactics for Changing Your Organization and the World.* Boston, MA: Harvard Business Press.

Komives, S.R., Longerbeam, S.D., Owen, J.E., Mainella, F.C., & Osteen, L. (2006). A leadership identity development model: Applications from a grounded theory. *Journal of College Student Development*, 47(4), 401-418.

Parks, S.D. (2005). *Leadership* can *be taught: A bold approach for a complex world.* Boston: Harvard Business School.

Werner, L., Hellstrom, D., Chung, J., Kessenich, K., Taylor, Jr. L., & Capeder, A. (2016). Bridging theory and practice in the leadership classroom: Intentional Emergence as a modern pedagogy. *The Journal of Leadership Education, 15*(4), 206-216. doi:10.12806/v15/i4/c1

Handout #1: Intentional Emergence Model of Teaching and Learning
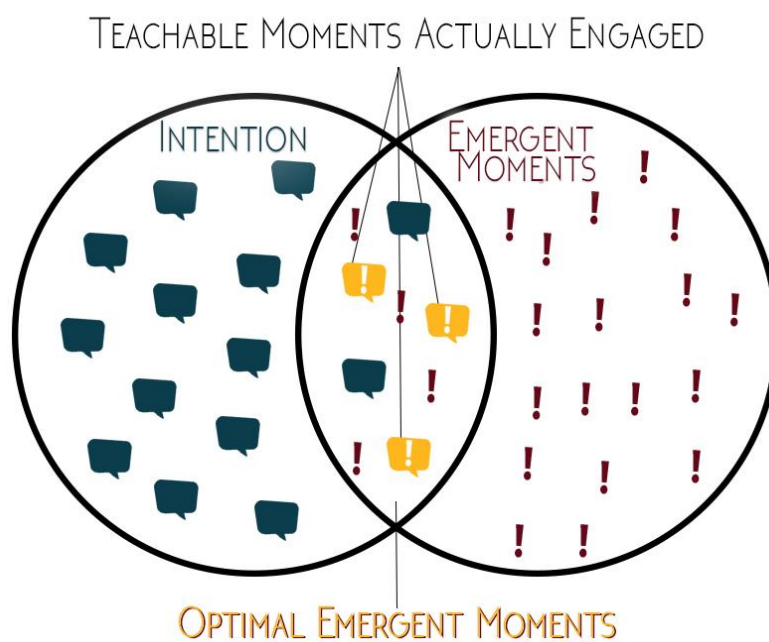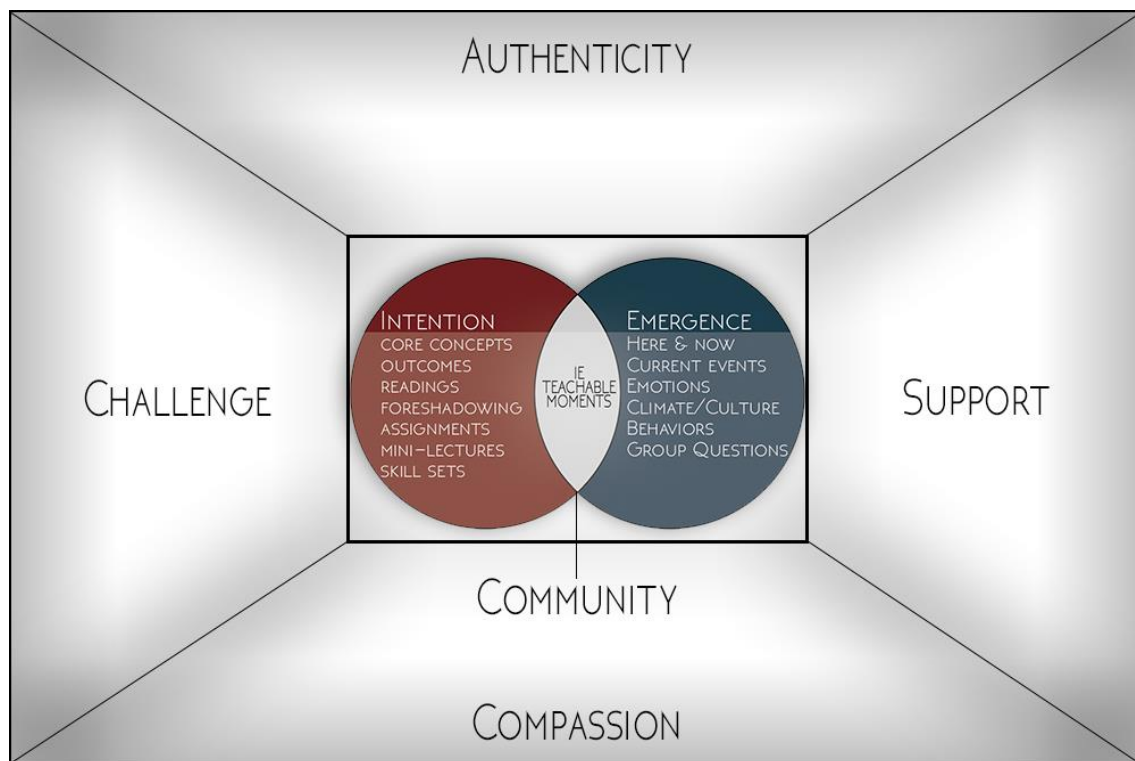
MAKING IT REAL: FINDING MOMENTS OF CONNECTION
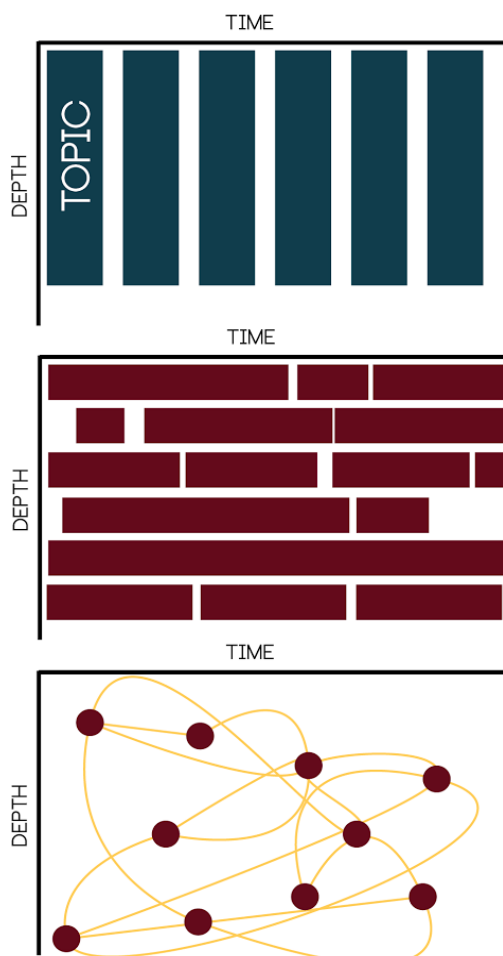
THE CONVENTIONAL MODEL

The conventional model of teaching involves covering each topic in depth for a period of time, before breaking and moving to another topic soon after. It is repeated.

OUR EDUCATIONAL MODEL

Our teaching model aims to pull on and connect to moments, readings, and concepts from earlier in the semester to contribute to a stronger understanding of leadership and be able to apply it out of the classroom.

CONNECTING CONCEPTS

Through these methods, instructors can choose how much focus and discussion occur around class concepts, current events, and external topics.

In cognitive psychology and studies on learning, connecting new ideas to old ones is critical to having a deep understanding of the concept. The more we can connect between ideas, experiences, examples, the more likely we can take learning from inside the classroom to outside. To do this, instructors have to make many choices about what examples to connect, when, and for how long. In an intentional emergent context classroom, instructors bring in many possibilities and strategies to capitalize on these moments in a variety of ways.

THE SLOW BURN: The longest and most intentional strategy may last several weeks or the whole semester. Instructors can pull on robust examples throughout, adding new nuances as more leadership concepts are introduced. This adds a contextual and temporal vantage to the discussion which helps students see the longer view and more complex view of an issue.

THE SPOTLIGHT: There are so many current events to choose from, but perhaps there's a rich example you can ask the class to examine and identify what leadership concepts are present within the issue. For example, what are the different leadership connections we can make to the Flint Water Crisis? This is inductive reasoning, or "bottom up" reasoning, where you take one example and connect to abstract concepts.

THE DEBRIEF: Adding a few minutes to a debrief or discussion, instructors may ask students a question to connect what this particular concept "looks like" in different contexts like student organizations, politics, at work. This is deductive reasoning, or "top down" reasoning, taking an abstract concept and making it more concrete.

THE NAME DROP: the quickest of the four, the instructor may be elaborating on a topic and mention several examples of the concept ranging from moments in class, current events, or other class concepts.

TIME COMMITMENT

Handout #3: Stopping and Starting Examples of Responses in the Moment

Moment	Possible Standard Responses	Intentional Emergent Response
EXAMPLE: A student approaches you before class and says, "I am slammed with midterms and I can finish my paper by the due date, but it would be a much better paper if I had another week. Can I turn in my paper late?"	EXAMPLE: - "It's not like the deadline was a surprise. You really needed to get working on it earlier. I'm sorry, but you can't have extra time." -"Yes, no problem. Just get it to me by next week." -"Okay, but like the syllabus says, you will lose a letter grade each day it is late."	EXAMPLE: "I hear what you are saying. It's midterm crunch time. Not to go all leadership professor on you, but this is a big ask .*Can* you turn in your paper late? Absolutely. Will I grade it? Maybe. Will I take off points for being late? Yes. You seem to have an individual dilemma between handing a poor paper in on time or a better paper late? What can you learn from this experience that will allow you to hand in a better paper on time in the future? In terms of our community, do you think the situation you are in is an individual problem or perhaps is a system problem for the whole class because of timing or clarity or overload. How much more effective would your request be if 10 students were in the same predicament? How about if the entire class asked me if we could move the paper deadline? Do you think you are the only one who could use more time or do you think others might like more time as well? How could you find out?"
EXAMPLE: Emily, a student who has had accountability issues in class, sends her assignment to you via email at the last possible moment before it would be considered late. However, she fails to attach the actual assignment.	EXAMPLE: -Email her back and ask for the attachment without any repercussions -Email her back and let her know that she has lost points for the assignment being late -Give her a zero	EXAMPLE: Wait until you see her in class, pull her aside privately and say,"Emily. I got an email from you that said,'Here is my paper!' but there was no paper attached. But here is my dilemma. If you had been a student who had turned in all your other assignments on time, and who showed up to class on time each day, I would probably not even question that you actually did forget to attach your paper. But, that is because

		you would have been banking social capital with me the entire semester. Now, when you need the social capital, you don't have it because you haven't been building it. So, my mind immediately went to the past. I thought about all the times you haven't turned in assignments or all the times you have missed class or been late and my mind said, 'There is a good chance that this is not accidental. She probably doesn't have it done, but she doesn't want to lose points for turning it in late. So she is using the 'I forgot to attach it' excuse. This is the narrative your presence in class has written for you. It may not be fair, it may not even be true but it is real. So, given that Emily, if you were me, what would you do? What would you believe?
EXAMPLE: While you are teaching you notice one of your students who is checking his phone every two or three minutes near the back of the room. Fill in your own example	- Call out the student publically and ask what is so important that they can't leave their phone in their backpack for one lousy hour. - Remind the class that it is the class policy that phones will be turned off or put away. - Walk by that student and whisper "no phones" as you go by. How would you normally respond?	Create a case out of what you see and ask the class publically "if you were in charge of a presentation/meeting and you noticed someone constantly checking their phone - what are some of the possible reasons why? Is what is happening with the phone solely an individual decision or does it also affect the system as a whole? What are some of the choices you have as the leader of that space? What would an effective IE response look like?

P

The Complexities of Challenge and Support: Intersecting Identities of Leadership Educators and Students

Jason Jackson, Ben Marcy, & Cayley Reif
University of Minnesota

Abstract

In an ever changing social and political world, how can Leadership Educators develop their practice of challenge and support in the classroom, while considering the impacts of their social identities and their students? In this interactive workshop, Leadership Educators will engage in self-reflection on how their multiple social identities impact their methods of challenge and support show up in the classroom through a series of activities, while grounding this work in academic literature. As Leadership Educators, when we consider our social identities (race, gender, sexual orientation) and juxtapose those with the social identities of our students, challenge and support may be perceived and exhibited in a variety of ways and with different impacts.

Introduction

In our academic department we are beginning to really hone in on the ways which our leadership instructors' potential to critically understand their social identities and their impacts to the students experiences. We have utilized social identity maps in the classrooms to enable leadership students to carefully consider how their multiple identities may inform and influence decisions that they make, may impact how others see them, and which identities gives them power and privilege. It is essential for the growth of our students that as leadership educators we are able to openly and critically consider the impacts of our identities as well.

Depending on your multiple social identities as a leadership educator within the classroom and other multiple factors such as, campus (and political) climate, past experiences, time of day, etc, challenge and support may take on different forms and have a variety of impacts. We shall use one of our presenters' stories to illustrate:

> *My more salient (visible) identities are that I am a tall black male leadership educator in the classroom. I am also gay, from the south, and a 1st generation college student that received his M.A. in Higher Education Administration. One semester in particular, I instructed a class of 26 students, 22 of which were white, 25 heterosexual identified, and a large majority from the Midwest. I asked at the start of class how everyone is doing today, which happened to be the day before the 2016 Presidential Election. A white female student raised her hand and unapologetically said, "As a woman, I am really scared about the results of tomorrow." After she elaborated on her fears, I asked if there were other responses. Immediately, a very vocal white male student in my class scanned around the class and yelled, "Stop worrying, we are going to be fine even if he wins! Seriously, we are making a big deal about nothing." As soon as he was done, all of the students looked to me for a response.*

With the identities that this presenter holds, and taking into consideration the identities of the white male student, there are several things at play here. If the instructor responds from a place of support, it is possible that the students may think that yelling across the room at the instructor and the rest peers is warranted. The first female student who spoke in the class may feel silenced and that she is not supported in her concerns about gender. On the other hand, if the instructor challenged the male student who spoke the class may perceive him as liberal or the "angry black man." Students with any range of conservative values may feel they cannot voice their views on different subjects. These scenarios bounced around in the head of the instructor for a few seconds before he took action in the class.

That few seconds of critically questioning is an experience with which many leadership educators grapple. Those few second matter for Leadership Educators as we decide how we move through challenging times in our classrooms. Leadership theory reminds us that with the right amount of challenge and right amount of support growth is possible (Sanford, 1966). The way that you challenge may be seen as threatening. The way you may be supporting a student may be seen as paternalistic. The practice of understanding how we are showing up, supporting and challenging students is a developmental exercise tool which we believe is sure to have a great impact on leadership educators.

Review of Related Scholarship

For this workshop we shall draw on the work of the Leadership Minor at the University of Minnesota-Twin Cities and how it trains their instructors to create a dynamic leadership experience in the classroom, through the concept of Intentional Emergence (Werner et. al 2016). Intentional Emergence asks us to consider three main components which are "intention, emerging moments, and the alignment of these two" (Werner et al, 2016, p 207). The *intention* in essence begs the question of, what am I as a Leadership Educator hoping that my students will learn and achieve (Werner et. al 2016)? *Emerging moments* are what actually happens into the classroom, be it verbal, nonverbal or even outside influences that find their way into the classroom (Werner et. al 2016). Lastly, *alignment of these two* asks the Leadership Educator to consider, how do I make this into a teachable moment (Werner et. al 2016)? Knowing when and or how to offer Challenge/Support in the Leadership Classroom when taking into consideration our multiple social identities can be tricky. However, using the Intentional Emergence model has the potential to enable leadership educators to take a big picture view on how they may put this into practice. Emerging teachable moments from challenge and support and its impacts on our multiple social identities are happening in our classrooms every day, whether we notice them or not. We will use the Intentional Emergence model as a way for the participants to be more mindful about when those moments arise, and furthermore what are the possibilities of making constructive and teachable moments in our leadership classrooms.

We shall draw from Intersectional Theory as the basis for understanding our multiple social identities. Cho, Crenshaw, and Mccall, make clear that intersectionality must be considered with its relationship to power, "Intersectionality is inextricably linked to an analysis of power, yet one challenge to intersectionality is its alleged emphasis on categories of identity versus structures of inequality" (Cho et al, 2013, p. 797). This link is important as we consider the power of the

instructor in connection to one's social identity in the leadership classroom, while working on best practices for challenge and support.

Dr. Susan R. Jones (2016) complicates the concept of authenticity in leadership by asserting that one must negotiate one's own perception of self-identity, while managing the perceptions other have about those identities. Jones frames authenticity through an intersectional lens and asks that leadership educators remain conscious of the ways in which our privileged and marginalized identities impact how we see and (work with) students. Considering that our multiple social identities impact the ways in which we as Leadership Educators are regarded by our students, it is essential to name and consider how our actions of challenge and support in the classroom are also perceived based on those identities. Additionally, Jones (2016) coins the phrase the *Role in Shifting Contexts*, which asks us to consider how situational instances such as where one lives, access to resources, campus (and political) climate, etc heighten or stifle one's sense of identity. These are critical concepts to consider when approaching how to best challenge and support students with multiple social identities from an intersectional or even social justice lens.

Through the work of Ron Heifetz, Marty Linsky, Alexander Grashow (2009), we shall able to frame work of identity and challenge in support in an adaptive leadership context.. By discussing identities in relation challenge in support we wish to uncover what are the loyalties to their identities, realized or hidden, that each person carries with them (Heifetz et al, 2009). Our intention is to help participants understand that improving one's ability to challenge and support within the context of multiple identities in a classroom is not a simple technical solution but requires adaptive work of leadership educators to learn and change behaviors (Heifetz et al, 2009).

The structure of our workshop is influenced by the work of Peter Block and his work *Community: The structure of belonging* (2009). Our activity component will use small groups as a mechanism to delve further into understanding of identities and challenges and support. Small groups serve this work because Block (2009) finds that help us to hear the voices because small groups create more safety to audition thoughts that others consider risky and create more space for voices simply on the basis of logistics. Additionally we will be employing Peter Block's outline for powerful questions within our debrief portions of the workshop. These questions will hit on three key points for participants; they will be personal in nature, they will be ambiguous, and they will be asked with the intention of creating a bit of anxiety in the person answering the question (Block, 2009).

Lesson Plan Description

Item	Description Outline	Who is facilitating	Time
Introduction	- Allow time for those coming in a minute or two late - Introduce Presenters - Frame the work in front of us and introducing the task before we go into full introductions.	Facilitator 1, 2, & 3	5 min

	● Ask people to look around the room to take in the scene.		

Post It Task	On 4 Large Post It Paper, workshop participants will be instructed to write responses to the following prompts:
	   1) What are the identities you have?
	   2) What are the identities that you see in this workshop?
	   3) What challenges are we facing?
	   4) What are the opportunities of us gathering today
	● Here we will be able to put out on the table what our workshop participants are carrying into the room.
	● (Facilitators will note and place the themes of the responses up for conversation).
	
	Materials needed:
	Stacks of post it notes with four different colors
	4 Large post it paper to sort smaller post its
	Pens for participant to write on post its.
	Miniature notebooks for participants to use.
		Introduced by Facilitator 1
		Participant driven
			7-10 min

Review of Postings	Participants will be asked to review the post its and write a response to what they are feeling what is showing up in the room. ● Time will be kept for 3-5 minutes ● Participants will be encouraged to move around and examine moving back and forth between writing and observing. ● Response will be done in a free write fashion encouraging participants to keep engaging in writing; when feeling stuck write out the feeling.	Introduced by Facilitator 2	3-5 min
Debrief of Response	Participants will be asked to move into small groups to discuss the responses posted. Facilitators will move between small groups of 3-5 participants at a frequency dependent on the attendance (5-10 minutes). ● Small groups will be an opportunity for all to share. ● Groups will be instructed to give brief summaries of thoughts in their group. ● Each group will be asked to pose a question that arose from their discussion	Facilitator 1, 2, & 3	15-25 min

	Participants will gather in the large group (10-15 minutes).		
	● Share small group response and question.		
	● Facilitators will move the conversation forward employing Intentional Emergence with the purpose of wanting to participants to see how the complexity of identities and how we project our assumptions of identity show up within our short time together.		

Discussion of Outcomes

The presenters' academic leadership minor has been collecting student data about perceived challenge and support in the classroom for three years. We took those three years and found the average of the student ratings for perceived challenge, support, and overall experience. The data was then put into a regression model that showed that perceived support was statistically significant in its correlation to overall experience, and perceived challenge was weakly correlated as well. Over the course of the three years our program has seen an overall increase in perceived challenge, support, and overall experience ratings. The variation in perceived challenge and support ratings has also experienced an overall decrease during this time period. This research is continuing and we will be looking into the ways that identities influence perceived challenge and support next.
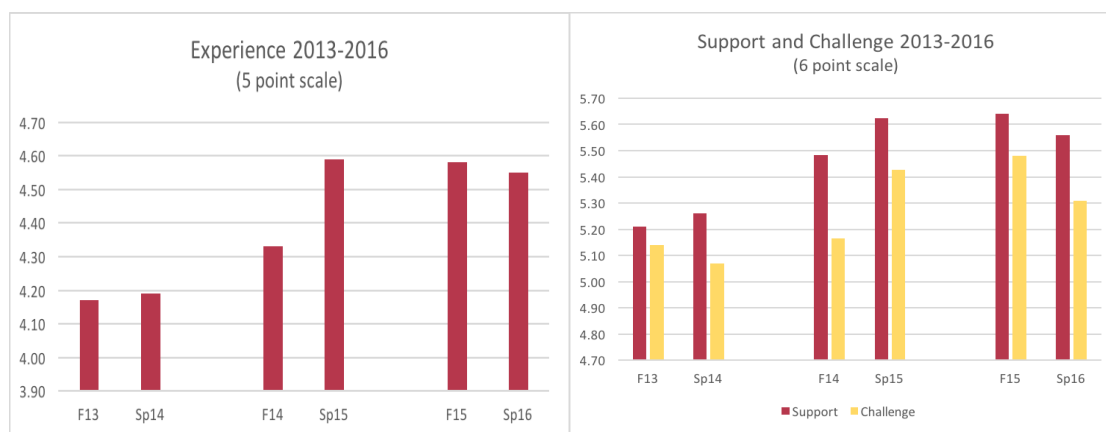
As part of ongoing instructor support within our academic minor, we have discussed the ideas of challenge in support and what that looks like in the classroom. Evaluations are given at the mid-point of the semester in which instructors can then take the results of the feedback and apply it to their teaching practice. Evaluations at the end of the semester are reviewed in collaboration with staff to assess success and places where adjustments may need to occur. Monthly trainings and course level check-ins are scheduled for instructor cohorts. In these trainings, instructors are given opportunities to discuss the challenge and support issues arising in their classes. This gives

them opportunity to explore how their identities may be showing up to their students from instructors of varying identities.

Workshop Plan & Implications

Item	Description Outline	Who	Time
Introductions	● See Above Under Lesson Plan Description		5 min
Activity	● See Above Under Lesson Plan Description Outcomes: ● Participants will examine their own and others visible and nonvisible identities ● Participants will examine their own and others dynamics of privilege and oppression and their potential impacts in the Leadership Classroom ● Participants will see and examine first hand by the workshop facilitators, how to utilized in practice the Intentional Emergence (IE) Model		35 min
Ground Content in Literature	Approximately 5 min for each academic overview: ● Evaluation of LM Department instructors ● Discussion on Intersectionality, Power and Privilege ● Brief overview of Nevitt Sanford's Challenge and Support Theory in relation to Intentional Emergence and Adaptive Leadership Outcomes: ● Participants have a grasp on the academic literature of Intentional Emergence, Intersectionality and the Challenge and Support Theory.	Facilitator 1, 2, & 3	15 min
Prompts of Challenge and Support	Transitioning Sanford's Challenge and Support Theory participants will be placed in small groups (5-7 minutes) to consider the following prompts: ● Where do you find that barriers in challenging and supporting students in your Leadership Classroom? ● How might your (and your students) social identities impact these barriers? Reconvening in the large group to draw thoughts from each small group (13-15 minutes) -*Facilitators will note the themes that they see from the responses and ask participants how they would feel about delving into the topics, from here we will go into*	Facilitator 1, 2, & 3	20 min

	themes more in depth for the remainder as a practice of Intentional Emergence with the group. Materials needed: Large Post it paper for noting responses and markers Outcomes: ● Participants will gain a greater understanding of their own personal identities and how their identities shape their leadership and followership. ● Participants will share resources with other workshop participants about additional best practices for intersectional challenge and support.		
Now What?	Facilitators will briefly leave workshop participants with key tips on best practices to considering how to best use Challenge and Support from an intersectional lens Participants will then be given a worksheet where they will be asked to write out potential-tangible-solutions for effectively utilizing challenge and support from an intersectional lens in 3 time frame: a) this week b) next semester, c) next year. Participants are asked to not use write down their names. Once they have all completed the task, they will crumble up their worksheet and throw it across the room. At this point, the participants will be asked to pick up a new worksheet, and one by one we will read them out loud. Outcomes: ● Participants will gain tools for the use of Challenge and Support from an intersectional framework. ● Participants will be able to acknowledge and potentially acquire the tools from their peers-Leadership Educators. ● Participants will have a high sense of accountability to intersectionality and the concepts of challenge and support.	Facilitator 1	10 min
Full Debrief/ Questions	Outcomes: ● Participants will be given to opportunity to comment and ask questions to the facilitators. ● If desired among participants, space will be given to further connect with Leadership Educators and create networks around further exploration of challenge and support through recognition of identities.	Facilitator 2	10 min

References

Block, P. (2009). *Community: The structure of belonging*. San Francisco, CA: Berrett-Koehler Publishers Inc.

Cho, S., Crenshaw, K. W., & Mccall, L. (2013). Toward a field of Intersectionality Studies: Theory, applications, and praxis. *Signs: Journal of Women in Culture and Society, 38*(4), 785-810. doi:10.1086/669608

Heifetz, R., Grashow, A. & Linsky, M. (2009) *The Practice of Adaptive Leadership: Tools and Tactics for Changing Your Organization and the World.* Boston, MA: Harvard Business Press.

Jones, S. R. (2016). Authenticity in leadership: Intersectionality of identities. *New Directions for Student Leadership, 2016*(152), 23-34. doi:10.1002/yd.20206

Sanford, N. (1966). *Self and society: Social change and individual development*. New York: Atherton.

Werner, L., Hellstrom, D., Chung, J., Kessenich, K., Taylor, Jr. L., & Capeder, A. (2016). Bridging theory and practice in the leadership classroom: Intentional Emergence as a modern pedagogy. *The Journal of Leadership Education, 15*(4), 206-216. doi:10.12806/v15/i4/c1

Leadership Coaching: The Innovative Intersection of Career and Leadership Development

Erin Morgenstern & Erika Peyton
Ohio University

Abstract

Come learn the new cutting edge leadership development service --- Leadership Coaching. Participants will discuss the intersection of leadership skill development and neuroscience, learn the Leadership Coaching structure, and role play ways to increase a student's process to gain 21st century leadership skills.

Introduction

Leadership Coaching is a collaborative process that reimagines a student's assumptions about leadership skill development and goal setting, while infusing current neuroscience research to make the process successful for the coach and student. Leadership Coaching encourages the growth of knowledge, skills, and competencies in a global environment wrestling with complex problems. Through observing patterns, self---reflective assessments, and holistically focusing on an individual's personal development, Leadership Coaching fits the professional trajectory of any student at any developmental level.

Since 2012, Ohio University's Career & Leadership Development Center (CLDC) has taken on the role of offering career and leadership development services that can successfully and holistically support students in planning for life after graduation. Thinking beyond traditional career development strategies and services was the first step in creating an effective leadership development service. After extensive research and staff training over the last three years, a new process has been implemented --- Leadership Coaching.

Ohio University's Career and Leadership Development Center is the first institution to take this innovative step of implementing Leadership Coaching in order to structurally encourage students to think beyond resumes and networking as the keys to career success. It is essential that students develop critical thinking and self---awareness strategies, which are the core elements to building any individual's leadership skillset. The CLDC has turned this issue regarding an absence of a globally prepared workforce into an innovative system and one---on---one service to better serve thousands of college students and alumni.

Review of Related Scholarship

Leadership Coaching is a collaborative process that reimagines a student's assumptions about developing leadership skills. From a systemic perspective, the leadership coaching model promotes a new way of viewing decision---making and goal setting in a one---on---one service to any student. Through observing patterns, assessments in self---reflection, and holistically focusing on an individual's personal development, leadership coaching fits the career trajectory for any student, at any developmental level.

The theoretical framework for Leadership Coaching comes from neuroscience, Ontology, Constructivism, mindfulness, and instructional design. Cutting edge brain based concepts serve

as a scientific platform to support the practice of Leadership Coaching. The following sources provided information regarding college students' lack of career readiness, and the need for specific leadership skill development, which Leadership Coaching addresses: NACE, AACU, ONET, Recruiting Trends, Educational Advisory Board, Lumina Foundation, Gallup, Bureau of Labor Statistics, Georgetown Center for Education and Workforce, Board of Regents: Higher Education Condition Reports, Bentley U Project, Hart Research Associates, American Academy of Arts and Sciences, Accenture, Hanover Research, Career Readiness Partner Council, McKinsey, and the Chronicle of Higher Education/American Public Media's Marketplace.

Lesson Plan Description

1. Introduction and Organizational realignment --- leadership education infusion with career development (5 minutes): Basic introduction to presenters and the topic. Will frame the session as it relates to the changing nature of leadership development and the necessity of incorporating leadership skill development for students to be successful and sought after by employers upon graduation.
2. Description of Leadership Coaching (10 minutes): Lecture format with use of text, images, and potentially video to highlight the core elements of leadership coaching in a way that is meaningful to a variety of learning styles.
3. Review of the Leadership Coaching model (15 minutes): Deeper exploration of leadership coaching that will engage participants in active learning related to the key elements of leadership coaching. Participants will test their new knowledge of leadership coaching through this review time with conversation in the small and large group setting.
4. Role Play (20 minutes): Participants will be highly engaged in small and large group activities to practice goal setting techniques related to leadership coaching. This time will allow participants to apply their new knowledge of the leadership coaching framework by testing out various elements of the structure.
5. Discussion (10 minutes): Large group discussion to gather questions and insights from all participants. Participants will have the opportunity gauge their learning from this session and how they can use it upon return to their home campus.

Discussion of Outcomes/Results

- As a result of participating in this session, attendees will learn the Leadership Coaching structure
- As a result of participating in this session, attendees will understand why Leadership Coaching helps students develop strategies to acquire sought after skills
- As a result of participating in this session, attendees will implement a structure for students to become aware of needed skills
- As a result of participating in this session, attendees will teach students to develop goals that build needed skills
- As a result of participating in this session, attendees will teach students to effectively articulate the skills they have learned
- As a result of participating in this session, attendees will understand the importance of goal setting with college students

Workshop Implications

This session will enhance attendee's knowledge, skills and dispositions used in leadership and student learning and development. Participants will understand how Leadership Coaching shifts a student's thinking from knowledge to application, and directly addresses ALE's mission to collaborate and have open dialogue to help with the expansion of the field of leadership and developing leadership capacities among educators and those students who we support.

References

Densten, I. L., & Gray, J. H. (2001). Leadership development and reflection: What is the connection? *International Journal of Educational Management, 15*(3), 119---124.

Komives, S. R., Longerbeam, S. D., Owen, J. E., Mainella, F. C., & Osteen, L. (2006). A Leadership Identity Development Model: Applications from a Grounded Theory. *Journal of College Student Development, 47*(4), 401---418.

Leonard, H. S., & Lang, F. (2010). Leadership Development via Action Learning. *Advances in Developing Human Resources, 12*(2), 225---240.

Mccallum, S., & O'connell, D. (2009). Social capital and leadership development. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal, 30*(2), 152---166.

Sparrowe, R. T. (2005). Authentic leadership and the narrative self. *The Leadership Quarterly, 16*(3), 419---439.

Appendices

LEADERSHIP COACHING STRUCTURE SESSION #1
Details of Structure and Processing Questions

SESSION ONE – INITIATE
Explain the process of Leadership Coaching (e.g. three sessions, Strengths, goal setting, articulation)
- "I want to hear your perspective"
- "There is no right or wrong answer"
- "I'm going to ask you a series of questions to get to know you"
- "This is a better way to learn than just telling someone what leadership is"
- "We will find commonalities/synergies to help you become a better leader"

What do you hope to gain from Leadership Coaching?

Get to know the student's hopes, dreams and thoughts on leadership utilizing Powerful Coaching questions
- What kind of a leader do you think you are right now?
- What kind of leader do you hope to be in the future?
- Give me a list of at least five skills that you feel a leader should possess.
- Give me some examples from your life when you have seen leaders display these skills.
- Out of these skills, which do you feel are strengths that you have as well? Which one(s)?
- Give me an example of a time you have had to use those skills in your life.

What does the word leadership mean to you?

Close the session with next steps for Session Two

LEADERSHIP COACHING STRUCTURE SESSION #2
Details of Structure and Processing Questions

SESSION TWO – COMMIT
Review StrengthFinder Report with student; have student list their top five on the worksheet
- Did anything surprise you about your StrengthsFinder report?
- What did you agree/not agree with in your report?

Guide student to connect their strengths with the six leadership skills *(see opposite side of worksheet)*. Make connections to Session One leader skill list that the student discussed with the six CLDC leadership skills
- Now that you know about some of your strengths, can you make some connections between your strengths and these leadership skills that are on this worksheet?

If you had to choose a skill that you are motivated to work on, which would it be?
- Have student write this skill on the worksheet

Guide student through SMART goal format using the worksheet (coaches keep notes on goals and action steps)*
- What is something that is going on in your life currently that could help you set a goal related to "X" skill?
- Now that you have an overarching goal, what are the action steps you are going to take to accomplish this goal?
- As each goal is created ask the following question: On a scale of 1 to 10, how much risk or challenge is this goal for you?
- If the risk is high, allow the student time to determine if she is going to be successful with completing it or if it needs to be adjusted.
- Other than me, who else can hold you accountable to completing these goals before we meet for our final session?
- How will you celebrate your success when you complete these goals?

Close session by reviewing what will be discussed in Session #3

LEADERSHIP COACHING STRUCTURE SESSION #3
Details of Structure and Processing Questions

SESSION THREE – ARTICULATE
Review goal setting process and accomplishment of goals by student
How would you say you completed both of your goals? Partially, fully or not at all?
- What was it like to set goals with specific action steps to accomplish the goals?

What do you think the difference is between the goals you set in Leadership Coaching with me and setting goals for day---to---day tasks?
How do you imagine using this goal setting process in your life in the future?
What extent do you think you have strengthened your competency in the "X" skill?
Let's practice what it would be like to tell your STAR story about one of your goals around "X" skill.
- Show student the worksheet and have them fill it out the Situation, Task, Action and Result based on one of the goals/actions steps they set for "X" skill.
- Take at least five minutes to practice articulating and reviewing how to answer a behavior---based question using the skill based STAR story they just wrote down.
- The student will most likely feel a bit uncomfortable practicing this, but assure them that practice makes it easier to do when they have interviews or are in networking situations where leadership skills are discussed.

Close the session with future based questions.
- In the future, do you have someone or a way to hold yourself accountable if you want to continue to build on any of these skills?
- Were we able to meet your hopes and expectations throughout this process? If needed, review what the student said in the first session regarding their hopes for leadership coaching.

Thank student for coming to leadership coaching and refer to other services as necessary as you walk the student to the door.

CAREER & LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT CENTER

LEADERSHIP COACHING

SELF AWARENESS

- Identify personal interests, skills, values, strengths and motivations
- Incorporate self-knowledge into decision-making

TEAM DEVELOPMENT

- Identify and work toward a teams' shared purpose
- Develop the skills essential to effective teams: facilitation, collaboration, compromise, and conflict resolution

PROBLEM SOLVING

- Think critically about all factors associated with a problem
- Evaluate potential solutions from a systems perspective and make an informed decision about which option to implement
- Evaluate chosen solution's effectiveness following implementation

INTERPERSONAL DEVELOPMENT

- Effectively communicate verbally, non-verbally and in writing
- Understand the role of relationship building skills: listening, empathy, honesty and integrity

ADAPTABILITY

- Recognize when a change is needed and adapt to present environment
- Persist through adversity to overcome challenges

INNOVATION

- Demonstrate the desire and willingness to develop new or creative ideas
- Demonstrate comfort with risk taking to test ideas
- Engage and challenge others by conveying need for dynamic change

A New Lens for Leadership Education: Grounding Agency in Credible Knowledge in the Face of Counter-Reality

Anthony C. Andenoro, Linnea Dulikravich, & Nicole L. P. Stedman
University of Florida

Abstract

Interdisciplinary leadership learning programs are charged with integrating students of varying concentrations, experiences, upbringings, and interests within a context that facilitates a growth in perception and allows them to work together to apply their gained lenses to real world problems. Ultimately, higher education should not just improve leadership learners' knowledge of the world and its many complex problems – students should be empowered to take action in addressing those problems. The proposed educator workshop purports to address this challenge by teaching leadership educators to develop agency in leadership learners, so they will be better equipped to ask themselves incisive questions when presented with counter realities, or false claims about historical and present contexts. The impacts of leaders' decisions extend far beyond just themselves. Because decisions are based on one's judgement, empowering students with the tools necessary to make rational judgements will ultimately make them better leaders.

Introduction

In today's age of social media and rapidly growing variety of informal information outlets (i.e. blogs, vlogs, podcasts), facts can become muddled by biases, assumptions, and alternative facts, creating an environment of counter-reality. This issue challenges leadership learners to think critically about the information that they are given, and the source of the information, before accepting it as fact. Unfortunately, counter-reality can also be created through the omission of facts and the inclusion of cultural prejudices. However, the development of agency can foster the curiosity needed to question the counter-reality and make the well-informed judgement calls needed to take action to solve the world's problems. Teaching students how to see through this lens could prove to be beneficial because it provides them with the tools to be more perceptive when faced with complex issues. Stedman and Andenoro (2015) note that "the human race is responsible for two things, identifying the problems in which we face and solving them" (p. 145). In order for leaders to address this level of action they must be equipped to synthesize and bring together ideas from a variety of perspectives; "this maybe one of the grand challenges of leadership educators" (2015, p. 146).

Without the development of agency and yearning for facts in the face of counter-reality, there exists the threat of future leaders believing alternative facts and spreading their false beliefs to their followers, which could lead to disastrous outcomes. An example of the criticality of developing this skill can best be understood by remembering the beliefs during the era of Nazi Germany that led to the creation of a counter-reality that ignorantly accepted the orders of Adolf Hitler. Hitler's political success was built on a platform of promised economic and political stability that would establish Germany as a "master race". Hitler's manipulation of the German people's post-World War I loss of pride combined with his creation of a counter-reality that blamed this on Jews, Slavs, homosexuals, and Communists, led to the genocide of millions.

Hitler accomplished the creation of a counter-reality that justified the mistreatment of these minorities which shifted people's perceptions to agree with him – very few people took the effort to seek the truth through facts and credible knowledge or utilized incisive questions to decide whether or not to support Hitler's actions. If more of the German citizens and global political leaders had practiced agency and evaluated the validity of Hitler's statements, perhaps the Holocaust would have been prevented.

For this reason, all educators and leadership learners should care about their mastery of practicing agency when evaluating reality. There will be implications for leadership educators in the first, third, and sixth priorities listed by the National Leadership Education Research Agenda -- *Teaching, Learning & Curriculum Development*, the Psychological Development of the Leader, Learner, and Follower, and Social Change and Community Development, respectively (Andenoro, Allen, Haber-Curran, Jenkins, Sowcik, Dugan, & Osteen, 2013). Furthermore, the American Association for Agricultural Education National Research Agenda encourages educators to pursue research priorities four and seven: Meaningful, Engaged Learning in All Environments and Addressing Complex Problems (Roberts, Harder, & Brashears, 2016). Leadership learners cannot solve world problems if they are not taught how to identify those problems – through this new lens of agency, there is hope that future leaders will be better equipped to see through the counter-realities that exist in our world and resolve the problems that allow them to exist.

Agency can be defined as a temporally embedded process of social engagement, informed by the past (in its habitual aspect), but also oriented toward the future (as a capacity to imagine alternative possibilities) and toward the present (as a capacity to contextualize past habits and future projects within the contingencies of the moment) (Emirbayer & Mische, 1998). Through an understanding of the way in which actors bring their past experiences and future orientations to bear on the present situation, students will develop the practical-evaluative dimension of agency that is necessary to adapt to a particular situation (Biesta & Tedder, 2006). Through the development of agency, students have the potential to develop a heightened awareness and understanding of the context that surrounds the complex issues that face our world. With this new understanding, students will be better equipped to ask incisive questions that allow them to answer the question of how to solve these issues.

Counter-reality can be understood as falsehood created by an accumulation of alternative facts and their related biases, prejudices, and the omissions of verified facts. There is so much in the world that we do not yet know, do not yet understand, and have not yet discovered. The most impactful leaders of the future will not only seek to solve the problems we have already discovered – they will seek to find new problems that need to be solved, and that pursuit will be empowered by the skill of utilizing agency to incisively question reality in order to discover the counter-realities that often plague society.

Agency, therefore, can also be viewed as an analytical category in its own right – with distinctive theoretical dimensions and temporally variable social manifestations (Emirbayer & Mische, 1998). The development of agency combined with the critical development of incisive questioning of counter-realities can spur a new perspective in leadership learners that enhances their ability to find, understand, and address complex issues.

Literature Review

Agency

Individuals practice agency in choosing problems they will engage in, and do so with different degrees of engagement, and this has implications for what is changed or learned through their engagement (Eteläpelto, A., Vähäsantanen, K., Hökkä, P., & Paloniemi, S., 2013). Therefore, when students employ agency to understand the challenges they face, it empowers them to develop a deeper sense of engagement with the problems they aim to solve. Participation and learning are in this way linked ontogenetically to individuals' subjectivities and identities. Individual accounts of learning emphasize the individual's role as an actor who will decide what problems are worth solving and with what degree of energy (2013). If leadership learners are encouraged to utilize an understanding of the past, gather various perceptions to acquire a well-rounded context of the present, then they will also have an increased foresight for what the current problems are and what future problems are the best immediate. Through the collection of credible facts and data, it can be deduced that these gained perspectives will inspire leaders to different degrees of effort, resulting in the most attention being directed towards the issues perceived as the most threatening.

Students not only gain perspective through agency – they will develop self-efficacy, or the confidence in one's understand of their own abilities. Weak self-efficacy is closely related to low agency, and conversely, high self-efficacy is connected to active agency, understood as the exertion of intentional influence on one's life and circumstances of living (2013). Therefore, if leadership educators improve students' abilities to utilize agency to survey the world around them and encourage them to ask questions to further understand the problems they discover, not only will their perspectives expand, but their confidence to solve those problems will increase as their abilities do.

The Critical Nature of Agency Based in Credible Knowledge for Leadership Learners

People are generally thought to be effective in pursuing their goals, particularly when they have incentives and opportunities to learn from experience. It seems reasonable, then, to describe choice as a maximization process (Tversky, & Kahneman, 1986). Optimal decisions increase the chances of survival in a competitive environment, and a minority of rational individuals can sometimes impose rationality on the whole market (1986). From this it can be deduced that leadership learners need to develop their sense of rationality in order to increase their chances of effectively pursuing their goals – such as creating solutions to world problems. The necessity of improved rationality and critical thinking when evaluating issues arises from the atrocities that can occur when decisions are made in error. For example, a leader's actions may not always have a foreseeable result, and they may have to willingly engage in risk with optimism for improving the current situation of their organization. Decision making coupled with risk can be viewed as a choice between prospects or gambles (Kahneman, & Tversky, 1979). "Risky choices, such as whether or not to take an umbrella and whether or not to go to war, are made without advance knowledge of their consequences. Because the consequences of such actions depend on uncertain events such as the weather or the opponent's resolve, the choice to act may

be construed as the acceptance of a gamble that can yield various outcomes with different probabilities (Kahneman, & Tversky, 1984). Logically then, leaders should have a profound understanding of the past, context of current issues, and foresight of future problems before "accepting" a risk.

It is not enough for a leader to simply choose between a sure loss and a substantial probability of a larger loss based on their perceptions (Tversky, & Kahneman, 1992). That would be considered risk seeking behavior. Leadership learners must be taught that there is no substitution for the facts and knowledge in reputable resources. How learners think about those facts are framed by the questions that are asked about them. Therefore, if learners are taught how to ask incisive questions, then the way that they frame questions about facts and alternative facts will be shifted to extend beyond their current perceptions. Expanding perceptions, ultimately will allow leaders to think about the complexity of the challenges they face as a whole and address them creatively.

Counter-Reality

The decisions we make, the conclusions we reach, and the explanations we offer are usually based on our judgments of the likelihood of uncertain events. Perhaps the most general conclusion, obtained from numerous investigations, is that people do not follow the principles of probability theory in judging the likelihood of uncertain events (Kahneman, & Tversky, 1972). The problem that runs with the risk of relying on our own judgement is that leaders do not always take research and credible facts into account and simply rely on their personal experiences and beliefs. Consequently, intuitive predictions are insensitive to the reliability of the evidence or to the prior probability of the outcome, in violation of the logic of statistical prediction (Kahneman, & Tversky, 1973). This embodies the issue of counter-reality: a state of reality in which falsehoods, biases, and believed truths replace credible facts and knowledge in the decision-making process, which leads to most important decisions being based on beliefs concerning the likelihood of uncertain events (Tversky, & Kahneman,1975). This is because people rely on a limited number of heuristic principles by which they reduce the complex tasks of assessing likelihoods and predicting values to simpler judgmental operations. In general, these heuristics are quite useful, but sometimes they lead to severe and systematic errors (Tversky, & Kahneman, 1975). Therefore, an unaware leadership learner may be led to believe in counter-realities if they are not taught how to make rational decisions without limiting the complexity of the issue. If leaders do not develop this ability to take all perspectives into account instead of limiting their perspectives when making decisions, then it is proposed that when faced with the difficult task of judging probability or frequency, people employ a limited number of heuristics which reduce these judgments to simpler ones (Tversky, & Kahneman, 1973). More concisely, if complex issues are reduced to simple problems and are then met with simple solutions, the entirety of the original problem will still not be resolved.

Most of our lives are spent in a default mood, all the decisions that are required are supplied by habits, once in a while there is an emergency, the senses realize it quickly and the fast thinking supplies an automated and instant response which in most cases is fully adequate. In this sense, we do not depart from animals in general. However, our fast thinking is not always appropriate, and then the slow thinking takes over, but only reluctantly so, as it is always associated with a

large effort (and, one surmises, depletion of energy). If a ready answer is supplied it often takes an effort to question it (Kahneman, 2011). This description of how thinking "fast" and "slow" may lead to ready answers explains why many leaders need to be taught how to most effectively employ their efforts and question their answers' validity. One way in which leadership learners can acquire this ability is through an understanding of how to incisively question the world by comparing untrue limiting assumptions to true liberating assumptions. "Our thinking, feeling, decision-making and action are driven by assumptions. The good ideas and feelings come from true liberating assumptions. The bad ones come from untrue limiting assumptions. For example, an untrue limiting assumption might be "I am a victim of time pressure". A liberating true alternative assumption would then be "I have a choice about how I spend my time". Therefore, the incisive question that can be asked is: "if you knew that you have choice…how would you restructure your time?" (Kline, 1999). Being able to answer these questions may shift learners' perspectives and facilitate a higher awareness that improves their abilities to make decisions, especially when operating under risk.

Lesson Plan

This workshop creates an innovative opportunity, as students and leadership education faculty from the [insert context] and the [insert program] demonstrate the innovative praxis that creates reciprocal learning, dispenses counter-reality and build agency and adaptive leadership capacity within interdisciplinary undergraduate leadership learners.

This interactive workshop demonstrates the power of using innovative teaching methodologies grounded in the behavioral economic ideologies of Tversky and Kahneman for the purposes of shifting perspectives and changing behaviors of leadership learners. Through the purposive facilitation of the psychologically constructed leadership learning contexts, participants in this workshop will develop perspectives for how to build complex adaptive leadership capacity and agency in leadership learners, develop sustainable solutions for global stakeholders within leadership learning contexts, and gain perspective for the impact that these leadership learning contexts have on leadership learners. Participants will also learn the process for replicating this powerful education opportunity with their learners in higher education settings and beyond.

As a result of this workshop participants will:
1) Experience and develop an understanding for the development of leadership learning contexts aimed at shifting leadership learners' attitudes and behaviors
2) Understand the theoretical framework and contextual application of behavioral economics as an underpinning for effectively facilitating the development of complex adaptive problem solvers and agency via leadership learning contexts
3) Gain perspectives for building adaptive leadership capacity and agency in leadership learners in the face of counter-reality

The power of the learning experience engages several critical approaches, the FACE Method (Stedman & Andenoro, 2015), decision-framing (Kahneman & Tversky, 1984), the psychology of prediction (Kahneman & Tversky, 1973), and incisive question (Kline, 1999) in a multi-step approach grounded in the psychology of choice and the attitudes and cognitive schemas that produce good decisions. This process is outlined in the following learning stages:

Stage 1 – Exposure: The [insert program] at [insert context] creates opportunities for students in an interdisciplinary undergraduate course that unpacks the ambiguity of global crises and considerations to explore and address global issues as "experts" replete with the knowledge, skills, and capacities capable of developing sustainable solutions. Students in the leadership learning context listen to content experts, review articles, and solicit perspectives from outside sources about the issues. Consistent with the work of Kahneman & Tversky (1973), the first stage effectively sets the foundation for synthesizing large amounts of data and applying them within the decision-making process.

Stage 2 – Foundational Awareness: This is the first reflection point in establishing Emotionally Engaged Thinking and the development of complex adaptive leadership capacity and agency. The goal during this phase is for the learner to become aware of his or her emotions related to the ambiguity and competing counter-reality present in the issue or context. Using basic prompts, individuals are asked to consider personal implications of a problem. During this second stage, individuals develop an authentic relationship with the problem, understand its application to current contexts, and broad societal implications. This leads to application within similar contexts and is integral in socially constructing frameworks, which set the foundation for learners to progress to the next stage. Through this process individuals develop awareness for contextual factors, the schema at play within the context, and what moral conflicts or dilemmas may arise as the schema progresses within the context.

Stage 3 – Authentic Engagement: This idea is grounded in one's ability to truly empathize with the problem and the individuals affected. Authentic engagement relates to how the learner sees him or herself in the scenario. It connects with the learner with the problem, asking what the learner's role or obligation is with respect to the problem. This elicits an emotional response based upon the perceived situation and expectations for the situation. In an effort to best decide how to approach the situation, the learner must address how he or she feels about the problem. It provides a level of authenticity by being present in the moment. Key behaviors of authentic engagement include attentive listening, productive dialogue, and reflective thought.

Stage 4 – Connective Analysis: This stages gives holistic meaning to the experience or problem. The individual has now embraced an emotional tie to the problem, has fully engaged with experience, and now must relate this experience to others. Through Connective Analysis, systems thinking reveals how the learner's perspectives can be synthesized with other contextual perspectives creating a more holistic picture of the situation. During this phase, learners explore counter ideas, emotions, and reactions within the same experience or problem. The systems understanding stemming from this stage provides a connection to others while taking new possibilities into account within the scope of their context. The increased perspective allows for a more holistic view of the context and problem, setting the foundation for adaptive solution building and by association, predisposing the learners to practicing adaptive leadership (Heifetz, Grashow, & Linsky, 2009).

Stage 5 – Empowerment & Change: This phase moves participants from the development of progressive attitudes to the accompanying behaviors. Behaviors stemming from this step form the foundation for influencing others and building large-scale organizational and community

change. Further, it assists the learner in challenging the status quo and foreseeing potential outcomes if the new possibilities are implemented (Odom, Andenoro, Sandlin, & Jones, 2015)

This innovative approach coupled with this partnership has powerful implications for leadership learners. It validates the fundamental obligations of modern universities to intentionally influence the moral thinking and action of the next generation of leaders and citizens (Whiteley, 2000), has the potential to be a catalyst for enhanced organizational practice and community sustainability (Odom, Andenoro, Sandlin, & Jones, 2015), and creates the impetus for influencing sustainable change and creating solutions for the complex adaptive challenges that exist within our ever-changing world.

Discussion Outcomes & Workshop Implications

To date, findings regarding the impact of EET have indicated that there is tremendous benefit to learners engaging in environments using these methods (Andenoro, Bigham, & Balser, 2014). Specifically, findings illustrate that learners show elevated levels of adaptive leadership capacity (inclusive of self-awareness, intercultural competence, desire for and understanding of collaboration, effective communication, and internal locus of control), systems thinking, and socially responsible agency (2014). However, when these are joined within the innovative experiential learning aimed at instilling process-based confidence and expertise in interdisciplinary students, a tremendous educational environment with significant implications for addressing complex problems emerges.

Preliminary qualitative findings collected through informal ethnography and content analyses (Erlandson, Harris, Skipper, & Allen, 1993) and analyzed through cursory constant comparative analyses (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) indicate that interdisciplinary undergraduate leaners are demonstrating depth of thought, increased levels of awareness, the ability to foreshadow potential complex consequences of their decisions, and improved agency for addressing and mitigating complex adaptive situations.

Through this innovative approach, leadership educators can go beyond the traditional educational methods of teaching about complex problems to create critical affective shifts and behavioral changes in leadership learners. The approach serves as a powerful tool, equipping leadership learners with the capacities and dispositions to make decisions that increase sustainability of our organizations, supplement inclusive community development, and create opportunities for a more socially just society. This innovative approach creates the foundation for learners to be the stewards of a better future and create the foundation for the development of adaptive leadership capacity, agency, and sustainable solutions that have far reaching implications for our world.

References

Andenoro, A. C., Bigham, D. L., Balser, T. C. (2014, July). Addressing global crisis: Using authentic audiences and challenges to develop adaptive leadership and socially responsible agency in leadership learners. *Proceedings of the Association of Leadership Educators*, San Antonio, TX.

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

Balser, T. C., Andenoro, A. C., & Bigham, D. L. (2014, February). *Humanity's 2050 challenge: Using authentic challenge and audience to promote social responsibility*. Poster session presentation at the Lilly Conference on College and University Teaching and Learning: Evidence Based Teaching and Learning. Newport Beach, CA.

Biesta, G., & Tedder, M. (2006). How is agency possible? Towards an ecological understanding of agency-as-achievement. *Learning lives: Learning, identity, and agency in the life course*.

Emirbayer, M., & Mische, A. (1998). What is agency? 1. *American journal of sociology*, *103*(4), 962-1023.

Erlandson, D. A., Harris, E. L., Skipper, B. L., & Allen, S. D. (1993). *Doing naturalistic inquiry: A guide to methods*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.

Eteläpelto, A., Vähäsantanen, K., Hökkä, P., & Paloniemi, S. (2013). What is agency? Conceptualizing professional agency at work. *Educational Research Review*, *10*, 45-65.

Glaser, B. G., & Strauss, A. L. (1967). *The discovery of grounded theory*. Hawthorne, NY: Aldine.

Heifetz, R. A., Grashow, A., & Linsky, M. (2009). *The practice of adaptive leadership: Tools and tactics for changing your organization and the world*. Harvard Business Press.

Kahneman, D. (1973). *Attention and effort* (p. 246). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Kahneman, D. (2011). *Thinking, fast and slow*. London, UK: Macmillan.

Kahneman, D., & Tversky, A. (1972). Subjective probability: A judgment of representativeness. In *The concept of probability in psychological experiments* (pp. 25-48). Springer Netherlands.

Kahneman, D., & Tversky, A. (1973). On the psychology of prediction. *Psychological review*, *80*(4), 237.

Kahneman, D., & Tversky, A. (1979). Prospect theory: An analysis of decision under risk. *Econometrica: Journal of the econometric society*, 263-291.

Kahneman, D., & Tversky, A. (1984). Choices, values, and frames. *American psychologist*, *39*(4), 341.

Kline, N. (1999). *Time to think: Listening to ignite the human mind*. London, UK: Ward Lock, Cassell Illustrated.

Mongin, P., & Cozic, M. (2017). Rethinking Nudge: Not One But Three Concepts.

Odom, S. F., Andenoro, A. C., Sandlin, M. R., Jones J. L. (2015). Undergraduate leadership students' self-perceived level of moral imagination: An innovative foundation for morality-based leadership curricula. *Journal of Leadership Education, 14*(2), 129-145.

Roberts, T. G., Harder, A., & Brashears, M. T. (2016). American Association for Agricultural Education national research agenda: 2016-2020. *Gainesville, FL: Department of Agricultural Education and Communication*.

Stedman, N. L. P. & Andenoro, A. C. (2015). Emotionally engaged leadership: Shifting paradigms and creating adaptive solutions for 2050. In M. J. Sowcik, A. C. Andenoro, M. Mcnutt, & S. Murphy (Eds.), *Leadership 2050: Contextualizing Global Leadership Processes for the Future* (p. 147-159). Bingley, West Yorkshire, UK: Emerald Group Publishing.

Tversky, A., & Kahneman, D. (1973). Availability: A heuristic for judging frequency and probability. *Cognitive psychology*, *5*(2), 207-232.

Tversky, A., & Kahneman, D. (1975). Judgment under uncertainty: Heuristics and biases. In *Utility, probability, and human decision making* (pp. 141-162). Springer Netherlands.

Tversky, A., & Kahneman, D. (1986). Rational choice and the framing of decisions. *Journal of business*, S251-S278.

Tversky, A., & Kahneman, D. (1992). Advances in prospect theory: Cumulative representation of uncertainty. *Journal of Risk and uncertainty*, *5*(4), 297-323.

Whiteley, J. (2000). Exploring moral action in the context of the dilemmas of young adulthood. *Analytic Teaching*, *20*(1).

Crucial Conversations: Facilitating Dialogue in Turbulent Times

Susan Luchey
University of Delaware

Barbara Altman
Texas A&M University – Central Texas

Abstract

In a world of 24/7 news and responses triggered by social media, emotions and experiences, we are often afraid to express our opinions due to anticipated response. This workshop teaches how to empower students to facilitate a program called Crucial Conversations by guiding participants to explore their own values and implicit biases around current issues in order to learn how to respectfully engage in both conversation and action. Participants will learn how to design this series for their campus leadership programs and then experience a crucial conversation together, learning how to facilitate a discussion that moves from examination of evidence to how the topic resonates with or against each individual's personal beliefs. Experiences at two universities with this program or a similar one will be shared by panel members.

Introduction

We are currently seeing play out in society what history has taught us: that the root cause of many problems can be found in how people behave when others disagree with them about high impact, important and emotional issues (Patterson, Grenny, McMillan & Switzler, 2011). The recent election cycle and results have shown our nation to be more divided than ever, and as educators we often see our students struggle to not only share their viewpoints in a civil manner, but also to aim to understand the divergent views of others. Institutions of higher education are known as bastions of liberalism where intellectual diversity is often hard to find (Kristof, 2016). Conservative students, faculty and staff on many campuses feel devalued and strapped with negative labels, and consequently silenced. Alternatively, at some conservative colleges, especially in the south, the opposite is true. Social media has been fed with comments and accusations and "unfriending" those whose views are different. So much for acceptance of difference.

As leadership educators, we have an opportunity to teach our students how to engage in and lead these crucial conversations that allow participants to share their opinions through their personal stories and create a safe space that aims to understand and accept. At (2 institutions), a Crucial Conversation series has been launched, one for students and one for faculty and staff. Faculty members and or student affairs professionals from these institutions tell different stories about who/what has happened in this tense environment and while the stories differ in terms of who is "silenced" and who is the majority, the struggles of acceptance and promoting civil discourse are the same. A significant goal of both programs is to train facilitators to create safe and welcoming environments in order for these conversations to exist. At (institution 1) the program has been successfully run with students facilitating student conversations for two years on topics like "Halloween costumes: fun or offensive", "Do Black Lives Matter More", "Genetic

Engineering", "Privatizing Prisons", Social Media and Mental Health issues on College Campuses", " What about Donald Trump?", "Privilege: horizontal or white; it's still privilege" . At (institution 2), the faculty/staff Diversity Council has sponsored student gatherings to promote alternative viewpoints and understanding. At both institutions there is a current plan to develop these programs for faculty and staff members as well. As faculty and staff, it is essential that we role model the importance and manner of these conversations with our students, so practicing them in a safe space is just as important for us in order to gain a sense of comfort with being uncomfortable.

The roundtable series at (institution 1), has had significant success over the past two years. It was started as a result of some tension on campus surrounding the beginnings of the Black Lives Matter movement, and has now grown into a bi-weekly series facilitated by a team of undergraduate students in the leadership program. The Department of Residence Life and Housing has recently requested that these student facilitators coordinate some Crucial Conversations in freshman residence halls as a way to build community, so the program is growing. Participants who attend this workshop will learn the basics of the program design, how to facilitate and how to empower student facilitators through training and practice. The workshop will include an actual Crucial Conversation on a current topic, with participants having the opportunity to facilitate portions of the conversation.

Review of Related Scholarship

A variety of sources have informed the design and implementation of the Crucial Conversation series. Crucial Conversations: Tools for Talking When Stakes are High (Patterson, Grenny, McMillan, Switzer, 2011) provided some ground rules regarding the importance of sharing personal stories as rationale for our emotions. Stories allow us to explain our fears, our values, and our honest experiences. Ultimately, they help pave the road to understanding, so they are an important component of Crucial Conversations. A keynote presentation by Dr. Jamie Washington on Conversations Around Social Justice (LEAD365, 2016) defines key frameworks and concepts for understanding diversity dynamics and for steps that move us from awareness to action. Kouzes and Posner's Five Exemplary Practices of Leadership (1987) provide a model framework of behaviors that tie this series to leadership development. In addition, the Social Change Model (HERI, 1997) places value on Consciousness of Self, Congruence, Communication, Common Purpose, Controversy with Civility, Collaboration and Citizenship which provide skills and competencies in a theoretical framework that strengthens this connection to leadership education. A plethora of recent news articles, op-eds, and blogs have addressed the lack of civility, acceptance and understanding that has been pervasive in our country and especially on college campuses since the start of last year's election cycle. There is a concentrated effort on many campuses to teach students the difference between discussions, debate and dialogue so that effective communication and reflection can take place (Huang-Nissan, 1999) and (Kachwaha, 2002). This series aims to do that in an experiential way.

Lesson Plan Description

Learning Outcomes:

1. Participants will learn how to build a learning environment around sensitive or controversial issues.
2. Participants will recognize the importance of process and story in conversation and idea formation.
3. Participants will understand and have the opportunity to demonstrate how to deepen the level of authentic conversation and engagement about difference.
4. Participants will learn the keys of facilitation.
5. Participants will understand the leadership frameworks integrated into a Crucial Conversation series.
6. Participants will understand that prompts and sources can determine the direction and tenor of the conversations.
7. Participants will be able to implement a Crucial Conversation series back on their home campuses.

Introduction: A TED Talk: How to Have Better Political Conversations by Rob Willer (2016 TED.com), will be shared as a way to introduce the topic. Panel members will share the experiences at their institutions, where political dynamics are strikingly difference, yet the challenges to civil discourse are the same. Participants will be asked to identify the hot button topics on their campuses among students, faculty and staff.

Information will be shared on both Kouzes and Posner's Leadership Challenge model and the Social Change Model of Leadership as a means of providing a framework of leadership development theory within which to design and teach the Crucial Conversation series. Model the Way, Challenge the Process and Enable Others to Act are the specific practices that most relate to this activity from the Leadership Challenge. Controversy with Civility, Common Purpose, Congruence and Community are the tenants from the SCM that best apply. Each of these principles will be briefly described as they relate to the program.

The goal of Crucial Conversations is to engage students in conversation around topics of current debate and difference in an effort to increase understanding, comfort level and knowledge, as well as to strengthen community on campus. The goal is NOT to change anyone's mind or to promote a specific agenda as "right" or "wrong", but rather to share and seek to understand and work towards acceptance.

Key teaching points for facilitation will be presented:
- The difference between dialogue, discussion and debate: participants in the workshop will be asked to identify characteristics of each in small groups.
- Benefits of being a student facilitator or a faculty/staff facilitator
- Challenges for facilitation
- What to look out for as a facilitator
- Creating a safe space
- How to get everyone involved
- Communication skills employed
- Selecting prompts for the conversation
- Discussing the value of different source material (Fox & CNN; Buzz Feed and Facebook) students typically use versus some they should consider using

The second part of the workshop will be to actually engage in a crucial conversation around a current topic. An undergraduate student from (institution 1) will offer a prompt and then facilitate a sample Crucial Conversation. Using the Socratic Method, half the group will engage in the conversation and the other half will observe and offer feedback on the facilitation. The student facilitator will intentionally do things right and wrong in order to offer an opportunity for observers to identify good and bad techniques. Using the principles of leadership theory, participants will then be asked to identify how leadership lessons emerged from the conversation. The final portion of the workshop will be for Q and A.

Discussion of Outcomes/Results

At (institution 1), the Crucial Conversations series has been ongoing since the fall 2015 semester, averaging two sessions per month with approximately 12 students per session. At the end of the year, students participating in the (name) Leadership Program must present a reflection poster on their own personal leadership journey and growth. Many of the students reference the Crucial Conversations as a transformational experience in their growth towards accepting and appreciating difference. Because of the experiential nature of the program, students are also more clearly gaining understanding of the two major leadership models used as a framework. They are seeing the principles in practice within the context of the conversations around these real issues. The series' popularity with students has spilled over to the Division of Student Life at (the institution) as the professional staff is now engaged in its own series, tied specifically to issues of social justice. At (institution 2) workshops are in planning stages to train faculty on Crucial Conversations or "Difficult Dialogs"; the experience of training faculty will be shared as part of the panel.

Workshop Plan and Implications

See lesson plan above. Workshop participants will be enabled to conduct faculty, staff or student dialog sessions are a result of this training and the related resource materials that will be available at the conference presentation.

References

Higher Education Research Institute. (1997). The Social Change Model of Leadership. Jossey-Bass.

Kachwaha, T. (2002) & Nissan, H. (1999). Consultant Trainers Southwest.

Kouzes, J. & Posner, B. (2007). The Leadership Challenge (4th ed.). Jossey-Bass.

Kristof, N. (December 10, 2016). The Dangers of Echo Chambers on Campus. The New York Times. Op-ed.

Patterson, K., Grenny, J., McMillan, R., Switzler, A. (2011). Crucial Conversations: Tools for Talking When Stakes are High. McGraw Hill.

Washington, J. (2016). Conversations around Social Justice. LEAD365 National Student Leadership Conference. Orlando, Florida.

Willer, R. (2016) How to Have Better Political Conversations. TED.com

Cultivating the Intentional Use of Art as Leadership Pedagogy: Mixing Music and Media

Daniel Jenkins
University of Southern Maine

Amanda Cutchens
University of South Florida

Abstract

This educator workshop showcases experiential art-based instructional strategies to demonstrate the wide uses of art as a tool to teach leadership concepts. In this session, experienced leadership educators will explain the intentionality and learning outcomes associated with and model activities for delivering this content to leadership studies students. Specifically, facilitators will demonstrate constructivist (a view that learning is an active process in which learners construct their own understanding and knowledge of the world through action and reflection) and interpretivist (a view that learning comes from the form and content of works that are ultimate arbiters of meaning rather than the relative knowledge learners bring) activities. Participants should expect a fun, creative, and lighthearted atmosphere and be ready to get involved in the action.

Introduction

The use of art in leadership education is on the rise. Whether through integration (Sutherland, 2012) or intervention (Romanowska, Larsson, & Theorell, 2013), creation (e.g., Wicks & Rippin, 2010) or interpretation (e.g., Purg & Walravens, 2015), infusing art-based pedagogy in leadership studies has many practical and intentional applications (Springborg, 2010). The purpose of this educator workshop is to demonstrate how art can be used in the classroom--in both constructivist (a view that learning is an active process in which learners construct their own understanding and knowledge of the world through action and reflection) and interpretivist (a view that learning comes from the form and content of works that are ultimate arbiters of meaning rather than the relative knowledge learners bring) viewpoints--to intentionally meet leadership learning outcomes and objectives.

Review of the Literature

Art-based leadership education is present in a variety of applications ranging from integration (Sutherland, 2012) and intervention (Romanowska, Larsson, & Theorell, 2013) to creation (e.g., Wicks & Rippin, 2010) and interpretation (e.g., Purg & Walravens, 2015), utilizing music (e.g., Emiliani & Emiliani, 2012), literature (e.g., Loughman & Finley, 2010), and theater (Soumerai & Mazer, 2006) as well as many other art forms. One of the chief perspectives found in the literature purports the application of leadership *as* art. Springborg (2010) offers the following definition from his experiences of working with art and leadership: "Art is an arrangement of conditions intended to make us perceive some part of the world more directly through our senses – and less through our concepts and ideas about this part of the world" (p. 245). Springborg (2010) further explains that through their aesthetic function of art, it "puts us in a situation where

we get the chance to examine our felt sense of some part of our experience (p. 245). This is facilitated, "through arranging elements belonging to the medium specific for the art form to which the artwork belongs," (Springborg, 2010, p. 245) and, that this arrangement wakes us up. For example, the arrangements may be surprising, intriguing, provocative, aesthetically pleasing, or in some other way capture our attention and place it in our senses. This, in turn, provides us with new information about an element of our experience such as information about how we perceive it; and, this new information may, like Kolb's (1984) "Experiential Learning Cycle," change our concepts about the respective element of our experience. Accordingly, this review will explore evidence of experiential arts-based practices from the literature and compare examples and learning outcomes from constructivist and constructivist-interpretivist applications of art in leadership education.

Experiential Arts-based Leadership Education

The art experience has been documented as influential on participants' leadership development. To illustrate this phenomenon, Rodgers, Bradley, and Ward (2010) drew from their experiences as both students and teachers of art to describe how participation in the arts (both visual and performing) can offer fertile ground for developing leadership. They argue that, "Conductors, directors, painters, sculptors, and other artists must begin to view themselves as leaders, and they must pass these leadership qualities along to others as well" (Rodgers, Bradley, & Ward, 2010, p. 91). Accordingly, each author shares a personal story that associates leadership and the arts: (a) The Musical Experience: Learning to Listen; (b) The Theatrical Experience: Learning to Direct; and (c) The Painterly Experience: Learning Audacity. In their narratives, they attribute the arts as leadership cultivators and argue that musical, theatrical, and other artistic endeavors contribute the following leadership characteristics and principles to leadership education: (a) a Creative Environment; (b) Collaboration and Continuous Evaluation; (c) Multitasking and Adaptability; (d) Audacity and the Ability to Perform; (e) Self-Discipline, Self-Authorship, and Self-Reflection; and (f) Vulnerability. Accordingly, Rodgers, Bradley, and Ward (2010) contend:

When the arts are undertaken deliberately, they offer training in the 'art' of leadership. All artists are leaders, and all leaders are artists. By adopting and cultivating methods of creative leadership such as collaboration and evaluation, adaptability and audacity, those who operate in an environment where both the problem and the solution are complex and obscure will be better equipped to face the challenges of leadership and help others translate aspirations into reality. (p. 96)

Thus, art as leadership is equally about the experience of creating or being a part of its creation or making sense out of the experience and its aesthetic properties. Likewise, the use of the arts to trigger, engage, and enable deeper levels of understanding self and others may be the necessary foundation for more complex discovery, analysis, and decision making. Leaders can perform with greater clarity and be more confident in taking principled action grounded in their values through heightened identity awareness and adaptability, and by enhancing their leadership meta-competencies (McCarthy, O'Connell, & Hall, 2005) in using the arts as a platform and vehicle for discovery and learning. Per Max De Pree (1987), leadership is an art. Arguably, leaders today need to truly be artisans who see the world not only as it is but as it could be. To echo McCarthy (2015): "We are hopeful that the continued integration of the arts in leadership

studies will bring tone, depth, color, texture, and form to shaping holistic, self-aware, and adaptable leaders who will meet the challenge with dignity, grace, empathy, and beauty" (p. 31). Equally, integrating the arts into leadership studies can be a productive and meaningful way to open and expand mind-sets, stimulate creativity, and bring broader perspectives on human behavior, and thus better prepare our learners for their current and future leadership challenges (McCarthy, 2015). Many institutions and organizations have recognized the critical need for the arts to spark innovation, re-conceptualize leadership, and bring hope toward the challenge of leading positive change in our world (Adler, 2006).

Constructivist and Constructivist-Interpretivist Applications of Art as Leadership Pedagogy

A clear distinction between constructivist and constructivist-interpretivist pedagogies emerged from the literature related to arts-based leadership education. In the constructivist realm, for example, students may be asked to "create a metaphor that describes their beliefs about leadership" (Owen, Komives, Lucas, & McMahon, 2007, p. 28) out of tinker toys, Legos, or a flip chart and markers (or other art supplies if preferred). While in the constructivist-interpretivist realm, students may be asked to identify the five bases of power in the Pirates of the Caribbean series (Williams, 2006), interpreting the impact of the art of far-reaching social movements, or associating varied musical pieces to emotional intelligence and work environments (Lynn, 2002). These two pedagogical viewpoints provide the leadership educator with distinct approaches for integrating the arts in their teaching.

Constructivist. The process of creating or conceiving art as leadership pedagogy relates to constructivist teaching and learning design. According to Gagnon and Collay (2006), the images students have of constructivist teaching are, "memories of teachers who explored what students knew, engaged students in learning, expected students to think for themselves, and supported students as they made meaning of their learning (p. xiv). Such teaching often occurs in performing arts, and those experiences stand out powerfully in memory, moreover, constructivist learning design offers teachers an image of how to organize student learning and thinking that is consistent with this remembered experience (Gagnon & Collay, 2006). Correspondingly, Springborg (2010) attributes the process of conceiving art to sense-making and argues that:

When conceiving a work of art, the artist is engaged in the process of artistic appreciation of his material. He/she is aware of the direct, personal, sensed experience the material provokes or initiates in him/her, and how this experience changes when the material is changed. (p. 248)

You don't see to draw, you draw to see—it's just the same for leadership, you don't learn to lead, you lead to learn (Taylor, 2015). Hence, the arts can teach us to stay with our senses and not know. This idea of leading to learn draws upon a practice of leadership that is being based in exploration or what artists call "being open" (Taylor, 2012, 2015). According to Taylor (2015), a leader that is "open" is a public learner; we see them learning and sharing that learning in real time, and in that way, we can watch them lead to learn. Respectively, the arts provide a balance to the dominance of the analytic approaches to our organizational worlds. There is an old saying that you can only manage what you can measure. The arts can help us to work with what we cannot measure and the way to do that is by leading to learn (Taylor, 2015). Thus, the following

subsections provide examples and related literature of constructivist arts-based pedagogy in leadership education.

Doll making. Wicks and Rippin (2010) invited participants to create leadership touchstones, or dolls, as a way of learning about leadership and themselves as leaders. Drawing from therapeutic and psychoanalytic perspectives, the researcher facilitators found that participants explored the dolls' power to provoke, unsettle, and evoke strong reactions on the part of their makers, and demonstrate how these dynamics played out in our inquiry. Form this doll making experience, the researchers concluded that, like art, leadership, "can most constructively engage with the human condition when it is able to hold, not collapse, our experience of the uncanny, the abject, and the other – including the 'other' within the 'self' – within the complexities of organizational life" (Wicks & Rippin, 2010, p. 261).

Music. Purg and Walravens (2015) piloted an experience where students conducted a choir. Because of their interactions with the chorus singers, participants described becoming more aware of their listening habits, better understanding the importance of right communication, and realizing the importance of an emotional relationship. However, Parish and Koivunen (2014) argue that these workshops (directing a choir) present managers with a variety of contradictory demands, and that the capacity to tolerate contradictions and paradoxes is itself construed as an essential virtue of the 'creative' managerial self. They purport that more research into the paradoxes and double binds encapsulated in the art-and management discourse is needed and that double binds may be paralyzing in some contexts and inspiring in others.

Theater. Theatrical performances have also been used to teach leadership. For example, McCarthy (2015) used live stage plays in a management course to engage students more fully in their own learning and help teach lessons in conflict, power, and leadership Similarly, Soumerai and Mazer (2006) developed theatrical tributes to inspirational historical figures (e.g., Anne Frank, Martin Luther King, Jr., and the Dalai Lama) and had students participate in these productions to learn about the lives of these figures and share their stories with large numbers of their peers. The researchers discovered that students and faculty found the activity to be engaging, provocative, relevant, and valuable (McCarthy & Carr, 2015)

Constructivist-Interpretivist. Willis (1995) (as cited by Tam, 2000) offers an alternative Constructivist-Interpretivist Instructional Design Model with the seven primary constructivist values of collaboration, personal autonomy, generativity, reflectivity, active engagement, personal relevance, and pluralism. This model has the following characteristics: (a) The design process is recursive, non-linear, and sometimes chaotic; (b) Planning is organic, developmental, reflective, and collaborative; (c) Objectives emerge from design and development work; (d) Experts may not exist; (e) Instruction emphasizes learning in meaningful contexts (the goal is personal understanding within meaningful contexts); (f) Formative evaluation is critical; and (g) Subjective data may be the most valuable. To illustrate this model, the following subsections provide examples and related literature of constructivist-interpretivist arts-based pedagogy in leadership education.

Visual Arts. The interpretation of the visual arts can be a powerful leadership pedagogy. In a strategy referred to by Adler (2015) as strategic or aesthetic reflection, leaders use images from

the *Leadership Insight* journal (Adler, 2004, 2010a, 2010b) which includes "paintings and wisdom from many of the world's most insightful leaders" (Adler, 2015, p. 49). Through this process, "executives re-remember the meta-reason that had originally led them to choose this particular profession and industry—to heal people—and thus why the organization had to succeed" (Adler, 2015, p. 49). According to Adler (2015), "Reflecting on the visual imagery of the paintings quickly takes managers beyond the dehydrated language and minimal aspirations of economics, accounting, and finance and allows them to go beyond day-to-day reality and return to possibility" (p. 49). Similarly, Purg and Walravens (2015) found that students who analyzed leadership through the metaphor of visual arts became better observers, realized the power of the metaphor (in speaking), become more aware of their own leadership style through art styles, and could talk about their own style.

Film & Television. Using media clips to demonstrate leadership concepts is a common practice in leadership education (Jenkins, 2014). For example, the Instructor's Guide which accompanies the classic organizational theory text *Reframing Organizations* includes dozens of suggestions and activities that integrate film such as *12 Angry Men* to explore interpersonal and group dynamics, Lord of the Flies and Flight of the Phoenix as examples of group dynamics in crisis situations, and *The Hudsucker Proxy, Margin Call, Moneyball, Office Space, Antz, Modern Times, Disclosure*, *9 to 5*, *Broadcast News, Brazil 97, M*A*S*H, Lean on Me*, and *Wall Street as* diverse portraits of organizations with a wide range of structural concerns (Gallos, 2013). In the same way, Purg and Walravens (2015) used film interpretation to help students become more aware of different leadership styles, reflect on their own style, challenge assumptions about life, management, and leadership, and focus on the ethical and moral issues of management and leadership. Finally, through viewing episodes of the television series, *The Office*, and reflective journaling students could connect the leadership scenarios shown in the episodes to those they may experience in their real life (Wimmer, Meyers, Porter, & Shaw, 2012).

Music. Art may also be used as a framework to better understand leadership concepts. For example, Emiliani and Emiliani (2012) used music as a framework to better explain the concept of Lean leadership to senior managers. Specifically, the researchers associated timing and synchronization of a production systems with that of a symphony and the Lean process and music with takt time (the rate of customer demand). One of their senior managers in their study reported: "To me, it was like looking at a symphony. Everybody knew their instruments and their music. They knew when to come in and when not to come in" (Emiliani & Emiliani, 2012, p. 409). Similarly, takt time relates to the time signature in a music score, which tells musicians the beats per measure (Emiliani & Emiliani, 2012).

Literature. Like film, literature is ripe with examples of which leadership educators can harvest for their courses. For example, Fraiberg (2010) utilized Melville's *Bartelby, the Scrivener* to teach impossibility in business contexts and Loughman and Finley (2010) utilized Beowulf to teach charismatic leadership. Equally, Shushok and Moore, (2010) utilized the "great texts" of literature, philosophy, and politics (e.g., Aristotle, Shakespeare, Austen) to teach ethics, virtue, and deception.

Lesson Plan Description

This educator workshop will demonstrate how varied forms of art can be used as instructional strategies to enhance leadership education. Facilitators will discuss constructivist and constructivist-interpretivist approaches to art-based leadership education, highlight pedagogical examples, and lead participants through two example activities. The following outlines in detail each activity:

I.   Welcome & Introductions

    a. How are you? Where are you from? Why did you come to this session? And, what do you hope to learn?

II.   Comic Activity & Debrief (see Appendix A for instructions and discussion questions)

III.   Examples and Learning Outcomes from Using Art as Leadership Pedagogy

    a. Constructivist Examples & Outcomes

        1. Video Journal Projects (Leadership Theories) – In this group project, students produced a team documentary that demonstrated at least one major leadership theory (e.g., traits, power and influence) from the texts in this class. This project illustrated how leadership theories are applied in real world settings by following student leaders on campus. Because of this activity, students identified their own values and beliefs and reflected on how those values and beliefs affected their role as a leader; learned to observe and utilize emotional intelligence when interacting with other students, role models, and future colleagues; gained an increased appreciation for leadership styles, practices, and potential; and learn to practice continued self-reflection and self-evaluation of their own leadership styles and practices.

        2. Art through Political Cartoons (Survey of Leadership Readings) - As part of a larger semester-long project, students found political cartoons that depicted the leadership displayed during a national, or global historic (or recent) event of interest (e.g., Hurricane Katrina, 9/11). They then wrote a brief explanation (150-300 words) about what the cartoon depicted regarding leadership. Because of this activity, students explored the real-life application (both personal and societal) of perspectives and knowledge related to leadership.

        3. Political Science Character Activity – Students in an American Government class pulled political views out of a hat and drew caricatures that depicted combinations of these views on flipchart paper. Through this activity, students explored political viewpoints in greater depth, examined stereotypes, and challenged their own assumptions.

4. Leadership Theater (Organizational Theory) – In this group project, students conducting a play and presentation that demonstrates one of the four frames from *Reframing Organizations*—structural, human resource, symbolic, or political—that illustrated how the frame is applied in a real-world setting. Student groups creatively formulate a *challenging situation* for a leader and conduct a play that shows how an *effective leader* would act in that situation as well as how the frame the situation occurred in affected the leader's decisions. Through this group project, students synthesized knowledge from across the term and constructed their own meaning through theater.

b. Constructivist-Interpretivist Examples & Outcomes

1. Visual Explorer (Center for Creative Leadership) – The Visual Explorer™ Playing Card set is used to facilitate creative conversations and deep dialogues using a wide variety of images on almost any leadership topic. It consists of 216 playing card-sized images and a Facilitator's Guide. The tool provides a method for supporting collaborative, creative conversations in a wide variety of situations to help develop ideas and insights into useful dialogue (http://solutions.ccl.org/).

2. TV/Movies (e.g., The Office) – Please see "Review of the Literature"

IV.   **Music in the Workplace Activity & Debrief** (see Appendix B for instructions and discussion questions)

V.   **Presentation Q&A**

Discussion of Outcomes/Results

While we haven't collected any quantitative data on the learning outcomes of these techniques, we have offered some qualitative data here. According to McCarthy (2015), the use of literary techniques, such as poems, can engage students more deeply in complex subjects and circumstances to come to a better understanding of the values that guide their decisions. Additionally, live stage plays have been used in management curriculum to help students explore lessons in conflict, power, and leadership (McCarthy, 2015). Using these theories, one of the presenters restructured an online Survey of Leadership Reading course in spring 2016 to include a new textbook that used works of literature and drama to illustrate leadership concepts. Student comments on evaluations from that semester included the following: (a) "The textbook really stimulated my interest in the course. It taught me to think about leadership in different ways." (b) "I really enjoyed the book and creative book report assignment." and (c) "I won't look at theater the same way again."

Following the lead of Emiliani and Emiliani (2012) who used music as a metaphor to teach concepts of Lean leadership, both presenters have used the Music in the Workplace activity in

multiple semesters to teach the concept of Emotional Intelligence. Students reported being able to verbalize the culture they perceived in their organizations by using music as a metaphor. Additionally, by incorporating the idea of playlists (e.g., iTunes, Spotify) and custom stations (e.g., Pandora) students made an association between the culture of their organizations or workplace, mood and morale, and how they might shape their culture. Additionally, using music as a metaphor for organizational culture and process empowered students to share and reflect on personal preferences with respect to musical tastes and how individual differences may shape engagement, vision, and perceptions.

Students often noted this activity when prompted with the question, "Favorite in-class activity or assignment (s)?:" on written in-class instructor evaluations. We are planning to incorporate course evaluations about the use of art in our leadership courses and hope to share the findings of that data at a future conference.

Workshop Plan & Implications

According to McCarthy (2015), integrating the arts into leadership studies contributes to a growth mindset where creativity is encouraged and broader perspectives on human behavior are observed; thus, the use of art as an instructional strategy in leadership can better prepare students for their current and future leadership challenges. Workshop participants will:

- Understand the differences between constructivist and interpretivist art forms
- Understand the utility of varied forms of art as instructional strategies in leadership education
- Employ varied art forms in their instructional strategies
- Participate in demonstrations of art as pedagogy in leadership education

References

Adler, N. J. (2004). Reflective silence: Developing the capacity for meaningful global leadership. In N. A. Boyacigiller, R. A. Goodman, & M. E. Phillips (Eds.), *Crossing cultures: Insights from master teachers* (pp. 201–218). London, England: Routledge.

Adler, N. J. (2006). The arts and leadership: Now that we can do anything, what will we do? *Academy of Management Learning and Education*, *5*(4), 466–499.

Adler, N. J. (2010a). Going beyond the dehydrated language of management: Leadership insight. *Journal of Business Strategy*, *31*(4), 90–99.

Adler, N. J. (2010b). *Leadership insight*. Milton Park, England: Routledge.

De Pree, M. (1987). *Leadership is an art*. East Lansing, MI: Michigan State University Press.

Emiliani, M.L., & Emiliani, M. (2013). Music as a framework to better understand Lean leadership. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal, 34*(5), 407-426.

Fraiberg, A. (2010). Fiction, business studies, and leadership: From know-how to embracing the impossible. *Journal of Leadership Studies, 3*(4), 97-101.

Gagnon, G. W., & Collay, M. (2006). *Constructivist learning design: Key questions for teaching to standards.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Gallos, J. V. (2013). *Using Bolman and Deal's Reframing Organizations fifth edition: An instructor's guide to effective teaching*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Jenkins, D. M. (2015). Comparing instructional and assessment strategy use in graduate and undergraduate-level leadership studies: A global study. *Proceedings of the 2015 Association of Leadership Educators Conference*, 596-617. Retrieved from http://leadershipeducators.org/resources/Documents/2015%20ALE%20Conference%20Proceedings.pdf

Kolb, D. (1984). *Experiential learning: Experience as the source of learning and development.* Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Loughman, T., & Finley, J. (2010). Beowulf and the teaching of leadership. *Journal of Leadership Education, 9*(1), 155-164. Retrieved from http://www.journalofleadershiped.org/attachments/article/163/JOLE_9_1_Loughman_Finley.pdf

Lynn, A. B. (2002). *The emotional intelligence activity book: 50 activities for promoting EQ at work.* New York, NY: HRD Press.

McCarthy, J. F., & Carr, S. D. (2015). Igniting passion and possibilities through the arts: Conflict, collaboration and leadership through live stage performances. *Journal of Leadership Studies, 9*(1), 33-41.

McCarthy, J., O'Connell, D., & Hall, D.T. (2005). Leading beyond tragedy: The balance of personal identity and adaptability. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal, 26*(6), 458-475.

McCarthy, J. F. (2015). Introduction to the symposium on the integration of the arts into leadership studies. *Journal of Leadership Studies, 9*(1), 30-32.

Owen, J. E., Komives, S. R., Lucas, L., & McMahon, T. R. (2007*). Instructor's guide for exploring leadership: For college students who want to make a difference second edition*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Parush, T., & Koivunen, N. (2014). Paradoxes, double binds, and the construction of 'creative' managerial selves in art-based leadership development, *Scandinavian Journal of Management, 30*, 104-113.

Purg, D., & Walravens, A. (2015). Arts and leadership: Vision and practice at the IEDC-BLED school of management. *Journal of Leadership Studies, 9*(1), 42-47.

Rodgers, E., Bradley, C. R., and Ward, S. (2010). Poetic forms of leadership pedagogy: Rediscovering creative leadership through the arts. *Journal of Leadership Studies, 3*(4), 91-96.

Romanowska, J., Larsson, G., & Theorell, T. (2014). An Art-Based Leadership Intervention for Enhancement of Self-Awareness, Humility, and Leader Performance. *Journal of Personnel Psychology, 13*(2), 97-106.

Romanowska, J., Larsson, G., & Theorell, T. (2013). Effects on leaders of an art-based leadership intervention. *Journal of Management Development, 32*(9), 1004 - 1022.

Romanowska, J., Larsson, G., Eriksson, M., Wikstrom, B., Westerlund, H., & Theorell, T. (2011). Health-effects on leaders and co-workers of an art-based leadership development program. *Psychotherapy and Psychosomatics, 80*, 78-87.

Shushok, F., & Moore, S. H. (2010). Reading, study, and discussion of the "Great Texts" of literature, philosophy, and politics as a complement to contemporary leadership education literature. *Journal of Leadership Studies, 3*(4), 71-80.

Soumerai, E. N., & Mazer, R. (2006). Arts-based leadership: Theatrical tributes. *New Directions for Youth Development, 109*, 117-124.

Springborg, C. (2010). Leadership as art -- leaders coming to their senses. *Leadership, 6*(3), 243-258.

Sutherland, I. (2012). Arts-based methods in leadership development: Affording aesthetic workspaces, reflexivity and memories with momentum. *Management Learning, 44*(1), 25-43.

Tam, M. (2000). Constructivism, instructional design, and technology: implications for transforming distance learning. *Educational Technology & Society 3*(2), 51-60.

Taylor, S. S. (2012). *Leadership craft, leadership art*. New York, NY: Palgrave Macmillan.

Taylor, S. S. (2015). Leading to learn. *Journal of Leadership Studies, 9*(1), 52-55.

Wicks, P. G., & Rippin, A. (2010) Art as experience: An inquiry into art and leadership using dolls and doll-making. *Leadership, 6*(3), 259-278.

Williams, J. R. (2006). Pirates and power: What Captain Jack Sparrow, his friends, and his foes can teach us about power bases. *Journal of Leadership Education, 5*(2), 60-68. Retrieved from http://www.journalofleadershiped.org/attachments/article/253/Jole_5_2_Williams.pdf

Willis, J. (1995). Recursive, reflective instructional design model based on constructivist-interpretivist theory. *Educational Technology, 35*(6), 5-23.

Wimmer, G., Meyers, C., Porter, H., & Shaw, M. (2012). Learning vicariously: Students' reflections of the leadership lessons portrayed in *The Office. Journal of Leadership Education, 11*(2), 52-71. Retrieved from http://www.journalofleadershiped.org/attachments/article/91/Wimmer%20Meyers%20Porter%20 _%20Shaw.pdf

Appendix A
Comic Activity

Comic Activity: This activity is intended to be both a primer for discussion and an example of constructivist art as pedagogy. According to Taylor (2015), leadership may be better understood as an art form than a science because it fundamentally changes the perspective. Drawing as art teaches us to see the individual attributes of the piece we are looking at rather than rely on the mental model of it (Taylor, 2015). In the same way, leaders should lead to make sense of the world around them, or, more simply put, learn more about themselves and others. Therefore, participants will be sorted into small groups of 3 – 5 and will choose a topic from three bags labeled Leader, Theory, and Context. Each group will then be given ten minutes to brainstorm and create a comic on flipchart with markers. They will share with group.

Comic Activity Instructions:
 Please choose one topic at random from the three bags – labeled Leader, Theory, and Context – on your table. As a group, you will have five minutes to brainstorm a comic using your three topics. Please feel free to use as much, or as little, humor as you would like in creating your comic. You may create one picture or several, as long as you depict a scene.

You will have five minutes to draw the comic. You have a flipchart and markers at your disposal.

Your group will share with the larger group.

Good luck!

Leader Topics: Real Estate Mogul and CEO of International Business Conglomerate, Office Manager of a Paper Supply Company, Former Actor Turned Government Official, Leader of an Activist Movement, Host of a Famous Talk Show, Star Athlete, Major American Film Producer, Lead Singer of a British Pop Band, Co-Founder of a Major Software Company, The Spiritual and Political Leader of Tibetans

Theory Topics: Path-goal Theory, Adaptive Leadership, Transformational Leadership, Authentic Leadership, Situational Leadership Theory, Servant Leadership, Trait Theory, Ethical Leadership, Transactional Leadership, Reciprocal Leadership

Context/Setting Topics: Football Field, Office Space, Press Conference Room, Stage in Front of a Live Audience, Board Meeting, Steps of a Famous Government Building, Red Carpet, A Mountain Top, A Large Open Field or Park, Coffee Shop
Discussion Questions:

1. What do you think this activity was fundamentally about?
2. If leadership is more of an art than a science, how can leaders learn to apprehend the world as an artist rather than a scientist?
3. Taylor (2015) suggests that when we draw someone's face, we draw our mental model of a face rather than the face we are seeing. In other words, we draw what we remember a

generic eye look like, rather than the eye of the person in front of us. How does this idea relate to how you made sense of your topic? How did that sense-making contribute to your comic?

Appendix B
Music in Your Workplace

Music in Your Workplace: The purpose of this activity is to help participants identify their workplace culture through the metaphor of music. It was adapted from *The Emotional Intelligence Activity Book: 50 Activities for Promoting EQ at Work* (Lynn, 2002). Participants will listen to four clips of music and asked to think about, describe, and record on a worksheet the kind of work/organizational atmosphere that the clip most likely signifies. Discussion and debrief will incorporate the Emotional Intelligence areas of Empathy, Social Expertness, Personal Influence, and Master of Vision.

Discussion Questions:
1. If your workplace were music, what kind of music would it be and why?
2. What music is your organization band playing?
3. What instrument do you play in that band?
4. Are you in tune with the band? In rhythm? Please elaborate.
5. How much influence does the leader have over the workplace music?
6. What can you do to influence the "music" in your workplace?

Music in Your Workplace Worksheet:

Music Clip #1 Describe what it would feel like to work in a place that sounded this way.

_____
_____
_____
_____

Music Clip #2 Describe what it would feel like to work in a place that sounded this way.

_____
_____
_____
_____

Music Clip #3 Describe what it would feel like to work in a place that sounded this way.

_____
_____
_____
_____

Music Clip #4 Describe what it would feel like to work in a place that sounded this way.

_____
_____
_____
_____

If your workplace were music, what kind of music would it be and why? What instrument do you play? Are you in tune? In rhythm?

_____
_____
_____
_____

If you could change the tune of your workplace, would you? What would you change it to?

_____
_____
_____
_____

INNOVATIVE PRACTICE PAPERS

Mindful Leadership and our Future Leaders: Undergraduate course integration to a University Mindfulness and Honors Program
Carolynn Komanski, University of Florida

Finding Sense in a Complex World: Linking Mindfulness and Adaptive Leadership Practices
Christine H. Shaefer, Federal Executive Institute
Gregory T. Gifford, Federal Executive Institute
Robert L. McKeage, University of Scranton

Developing Complex Adaptive Leadership Capacity through Virtual Reality: Extending the Immersive Experience
Anthony C. Andenoro, Matthew Sowcik, & Jocelyn Widmer
University of Florida

Listening and Leading from the Circle
Carolyn D. Roper, PhD & Adrian James, PhD
Purdue University Northwest

The Leader's Communication Tools: A Framework for Teaching Leadership Communication
Cheryl Noel Ross, EdD, Southeastern Bible College

Pushing Students to their Limits: Combining Leadership Theory and Complex Societal Problems in an Infographic Assignment
Laura L. Greenshaw & Carley C. Morrison
Mississippi State University

Teaching Creativity in a Leadership Seminar
Renee Kosiarek, Aurora University

PhotoVoice as a Means of Meaning Making in a Leadership Theory Course
Jackie Bruce, Abigail Whitaker, & Caroline Clement
North Carolina State University

Educating and Developing Principled Leaders: Implementing an Empirical Model of Servant Leadership within a Values-Based, Residential University Community
Benjamin P. Dean, PhD, The Citadel, Charleston, SC

Learning Servant Leadership and Identifying Community-based Strategies in Times of Divide: A Student, Faculty, Community Partner Interfaith Collaboration
Margaret Douglas & Dr. Kristine Hoover
Gonzaga University

Kansas Leadership Studies Summit: Cultivating Collaborative Capacity for the Common Good *2016-17 ALE Mini-Grant Recipient*
Kerry L. Priest, Kansas State University
Clinton M. Stephens, Emporia State University
Brandon W. Kliewer, Kansas State University

Girls on the Run: Practical Movement-based Interventions to Develop Leader Identity in Young Girls
RJ Youngblood, Kansas State University

The Certificate of Social Justice Program *2016-17 ALE Mini-Grant Recipient*
Jackie Bruce, Joy Morgan, Wendy Warner, & Katherine McKee
North Carolina State University

Development of an Interdisciplinary Doctoral Program in Organizational Leadership
Joseph Marchetti, George Sharp, & Pamela Vaughan
Stockton University

Sounds Good, But: Assessing Relational Leadership Teaching
Yael Hellman, Los Angeles County Sheriff's Department

Using Project Based Learning and Communities of Practice to Develop Transformative Leadership for Advocate and Activist Social Identities
Katherine McKee & Jackie Bruce
North Carolina State University

"I Am Different, Not Less:" Temple Grandin and Strengths-Based Leadership Education
Haley Nicole Rosson & Penny Pennington Weeks
Oklahoma State University

Promoting Leadership for Sustainability via "Momentum for Change" Awards Project
Barbara Altman, Texas A&M University – Central Texas

Complementing Responsible Conduct of Research Training: Ethical Leadership Development for PhD Students in STEM
John Lubker, Ethan Fridmanski, & Laura Carlson
University of Notre Dame

A Unique Approach to the Standing Teaching Assistant Program
Anna Capeder & Grace M. LaPrairie
University of Minnesota

Mindful Leadership and our Future Leaders: Undergraduate course integration to a University Mindfulness and Honors Program

Carolynn Komanski
University of Florida

Abstract

In 2014, a collaborative university-wide project was established to bring more mindfulness to a university campus. The interdisciplinary program strives to provide mindfulness to campus community. One way in which mindfulness is being offered on campus to students in Fall 2017, is through the development of a one credit, eight-week, undergraduate Mindful Leadership course. The course is directed to Honors students integrates the history of mindfulness, leadership theory, and practical application of mindful leadership throughout diverse industries.

Introduction

Mindfulness is defined as deliberately paying full attention to what is happening around you and within you (in your body, heart and mind) in the present moment. Mindfulness is awareness without criticism or judgement (Chozen Bays, 2011).

"The paradox of our modern time is that mindfulness is inherently simple, human, and available anytime and anyplace; yet many of us have forgotten about it. In order to bring awareness to this practice, a large land grant university established a mindfulness program. The program aims to reconnect us to ancient truths, by using breath to tame the anxious mind" (Vision, n.d.). The mindfulness program has opened access for all campus community members including faculty, staff and students. The overarching mindfulness program offers events, trainings, group practice, and dialogue in order to create a more mindful campus. The programs Vision (n.d) aims to infuse mindfulness practices in existing courses and curricula, offer new cross-disciplinary short courses, trainings and workshops, and serve as a catalyst sparking mindful moments to create a healthy campus culture. Representatives from numerous colleges and support areas make up the stakeholder and affiliate support groups to drive this campus initiative.

In the modern, fast-paced world mindfulness has become a latent human quality. Disconnected right- and left brains, stress, learning anxiety, and tunnel vision are common in student communities. Mindfulness practices can help to counteract them through suspending, focusing, breath by breath, connecting to the present moment, and aligning mind, body, and spirit. Contemporary life is digital, is fast-paced and busy (Breathe, n.d). We are often too busy doing and not being fully present. When our nervous system is on high alert, or when we are burdened with self-critical thoughts, our working memories function poorly, our creative juices do not flow, and our collaborative capacities are stymied (Rechtschaffen, 2014). Anxiety and stress promote a freeze, flee or fight response and in these disembodied states we are disconnected from our body, mind and spirit which leads to dissatisfaction, experiences of meaninglessness or depression, numbness and an unfulfilled life. McSpaden (2015) notes that the average attention span of a goldfish is nine seconds, whereas a human (today) is now only eight seconds. Demonstrating our ability to be present and focused has been significantly reduced.

"Mindfulness is deliberately paying full attention to what is happening around you and within you (in your body, heart and mind) in the present moment. Mindfulness is awareness without criticism or judgment" (Chozen Bays, 2011). Paying attention in a particular way, on purpose, in the present moment and non-judgmentally (Siegel, 2010; Kabat-Zinn, 1994). The need of focus and be present is ever growing in order to develop the capacity to address today's challenges. There are very few academic models that demonstrate mindful leadership. One of the most emphasized models by Hawkins (2011) explains the difference between charismatic leaders and mindful leaders. Mindful leaders are able to be quiet, reflective, and intentional, whereas charismatic leaders are visionary and have a focus and sensitivity on others rather than themselves. Focusing more on the application of mindful leadership, the Attending, Reflecting, Inquiring, Expressing, and Synthesizing (ARIES) framework by Dunnon (2008) provides tools in order to to apply mindful leadership in the context of our work. These models and the university-wide initiative created an opportunity to implement a course on mindful leadership. The course's foundation is built on the history of mindfulness and leadership theory, then provides practical application through experiential learning. Our collaborative and interdisciplinary approach offers a unique perspective in the design and implementation of the course. The support and culture of the university campus and willingness of the department housing the course provided a means to aid future leaders in gaining experience in mindful leadership.

Review of Related Scholarship

The National Leadership Index revealed that 69 percent of those surveyed believe there is a leadership crisis in the U.S., with politicians, media, finance, and business leaders getting the lowest ratings (Rosenthal, Moore, Montoya, & Maruskin, 2009). In the past two decades, far too many leaders have been selected more for charisma than character, for style over substance, and for image rather than integrity, leading in many cases to failed leadership (Seagal, 1997; Langer, 2014). Authentic leadership seems to be challenged. Northouse (2016) references the idea that authentic leadership is "genuine and 'real'", referring not only to the concept of leadership, but to the actual leader as well.

In a public lecture William W. George (n.d), a Senior Fellow at Harvard Business School wrote:

> Many failed leaders seem to lack an awareness of themselves and their actions. Often they do not have a deep understanding of their motivations, and they have not fully accepted their crucibles – fears and failures emanating from earlier experiences. These characteristics often cause leaders to lose sight of their values, especially when they are under pressure to sustain their success.

By merging the Western understanding of leadership with Eastern practices developed thousands of years ago to increase self-awareness and self-compassion (Gore, 2014), we can successfully create a framework for contemporary mindfulness practice. Mindfulness enables leaders to be fully present, aware of themselves and their impact on other people, and sensitive to their reactions to stressful situations (McCown, Reibel, & Micozzi, 2010). Marturano (2014) states that through the process of becoming more self-aware, leaders learn to accept their weaknesses,

failures, and vulnerabilities, just as they appreciate their strengths and successes. In so doing, they gain compassion for themselves and the ability to relate to the world around them in authentic ways (Marturano, 2014; Perlman, 2015). Williams (2010) and Tuleja (2014) state that mindful leadership will encourage the new generation of authentic leaders to restore trust in their leadership and to build sustainable organizations known for their harmony. Its ultimate goal is to create a more harmonious and peaceful world for all to live in (Tuleja, 2014).

Research conducted with the Institute for Mindful Leadership in 2009 and 2010 indicated that participants in a mindfulness retreat observed positive outcomes on their performance (Perlman, 2015), 80 leaders from 12 organizations were surveyed and reported the following: 93 percent said the training had a positive impact on their ability to create space for innovation; 89 percent said the program enhanced their ability to listen to themselves and others, and nearly 70 percent said the training made a positive difference in their ability to think strategically. Therefore, researchers have begun to establish benchmarks for linking mindfulness practice to improved cognitive functioning. "Informed Mindfulness" connects mindful self-awareness and self-regulation with educated decision making (Langer, 2014). Thus self-awareness needs to be coupled with knowledge, skills, values, and wisdom. We need to know what to do with our awareness once it is developed (Seagal, 1997).

Knowing oneself can aid in addressing the wicked problems of our time. Miller and Page (2007) address this challenge and assert that in order to meet the needs of our future, is it important to understand the complexity and growing needs of our workforce and organizations (Miller & Page, 2007). Leadership is at the core of our organizations as it helps organizations and individuals transform, adapt and even fail. Therefore, having leaders who adapt and change are the leaders which will change the world (Marturano, 2014; Miller & Page, 2007).

Description of the Practice

An instructional design plan was utilized in order to create a one (1) credit hour, eight-week, undergraduate course on Mindful Leadership. Campus stakeholders and content experts were included in the design in order to identify the content needed for the course. The course format was designed as a one-credit hour face-to-face course. The course will takes place one day a week for two hours. Each day was designated as both lecture style with an element of an experiential learning 'lab.' The lab engaged students to actively participate in different forms of mindful leadership activities and practices. These included, but are not limited to, guided meditation, concentration and focus lessons, and breathing and listening practices.

The course begins with the history of mindfulness, then follows with applicable leadership theory as it relates to mindfulness, and concludes with the practical application of mindful leadership within diverse industries. Self-reflection and authentic leadership are at the core of mindful leadership; therefore, reflection is utilized through weekly journal entries. Students also apply critical reflection through discussions peers. Students have two exams in which they are evaluated on their knowledge retention for content knowledge and understanding. There are several projects which the students have the opportunity to apply their knowledge and experience, including a: historical leader paper, leader interview, observation session, creation of a toolkit, and poster presentation.

The students of this course leave the course with content knowledge, skills, tools, and practical application methods in which they can utilize mindful leadership in their future professions.

Learning Principles
Learning is enhanced by the use of a variety of techniques being applied within an academic course.
Self-Reflection, dialogue, and constructive feedback is important for learners to grow and improve.
More concrete, real-life activities enhance learning and the applicability of knowledge in order to transfer.
Student-directed assignments are essential to creating personal buy-in and ownership to improve individual outlooks.
Prior experiences, attitudes, and beliefs influence learning. Understanding and owning this bias impacts learning progression.
Mindfulness is a practice which the student is deliberately paying full attention to what is happening around them and within them. This alters their ability to learn and concentrate.

Essential Questions and Course Objectives:
What is context for mindful leadership?
> Understand terminology, definitions and used of mindfulness and mindful leadership.
> Identify and explain the philosophy and theory which create the foundation for mindfulness, leadership, and mindful leadership.
> Apply context and explain how historical leaders have applied mindful leadership practice.
How is mindful leadership beneficial?
> Define the proven scientific benefits of mindfulness, leadership and mindful leadership.
> Apply how mindful leadership will relate to me or my chosen profession.
What is the practices of mindfulness or mindful leadership?
> Identify resources in which I can use to practice mindful leadership.
> Participate and practice forms of mindfulness in order to understand different techniques.
> Actualization of how authentic leadership and reflection are a part of mindful leadership.
How can mindful leadership be transferrable?
> Design a tool kit which will be utilized to implement the practice mindful leadership into their life or chosen profession.
> Apply how mindful leadership can be used in a professional work environment.
How can I apply mindful leadership?
> Apply mindful leadership practice to provided case scenarios.
> Identify mindful leadership practice through observation and research.
> Develop a plan of action on how I can utilize mindful leadership in my daily living.
> Analyze how mindful leadership can be applied in different aspects of personal and professional life.

Transfer Goals:
Student(s) will be able to do the following upon completion of this course:
> Define terms used in mindful leadership.

Articulate an overview of scientific research on mindfulness impacts on the human body.
Can articulate mindfulness practice of a person through observation or by reviewing a biography of a historical leader.
Identify forms of mindful practice.
List various practices meditation and mindfulness techniques.
Identify their personal preferences for meditation and mindfulness techniques
Create a toolkit for mindfulness practice which could be utilized in a professional work environment

Course objectives:
Describe the philosophy and theory underlying mindfulness and mindful leadership.
Identify resources in which they can use to practice mindful leadership.
Create a tool kit to practice mindful leadership in their profession.
Create a case scenario and apply mindful leadership.
Develop a plan of action to utilize mindful leadership.

Evaluation
Evaluation results are used to determine if the course content was learned, effective, and retained. Depending on the responses, this information can be used to restructure and refine the course content to better meet the needs the students and the stakeholders' objectives, transfer goals, and learning outcomes.

An impact assessment portion will provide information on the economic impact of enrollment information and if there is a benefit to offer this course again. Information regarding advertising the course, course income, and Teaching Assistant/Instructor/Faculty expenditures are able to be reported as well. These are shared with the departments, stakeholders, and college.
This economic impact is utilized to calculate a return on investment for the workshop and to evaluate efficiency.

The combination of this information with the pre/post-test assessments, exams and assignments for the course can be utilized to highlight knowledge gain and potential application of the information of the course through the final project.

Data collected through these various assessment pieces are reported in evaluation packets to the department stakeholders and college. The stakeholders also use this information to publish an article or conduct a study about the application of mindfulness on a collegiate campus.
Instructors will use the course as a platform to present at national conferences for innovative teaching practices.

The report and evaluations are tracked longitudinally assuming the course is a reoccurring course that is being offered routinely.

Discussion of Outcomes/Results

The paradox of our modern time is that mindfulness is inherently simple, human, and available anytime and anyplace; yet many of us have forgotten about it. This project aims to reconnect us

to ancient truths, breath-by-breath taming the anxious mind (Vision, n.d). Students in this course have the opportunity to practice mindful leadership and develop their authentic self. This is evaluated through self- reflection and a pre-post course assessment. Students gain content knowledge of philosophy and leadership theory, identify resources in which they can use to practice mindful leadership, and develop a plan of action on how to utilize mindful leadership. Lastly, they will create and develop a tool kit to practice mindful leadership for their chosen field of study or future industry. Multiple forms of mindful practice and then are able to weave these mindful practices into their authentic leadership.

Guiding future leaders to gain understanding of the history and current contexts of mindful leadership has become more prevalent and mainstream. Through this course, discussion, and practice course participants had the opportunity to gain understanding and share their knowledge.

Reflections of the Practitioner

The idea of this course was derived from the development of a campus mindfulness program established over the last several years. The interdisciplinary team comprised of different university colleges, departments, and disciplines aimed to integrate silos of mindfulness and co-create mindful spaces that facilitate mindful communication and listening. The goal of the collaborative team is to emerge mindfulness in the campus culture.

The goals for the mindfulness program are to (i) infuse mindfulness practices in existing courses and curricula at the university, (ii) offer new cross-disciplinary short courses, trainings and workshops, and (iii) serve as a catalyst sparking mindful moments to create a healthy campus culture.

Working with content experts was valuable and affirming. Support from the greater campus community by having an established program on mindfulness with the goal of integrating mindfulness into curricula and courses was beneficial for development of this course. This provides exponential opportunities for facilitators and resources.

By having an established campus mindfulness program, we have access to populations which may not have been enrolled into the leadership minor. We are able to market and connect with this niche population in order gain diverse interest and enrollment in the course.
A doctoral student who routinely practices mindfulness conducted research on mindful leadership over the course of the semester. As a result of this research, he/she presented a presentation for a final project on mindful leadership, which included the history of mindfulness and the emergent theories related to mindful leadership. The same doctoral student then took an instructional design course, whose course project required the creation of an event, program or course. This graduate student was encouraged and supported to connect with the greater interdisciplinary team to develop a mindful leadership course which would be taught in concert of undergraduate leadership minor for the institution. The course is also open to any student not enrolled in the leadership minor program. This provides an opportunity to generate additional revenue for the host department. If this was a split course the revenue would be split amongst the two or more departments offering the course sections. Having the host department established from the start was beneficial.

Stakeholders, students, and instructional design experts were sought out to identify needs and content delivery preferences. The course was developed to be offered in person with the opportunity for online adaptation in the future after it has been taught several times.

Since the curriculum has been developed, components of this course can be gleaned and repurposed for other trainings and activities within campus community. There are requests to the mindfulness program for sessions and now that there has been additional exposure to the campus population through this course there will continue to be a growing knowledge of mindful leadership. Opportunities also exist to further the reach outside of this campus community (other universities, practitioners, researchers, etc.) which provide an avenue to share, evaluate, and discuss mindful leadership. The needs or challenges with curriculum development and resources can be evaluated in order to expand this area of leadership.

Recommendations

As the pace of life and work changes for our students and future leaders, it is important to take time to reflect and be present and calm. Mindfulness was studied to see its effectiveness on cognition, emotion, and restlessness (Centre for Mindfulness Research and Practice, 2015). Having an understanding of relevant literature, scholarly articles, and news media resources plentiful in describing this every growing need is beneficial for establishing a need.

Utilizing mindfulness as a tool to practice is an opportunity to support the ever growing need within higher education's increasing populations which have anxiety, stress, or depression. Combining mindfulness with self-authorship and authentic leadership education, student are able to focus on who they are as leaders for the future.

Understanding and realizing that these ideas and principles may be challenging to implement on college campuses is key. Considerations of campus climate, politics, support, and resources should be considered. Other considerations include student interests and buy in, as well as partnerships with areas on campus that may already provide mindful practice are opportunities for support and leverage.

References

A brief history of mindfulness. (2011). Retrieved from: https://sujato.wordpress.com/2011/01/18/a-brief-history-of-mindfulness/

Breathe. (n.d). About UF mindfulness. Retrieved from: https://mindfulness.ufl.edu/index.php/about/

Chozen Bays, J. (2011). How to train a wild elephant & other adventures in mindfulness. Shambhala Publ., Boston, MA.

Delizonnna, L., Anstedt, T. (2014). Mindful Leaders: A Self-Coaching Guide & Toolkit.

Dunoon, D. (2008). *In the leadership mode*. Victoria, BC: Trafford Publishing.

George, W. (n.d). Mindful Leadership: Compassion, contemplation and meditation develop effective leaders. Retrieved from: http://www.billgeorge.org/page/mindful-leadership-compassion-contemplation-and-meditation-develop-effective-leaders

Gore, W. (2014). Mindful leadership: Compassion, contemplation and meditation develop effective leaders. Retrieved from: http://www.billgeorge.org/page/mindful-leadership-compassion-contemplation-and-meditation-develop-effective-leaders

Hawkins, R. (2011). Mindfulness matters. *Integral Leadership Review, 11*(3), 2585. Retrieved from: http://integralleadershipreview.com/2585-mindfulness-matters/

Jan Chozen Bays (2011). How to train a wild elephant & other adventures in mindfulness. Shambhala Publ., Boston, MA.

Kabat-Zinn, J. (1994). Wherever you go, there you are: mindfulness meditation in everyday life. Hyperion Books, New York, NY.

Langer, E. J. (2014). *Mindfulness*. Boston, MA: Da Capo Press.

Northouse, P. (2016). *Leadership: Theory and practice* (7th ed.). Los Angeles, CA: Sage.

Marturano, J. (2014). Finding the space to lead: A practical guide to mindful leadership. Retrieved from: http://findingthespacetolead.com/

McCown, D., Reibel, D., & Micozzi, M. S. (2010). *Teaching mindfulness: A practical guide for clinicians and educators*. New York: Springer. Retrieved from: http://link.springer.com/book/10.1007%2F978-0-387-09484-7

McSpadden, K. (2015). You now have a shorter attention span than a goldfish. Retrieved from: http://time.com/3858309/attention-spans-goldfish/.

Miller, J.H. & Page, S.E. (2007). *Complex adaptive systems: An introduction to computational models of social life*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.

Mind & Life Institute (2015). Mind & Life Institute. https://www.mindandlife.org/.

Marturano, J. (2014). Finding the Space to Lead: A Practical Guide to Mindful Leadership.

Perlman, A. (2015). Informed mindfulness as the foundation for leadership. *Explore the Journal of Science and Healing*, 11(4), 324-325. Retrieved from: http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S1550830715000786

Rechtschaffen, D.J. (2014). *The way of mindful education – cultivating well-being in teachers and students*. Norton Books, New York, NY.

Ricard. M., Lutz, A., and Davidson, R.J. (2014). Mind of the meditator – Contemplative practices that extend back thousands of years show a multitude of benefits for both body and mind. Scientific American, 39–45.

Rosenthal, S. A., Moore, S., Montoya, R. M., & Maruskin, L. A. (2009). *National Leadership Index 2009: A National Study of Confidence in Leadership.* Center for Public Leadership, Harvard Kennedy School, Harvard University, Cambridge, Massachusetts.

Seagal, S. (1997). *Human dynamics: A new framework for understating people and realizing the potential in our organizations.* Winnipeg, Canada:

Siegel, D.J. (2010). Mindsight – a new science of personal transformation. Bantam Books, New York, NY.

The centre for mindfulness research and practice. (2015) Retrieved from: http://www.bangor.ac.uk/mindfulness/buddhist.php.en

Tuleja, E. A. (2014). Developing cultural intelligence for global leadership through mindfulness. *Journal of Teaching in International Business*, *25*(1), 5.

Vision. (n.d.) UF Mindfulness. Retrieved from: https://mindfulness.ufl.edu/index.php/vision/

Williams, G. (2010). Mindful leadership: When east meets west. Retrieved from: http://hbswk.hbs.edu/item/mindful-leadership-when-east-meets-west

Appendix A
Sample 'lab' activities for the Mindful Leadership course.

Cultivating Attention: We can focus with our eyes, our ears, our sense of touch, our breathing, our tasting. An exercise (5 min. or longer) may focus on opening our attention nonjudgmentally, watching our thoughts, emotions, sensations pass by us. In a science class an exercise may invite students to focus their attention on a science experiment, taking in all the steps, watching attentively how the experiment proceeds, and noting the outcome.

Pause and Stop: When rushing to class, squeezing in another assignment in the busy work schedule, near exhaustion after hours of work without a break. Simply S: Sit still – silence; T: Take three deep breaths; O: Observe your body and mind; P: Proceed with kindness, compassion and joy. Experience the rejuvenation of a silent moment reconnecting to yourself. Feel re-energized through slowing down, relaxing into the moment.
Mindful Writing: Instead of copying and pasting text and rush to finish an assignment I can take a deep breath, focus my attention on the breath, relax, connect with my body, listen carefully, let go of thoughts and focus deliberately on the writing assignment. I ignore noise and mindfully write. Journal writing is another way to contemplate and self-reflect. It allows to connect to what's inside; what may hold you back. Close your eyes and center yourself. Be open whatever wants to surface and write it down.

Meditation Practice: Meditation on the cushion is a traditional mindfulness practice. A fixed time to meditate (e.g., in the morning or evening) for a certain length (e.g., 10 min., 30 min. or longer) allows to get to know your mind and yourself. Regular meditation practice has a positive effect on your day-to-day life because it makes you less reactive, enhances your ability to be mindful whatever crisis or stressful event you face (e.g., exam).

Mindful Communication: Having an authentic and meaningful conversation is fulfilling. It builds on deep listening to oneself and another, trust, asking question and meeting the other. The opposite of a mindful communication occurs through interruptions, pushing one's own agenda (superimposing thoughts and beliefs onto others), others not listening to the discussion (e.g., distracting mannerism like attending to a smart phone in the middle of a conversation).

Contemplation and Reflection: Deep reflection means looking thoughtfully at something for a long time. Contemplation involves opening to what is bothering us without being emotionally swept away, holding on to a belief. Instead we befriend it from different vantage points.

Paradoxically, leaning into something instead of ignoring or rejecting it often dissolves the issue, event or relationship we have been ruminating.

Touching the Earth: A mindful walk in nature bathing in the beauty of a slow flowing creek in a wonderful landscape with flowers blossoming, trees so green and butterflies in the most beautiful colors. Mindful nature walks allow us to connect with the Earth and natural elements. It refreshes our senses touching the Earth, distresses and allows to enjoy the beauty of this world.

Finding Sense in a Complex World: Linking Mindfulness and Adaptive Leadership Education Practices

Christine H. Shaefer, Gregory T. Gifford
Federal Executive Institute

Robert L. McKeage
University of Scranton

Abstract

Today's turbulent world challenges leaders to cut through the clutter of their lives to gain clarity and to approach problems from different vantage points. The ancient practice of mindfulness has gained popularity in recent years as a means to help people clear their minds and be present. The decades-old model of adaptive leadership invites leaders step out of complex situations and view them from a place focused clearly on the here and now -- often explained by Heifetz's (1994) metaphor of moving from the dance floor to the balcony. Two leadership development programs currently link the practices of mindfulness and adaptive leadership with positive results in helping leaders clear their mental path from the dance floor to the balcony.

Introduction

More than twenty years ago, Heifetz (1994) urged leaders in the midst of complexity to make their ways to the balcony – a metaphorical vantage point from which to observe situations more fully and with deeper attention to relationships and to oneself. This cornerstone of adaptive leadership remains a crucial element of leaders' abilities to successfully navigate an increasingly complex world.

Daloz Parks (2005) wrote about Heifetz's teaching and pointed to being present as a significant need of leaders to practice adaptive leadership. She explained that "*presence* is the meeting place between the inner life of a person and the outer life of action in the world" (p. 100).

Mindfulness, at its core, represents a process that brings awareness to the moment – to being present. Originating among Buddhist traditions, secular mindfulness continues to grow in Western cultures through mindfulness-based interventions (MBIs), practical for the masses (Frizzell, Hoon, & Banner, 2016).

This Innovative Practice Paper presentation will explore opportunities for leadership educators to infuse mindfulness practices into their teachings of adaptive leadership to facilitate learners' experiences in getting to and thinking from the balcony. Through this paper presentation, attendees will be able to connect existing knowledge of the generally separate topics of adaptive leadership and mindfulness by gaining insights into current practices that join these concepts and by experiencing a mindfulness-based intervention during the session.

Background

The incredibly fast pace of today's world can easily be exhausting, and for leaders, the seemingly exponential increase in options and unpredictability can tax the way they think about the problems they face (Garvey Berger & Johnston, 2015). As Heifetz and Linsky (2002) made clear, "the only way you can gain both a clearer view of reality and some perspective on the bigger picture is by distancing yourself from the fray" (p. 53).

Providing space from the swirling issues can create opportunities to reframe our perspectives, yet "most of the time our perception is limited by our attention span; fragmented by continuous distractions; distorted by our biases, assumptions, and expectations; and regularly highjacked by our emotional reactivity" (Hyland, Lee & Mills, 2015, p. 578). The clarity and focus of mind generated by mindfulness practices can aid in overcoming these limitations – paving the way from the crowded dance floor to the spacious balcony.

Jon Kabat-Zinn, a practitioner of meditation and a scholar at the University of Massachusetts, brought secular mindfulness training to the attention of medical professionals, scholars, business leaders and more through Mindfulness Based Stress Reduction (MBSR). Research consistently connects mindfulness with a wide variety of positive outcomes for individuals who practice it and for companies for which mindful employees work (Aviles & Dent, 2015; Fizzell, Hoon & Banner, 2016; Hyland, Lee & Mills, 2015).

Recently, work-place based mindfulness education programs have emerged as a field separate from MBSR, and growing numbers of organizations offer mindfulness programs. With this introduction of mindfulness to the workplace, the amount of time devoted to the practice has reduced significantly, and in their overview of mindfulness literature, Hyland, Lee and Mills (2015) found differing perspectives regarding the length of time required for mindfulness practices to have meaningful effect:

- Some researchers maintained that brief interventions diminish the very nature of mindfulness, with its key components of time and patience, potentially resulting in fewer potential benefits
- Others found brief mindfulness trainings (even 1, 15-minute session) result in positive effects on such things as participants' problem-solving skills

The inconclusive evidence regarding length of time needed for mindfulness training to have impact presents an area of consideration for educators seeking to incorporate mindfulness practices into their courses. This holds relevance for the increasing number of graduate schools adding formal mindfulness programs (Hyland, Lee & Mills, 2015) as well as individual educators seeking to enrich their courses by introducing mindfulness concepts to benefit their students' leadership skillset.

Leadership educators may have particular interest in adding mindfulness practices to their curricula because, as Heifetz, Grashow and Linsky (2009) succinctly reminded leaders, "your whole self-constitutes a resource for exercising leadership" (p. 37). And, Frizzel, Hoon and Banner (2016) found among ten themes resulting from their research that mindfulness generates greater self-regulation and enhanced self-awareness.

Adaptive leadership in particular relates well to mindfulness in a few ways. First, "achieving a balcony perspective means taking yourself out of the dance, in your mind, even if only for a moment" (Heifetz & Linksy, 2002, p. 53), and mindfulness practices can support the ability to step out of the dance. Second, Heifetz and Linksy (2002) explained that the process of moving from the dance floor to the balcony, then back to the dance floor and back to the balcony again requires an iterative process. Mindfulness, too, manifests as an iterative process as one clears one's mind, then finds thoughts creeping back in, so clears the mind again, until new thoughts distract attention, require a refocus on clearing the mind, and so on (Lopez, 2015).

Third, another element of adaptive leadership work aligns with a potential negative consequent of mindfulness. Hyland, Lee and Mills (2015) cited researchers who suggested mindfulness might slow down work or encourage employees not to take on extra or challenging work. From an adaptive leadership perspective, mis- or over-used mindfulness may serve as a work avoidance technique – a danger that warrants highlighting during the learning process.

The powerful applicability of mindfulness practices to the teaching and implementation of adaptive leadership recently coalesced for educators at two institutions. The student populations and course structures of the two programs vary significantly, yet both have identified meaningful impacts of uniting in the classroom mindfulness and adaptive leadership.

Description of Practices

Practice #1: Semester-long mindfulness work

A traditional university setting allows time throughout a semester to encourage the development of sustained mindfulness practices. At one such institution, select undergraduate leadership classes include an initial session with a certified mindfulness trainer, ongoing classroom sessions, optional mindfulness assignments, and a field trip to experience mindfulness through a labyrinth walk.

The opening mindfulness session instructs students on the meditation process, including turning off all electronic devices, finding a comfortable seated position, sitting upright with feet on the floor and arms resting at their sides, closing their eyes, and focusing on their breath. The trainer explains to student how to bring awareness to their whole bodies and notice any sensations that may arise, and what to do when their minds begin to wander. After the instruction period, the lights are dimmed, soft music is played, and a 20 – 30-minute mediation session is conducted.

Following the meditation session, the trainer prompts the students to open their eyes and slowly bring themselves back into the presence of others in the room. A period of reflection follows, with an invitation to students to share their feelings before and after the meditation as well as their thoughts on the process.

Feeling the mental and physical benefits of mindfulness, students generally embrace the encouragement to continue meditation practices at least three or four times a week. Discussion of this ongoing practice includes the value of mindfulness to help students shut out the clutter of

their busy schedules and to clear their minds in service to becoming present and focused on a particular study need, especially during mid-terms and finals.

Throughout the semester, regular classroom work includes meditations sessions. These instructor-led activities utilize a variety of meditation practices available on the internet. Leadership learnings accompanying these sessions underscore the needs for leaders to find mental space to approach problems with clarity and openness to varying perspectives and to be present with their followers, a particular challenge in today's hyper-connected and distracted world.

Connecting leadership students to the long history of mindfulness and introducing them to an alternate way to practice it, classes include an off campus trip to a nearby church that offers a full-sized replica of the medieval labyrinth at Chartres Cathedral in France. Monks and pilgrims have used the labyrinth at Chartres for walking contemplation and meditation since 1205.

An introduction to the labyrinth and instruction on the proper way of walking along the path set the stage for students to experience the labyrinth in a mindful way. A post-walk debrief includes students' reflections on their experiences with particular attention given to their feelings and mental clarity before and after the walk.

Discussion of this literal walk ties to the metaphorical walk leaders make when moving from the dance floor to the balcony to address adaptive challenges.

Practice #2: Micro-mindfulness sessions

Leaders working in the U.S. Federal government have the opportunity to participate in leadership development programs ranging in length from one to four weeks. The time constraints of these programs led to a practice of "micro-mindfulness" sessions.

The design of a customized, single-agency leadership development program creates a continuum of learning, guiding leaders through three separate programs, beginning with a one-week Emerging Leader Program (ELP) and ending in a two-week Advanced Leader Program (ALP). ELP participants regularly expressed feeling overwhelmed as they transitioned into leadership roles and lamented their challenges to do little more than move from one issue to another without the opportunities to give problems needed attention and reflect on actions taken. The lead faculty member for this leadership development series added mindfulness to the ELP curriculum as a tool for addressing these concerns.

This introduction to mindfulness includes a 20-minute video of mindfulness expert Jon Kabat-Zinn explaining the practice, its effects on the brain, and its applicability in workplace settings, discussion of ways to introduce mindfulness practices into the work of these leaders and their agency, and a 3-minute guided meditation using the free app *Calm*. The full mindfulness session requires just 35 minutes of the program's very full schedule.

Building on the brief introduction to mindfulness in ELP and the reminders to continue the practice, provided through the program's online portal used to connect participants between and

across programs and during the Intermediate Leader Program (ILP), ALP directly connects mindfulness to adaptive leadership, the key theory underpinning that program. This aligns with an intense one-week course on adaptive leadership offered at the same institution as part of a four-week executive-level leadership development program for a wide variety of government agencies.

Faculty noticed adaptive leadership course participants found it a significant challenge to get to the balcony. Consistently, leaders expressed their beliefs that their work was too complex and their schedules too full to have time to leave the dance floor. While few questioned the value of viewing their adaptive challenges from the balcony – and appreciated the time attending the program gave them to get to the balcony while in the learning environment – many felt they simply couldn't get there when they returned to their offices after the programs.

Recognizing mindfulness practices could help participants gain skills to make the mental journey from dance floor to balcony swiftly, faculty sought to add this to the curricula. However, classroom time is a premium in these leadership development programs, so an offering of an extremely brief in-class session on mindfulness (approximately 15 minutes, including an on-line video, targeted discussion about the use of mindfulness to address adaptive challenges, and a very short guided meditation) and the invitation to commit to practicing mindfulness while at the institution serve as the bridge between adaptive leadership and mindfulness.

Discussion of Outcomes/Results

Undergraduate students consistently give the mindfulness work very positive reviews. They report strong desires for the school to continue to include meditation as part of the leadership curriculum. Typical student comments include:

- *The mindfulness mediation was helpful to me because it gave me a chance to slow my mind and think something all the way through. Too often in my life, I'm running around from place to place with little time to realize that I am a human being.*

- *It was nice to pause from the craziness of an average day to reflect on myself and be mindful of my surroundings.*

- *It was a good time for me to have some self-reflection and silence.*

- *I feel like it also allows me to concentrate better.*

A particular feeling of success in regard to including mindfulness in leadership classes results from students reporting they used the techniques taught to positively overcome a challenging issue they faced. And, some students express commitment to continue mindfulness meditation on their own, after the class concludes.

Similarly, federal government leaders express appreciation for the explicit use and discussion of mindfulness practices in their leadership development programs. Participants acknowledge that clearing their minds and being present seem like simple and important things for leaders to do,

yet they recognize that such things are far easier said than done. Participants cite among the useful outcomes of these leadership development programs the use of mindfulness as a leadership tool, made practical to them through the deliberation attention given to it during the programs.

Reflections of Practitioners

Neither adaptive leadership nor mindfulness is a new concept. In an increasingly complex, fast-paced, and hyper-connected world, the ability of leaders to slow the pace, see the system, and make sense of the complexity is important now more than ever. Applying mindfulness practices in specific service to addressing adaptive challenges offers a new and effective approach to support leaders in the ability to find reason, causation and systemic resolutions that aid in their success. The narrative feedback from students and participants experiencing the practices outlined herein strongly suggest this unification of concepts has merit.

At this time, the mindfulness practices discussed here take a cognitive, Western approach, although participants in the single-agency leadership development program include U.S. and foreign citizens who live and work around the world. This warrants further reflection by faculty to ensure the practices meet participants where they are, because as Hyland, Lee and Mills (2015) pointed out, "it's possible that cultural differences may impact the success of mindfulness programs when implemented internationally or with employees who hail from international backgrounds" (p. 594).

Further, for both college students and experienced leaders engaged in leadership development programs, achieving a true state of mindfulness may seem elusive, despite careful introduction to and support of its practices in and out of the classroom. Providing long-term mindfulness opportunities such as a full semester and offering condensed practices of mindfulness have received anecdotal support from learners; however, leaders' abilities to successfully apply mindfulness techniques to adaptive challenges outside of learning environments is not yet known.

Recommendations

Practicing mindfulness creates a state in which individuals can reduce mental distractions and purposefully reflect on the world around them. This ability proves especially valuable in today's turbulent world full of noise and chaos. Leadership educators deliberately linking adaptive leadership practices and mindfulness practices into their curricula provide a useful skillset to their students. Explicitly connecting mindfulness to adaptive leadership may help leaders clear the path from the dance floor to the balcony.

Longitudinal studies that follow students after their leadership development classes and programs may determine if mindfulness practices are indeed continued after the courses and if such practices allow leaders to address adaptive challenges more successfully than leaders who don't practice mindfulness. Exploring the effectiveness of uniting adaptive leadership and mindfulness holds promise for future research, and through this innovative practice paper presentation, the authors welcome insights and experiences from attendees, illuminating how

others may be currently or are considering the addition of mindfulness to their leadership education curricula, especially in regard to adaptive leadership.

References

Aviles, P.R., & Dent, E.B. (2015). The role of mindfulness in leading organizational transformation: A systemic review. *The Journal of Applied Management and Entrepreneurship, 20*(3), 31-55. doi:10.97774/GLEAF.3709.2015.ju.00005

Daloz Parks, S. (2005). *Leadership can be taught: A bold approach for a complex world.* Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Press.

Frizzel, D.A., Hoon, S., & Banner, D.K. (2016). A phenomenological investigation of leader development and mindfulness meditation. *Journal of Social Change, 8*(1), 14-35. doi:10.5590/JOSC.2016.08.1.02

Garvey Berger, J., & Johnston, K. (2015). *Simple habits for complex times: Powerful practices for leaders*. Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press.

Heifetz, R.A. (1994). *Leadership without easy answers.* Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Heifetz, R., Grashow, A., & Linksy, M. (2009). *The practice of adaptive leadership: Tools and tactics for changing your organization and the world.* City, ST: Publisher.

Heifetz, R.A., & Linksy, M. (2002). *Leadership on the line: Staying alive through the dangers of leading.* Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Press.

Hyland, P.K., Lee, R. A., & Mills, M. J. (2015). Mindfulness at work: A new approach to improving individual and organizational performance. *Industrial and Organizational Psychology, 8*(4), 576-602. doi:10.1017/iop.2015.41

Lopez, C. (2015, March 13). *60 Minutes Mindfulness featuring Jon Kabat Zinn* [Video file]. Retrieved from: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=zsxE7cv83X0

Developing Complex Adaptive Leadership Capacity through Virtual Reality: Extending the Immersive Experience

Anthony C. Andenoro, Matthew Sowcik, & Jocelyn Widmer
University of Florida

Abstract

Immersive leadership learning experiences can assist leadership educators in developing critical competencies and capacities grounded in complex adaptive leadership necessary for addressing our most pressing global issues. However, students often lack the resources to study abroad. To address this issue, researchers and leadership educators at [insert context] have begun using Virtual Reality technology to bring the immersive contexts to the students. This innovative practice provides leadership educators with an exciting teaching and learning methodology that builds adaptive leadership capacity through contextual understanding and experiential learning. Further, it will address how these experiences can be created via Virtual Reality Leadership Learning (VRL2) to enhance our ability to create the most effective contexts for leadership learning in higher education.

Introduction

Our population is rapidly growing in both developing and developed countries. This rapid population growth has the potential to create significant problems for our global communities. In fact, of the grand challenges, many theorists believe that population growth will be the greatest problem of our time (Clapp & Cohen, 2009, Ericksen, Ingram, & Liverman, 2009; Rosegrant, Paisner, & Whitcover, 2001). Specifically, our challenge is to address and mitigate the problems associated with a global population projected to exceed 9.725 billion by the year 2050 (Andenoro, Baker, Weeks, & Stedman, 2016; Stedman & Andenoro, 2015). The problems associated with a global population this scale fall into six main problems – Space, Agriculture Production, Global Health, Natural Resource Conservation, Energy Efficiency, and Climate Change. This provides a daunting challenge for leadership educators attempting to prepare the next generation of leaders capable of addressing global problems.

Immersion experiences provide leadership educators with a dynamic opportunity to build competencies and capacities that set a foundation for addressing these global challenges (Harder, et al. 2015). Further, they often lead to agency, which is directly related to complex adaptive solutions aimed at global sustainability (Marshall, 2016). However, only 3% of undergraduate students have the resources, time, and academic flexibility to study abroad (University of Florida International Center, 2017). Challenges to offering immersion/study abroad experiences are further exacerbated by competing economic priorities, the reduction of resources, and a general lack of time at universities across the educational landscape.

These challenges create difficulty in planning leadership learning experiences that develop complex adaptive skills, capacities, and dispositions in leadership learners. However, technology affords leadership educators with options to extend the leadership learning context to immersive contexts without having to leave campus. Through the use of VRL2, leadership

educators can create experiences that mirror the immersive contexts, allow students to interact with diverse populations, promote understanding of complex problems, and experience immersive leadership learning without bearing the financial burden associated with study-abroad programs.

Review of Related Scholarship

International learning experiences provide undergraduate students with opportunities to develop intercultural competence and global perspectives (Andenoro & Bletscher, 2012). This coupled with contextual experiences grounded in accompaniment (Ausland, 2005), lead to the development of globally competent learners with realistic expectations about the communities that they are serving (Andenoro& Bletscher, 2012). Further, this creates the foundation for complex adaptive problem solvers with the resolve to create sustainable opportunities for the global communities they serve (2012).

Understanding that the global leader's development involves the increase of global competence, Moran and Riesenberger (1994) noted that learners should secure a global mind-set, inclusive of elements of equality, learning, understanding values and assumptions, appropriate motivation, and respect hold a large role. Further, the contextual nature of global competence is critical (Baumgratz, 1995). The immersive contexts can provide an understanding for the opposing culture. Through interactions with diverse populations, learners can begin to understand their own the background, gender, and education creating an essential foundation for making ethical decisions (Morrison, 2001). The context is also essential because it allows the individual to understand how to properly respond to and communicate with the other (Puffer, 1990).

This learning extends into leadership practice. Jacobs, Harding, Mumford, and Zaccaro (2000) suggested that the most important factors of a global leader are knowledge relating to business, the organization itself, its tasks, and the people it is impacting. The global leader embraces duality by demonstrating effective knowledge of the other culture (Black, Morrison, and Gregersen, 1999). Global leadership and competence are also relational. They encompass more than general knowledge of the culture – they are centered on relational knowledge (Baumgratz, 1995).

While immersion creates an opportunity for leadership educators to create global leaders replete with complex adaptive problem solving capacities, immersions are not always possible due to challenges including competing economic priorities, the reduction of resources, and a general lack of time at universities across the educational landscape. However, VRL2 provides an innovative solution for addressing these challenges. Virtual Reality has shown to be effective in producing immersive learning that is both easy-to-use and sturdy enough to endure the rigors of a classroom setting (Brown & Green, 2016). Further, virtual-reality-based instruction has been shown to positively impact learning outcomes in higher education learning contexts (Cummings & Bailenson, 2015; Merchant, Goetz, Cifuentes, Keeney-Kennicutt, & Davis, 2014; Bailenson, Blascovich, & Guadagno, 2008). Virtual Reality also has a positive impact on levels of internal locus of control (Ahn, Bailenson, & Park, 2014), which is a critical component of complex adaptive leadership and agency (Marshall, 2016). Virtual Reality correspondingly, breeds inclusive practice. Inclusivity lies at the heart of accompaniment (Ausland, 2005). Hence to

develop sustainable solutions for the immersive context, the culture that is germane to the context must be considered.

Understanding this, Virtual Reality is an under-utilized resource within higher education leadership learning environment. While it provides a theoretical supposition for addressing the shortcomings of our current situational challenges, more data must be collected to properly explore its utility. The following innovative practice provides the parameters for using VRL2 as a methodological innovation to share immersive contexts, develop global competence, and advance complex adaptive leadership capacity in leadership learners (Ahn, Bostick, Ogle, Nowak, McGillicuddy, & Bailenson, 2016).

Description of the Practice

This session creates an innovative opportunity to explore the utilization of VRL2 to engage undergraduate leadership learners in the immersive context without leaving their campuses. This increases access to immersion experiences for students who otherwise would not have this learning opportunity. The process of creating these innovative leadership learning experiences, grounded in the use of VRL2, encompasses four specific phases. This will form the foundation for our session presentation. The following is presented using the [insert context] in Ghana VRL2 experience as an example.

Phase 1: Immersive Experience – Faculty and students travel to the immersive context for an academically grounded experience. In this case, [insert context] in Ghana in association with the course listing, AEC 3940 – Challenge 2050: The Experience, provides in-country interactions with the Ministry of Health, Ghana Water Company, Seed Co., Agricorps, Community Agriculturalists, the World Health Organization, and the faculty from the University of Cape Coast College of Agriculture and Natural Sciences, within the Ekumfi District of Ghana.

Through this experience students begin to understand and work within the systems that impact nutritional security and global health. This leads to sustainable solutions developed by students alongside community members to increase sustainability and promote the idea of accompaniment. While in the immersive context, faculty and students document the experience via VR 360 Cameras.

Phase 2: Video Development – Following the immersive experience, video editors produce high quality Virtual Reality films of the documented experience. The dynamic 4K camera quality and 360 degree-capture range, allow for a lifelike and interactive experience. Further, because each student within the immersive context maintains a VR 360 Camera, different vantage points are created. These vantage points are integrated allowing for a seamless interactive experience that brings the reality of the immersive context to life within the local classroom.

Phase 3: Local Immersion – Via Virtual Reality viewers and technology provided by the [insert partner], Leadership Educators at [insert context] conduct lessons within the immersive context. Students can explore 360 degrees around them and feel as though they are fully immersed in the context. They can see, hear, and interact with people in Ghana. With respect to [insert context] in Ghana, students can assist in the Ghana Water Company with well-building projects to

enhance sanitation, talk to WHO public health professionals addressing significant epidemiological concerns, connect with students from the University of Cape Coast in Ghana, and engage with countless other opportunities within the immersive context.

Phase 4: Evaluation – Quantitative and qualitative evaluations are conducted to explore the development of leadership capacities and competencies as a result of the learning experience. Preliminary anecdotal data demonstrate that the immersive context created in the classroom allows for the development of key competencies and capacities, including intercultural competence, self-awareness, systems thinking, critical thinking disposition, emotional intelligence skill, and agency.

Discussion of Outcomes/Results

Preliminary learning outcomes and associated findings demonstrate that undergraduate students are positively benefiting from the use of VRL2. However, more data needs to be collected and analyzed as noted in the fourth phase of the practice. At the time of presentation, data will have been collected and analyzed demonstrating impact. Understanding this, researchers expect the findings to align with the work of Ahn, Bostick, Ogle, Nowak, McGillicuddy, and Bailenson (2016) Marshall (2016), and Ahn, Bailenson, and Park (2014), and Andenoro and Bletscher, (2012). Specifically, that interdisciplinary undergraduate leadership learners on average will demonstrate improved levels of self-awareness and global competence (Andenoro & Bletscher, 2012), internal locus of control (Ahn, Bailenson, & Park, 2014), and agency (Marshall, 2016) creating a foundation for complex adaptive leadership practice. This will create opportunities for sequential exploratory methods (Ivankova, Creswell, & Stick, 2006) contributing to an understanding for how and why the learners are experiencing positive shifts in these areas. The results will have far reaching implications for leadership educators attempting to advance leadership aimed at addressing complex problems locally and globally and advancing the intellectual merit and broader impact of the field of Leadership Education.

Reflections of the Practitioner

VRL2 appears to be a substantive tool for building complex adaptive leadership capacity in undergraduate learners. Further, it provides a reduced financial burden to the leadership educator or program attempting to replicate immersive leadership learning experiences. This can benefit students who may not have to opportunity to develop these skills, capacities, and dispositions otherwise. However, production quality is important. Leadership educators looking to embrace this idea and utilize in their leadership learning context, must have a minimal level of technical expertise, and resources to create the Virtual Reality videos. Without a financial commitment and the willingness to support innovative methods of education from the host institution, this is not possible. Understanding this, it is critical for leadership educators to consider the if the conceptual framework, context, content, teaching and learning, and outcomes and assessment (Ritch & Mengel, 2009) validate the usage of this innovative practice.

Recommendations

VRL2, when used intentionally, can provide an innovative option for leadership educators attempting to develop complex adaptive leadership capacity in undergraduate learners. The use of this practice allows leadership educators to transport students to immersive contexts where they can interact with diverse populations, address real-world challenges, and explore alternative cultures. Through the use of VRL2 leadership educators can expect to see elevated levels of internal locus of control (Ahn, Bailenson, & Park, 2014), which is a critical component of complex adaptive leadership and agency (Marshall, 2016), and inclusivity which is central to accompaniment (Ausland, 2005). This reduced-cost alternative to expensive and potentially dangerous travel, creates opportunities for students to experience developing contexts and build global competence. These set the foundation for leadership learners capable of addressing complex problems and developing sustainable solutions.

It is also important to prioritize further research addressing the impact of VRL2 on interdisciplinary undergraduate leadership learners. At the time of presentation, current findings will be transferable to like contexts, but lack generalizability. Hence it is suggested that further research look at the impact of VRL2 contexts on undergraduate learners' self-awareness, global competence, locus of control, and agency.

Finally, there is a lot of excitement around the use of Virtual Reality in leadership learning. However, it is paramount to approach the use of VRL2 with a level of humility, self-awareness, and significant intentionality. The use of this tool is process-focused, and as such should be facilitated with caution. Like many innovative practices, VRL2 creates an opportunity for leadership educators to enhance leadership learning. However, without the proper devotion of time and significant effort to using it effectively, the desired outcomes are not possible.

References

Ahn, S.J., Bailenson, J.N., & Park, D. (2014). Short- and long-term effects of embodied experiences in immersive virtual environments on environmental locus of control and behavior. *Computers in Human Behavior*, *39*, 235-245.

Ahn, S. J., Bostick, J., Ogle, E., Nowak, K., McGillicuddy, K., & Bailenson, J. N. (2016). Experiencing nature: Embodying animals in immersive virtual environments increases inclusion of nature in self and involvement with nature. *Journal of Computer-Mediated Communication*.

Bailenson, J.N., Blascovich, J., & Guadagno, R.E. (2008). Self representations in immersive virtual environments. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, *38, 11*, pp. 2673-2690.

Brown, A., & Green, T. (2016). Virtual reality: Low-cost tools and resources for the classroom. *TechTrends*, *60*(5), 517-519.

Andenoro, A. C., Baker, M., Stedman, N. L. P., Weeks, P. P. (2016). Addressing complex problems. *In T. G. Roberts, A. Harder, & M. T. Brashears, (Eds). (2016). American Association for Agricultural Education national research agenda: 2016-2020.* (p. 57-66). American Association of Agricultural Education.

Clapp, J., & Cohen, M. J. (Eds.). (2009). *The global food crisis: Governance challenges and opportunities*. Wilfrid Laurier Univ. Press.

Cummings, J.J., & Bailenson, J.N. (2015). How immersive is enough? A meta-analysis of the effect of immersive technology on user presence. *Media Psychology*. 1-38.

Ericksen, P. J., Ingram, J. S., & Liverman, D. M. (2009). Food security and global environmental change: emerging challenges. *Environmental Science & Policy*, *12*(4), 373–377.

Harder, A. M., Andenoro, A. C., Roberts, T. G., Stedman, N., Newberry, M., III, Parker, S. J., & Rodriguez, M. (2015). Does study abroad increase employability? *NACTA Journal, 59*(1), 41-48.

Ivankova, N. V., Creswell, J. W., & Stick, S. L. (2006). Using mixed-methods sequential explanatory design: From theory to practice. *Field methods*, *18*(1), 3-20.

Marshall, T (2016). Developing agency in interdisciplinary undergraduate learners: A framework for addressing complex adaptive global issues. (Unpublished master's thesis). University of Florida, Gainesville, Florida.

Ritch, S. W., & Mengel, T. (2009). Guiding questions: Guidelines for leadership education programs. *Journal of Leadership Education*, *8*(1), 216-227.

Rosegrant, M. W., Paisner, M. S., Meijer, S., & Witcover, J. (2001). *Global food projections to 2020: emerging trends and alternative futures*. International Food Policy Research Institute.

Stedman, N. L. P. & Andenoro, A. C. (2015). Emotionally engaged leadership: Shifting paradigms and creating adaptive solutions for 2050. In M. J. Sowcik, A. C. Andenoro, M. Mcnutt, & S. Murphy (Eds.), *Leadership 2050: Contextualizing Global Leadership Processes for the Future* (p. 147-159). College Park, MD: International Leadership Association.

University of Florida International Center (2017). *Study Abroad Statistics*. Retrieved from http://www.ufic.ufl.edu/.

Listening and Leading from the Circle

Carolyn D. Roper, PhD & Adrian James, PhD
Purdue University Northwest

Abstract

From Native Americans long ago to recent restorative justice sessions, Peace Circles have proven effective to resolve conflicts. The authors describe their informal experiments with peace circles in the classroom and in organizations as ways to foster strong relationships, exchange information, or demonstrate support in non-conflict situations. Peace Circles naturally promote active listening and reliance on non-authoritarian leadership. The authors request collaborators for further formal study.

Introduction

Circled around fires for thousands of years, Native Americans and New Zealand Maori would discuss important tribal matters in peace circles, taking uninterrupted turns as each accepted a talking piece (Hamlin, 2012, & Pranis, 2005). The purpose of this paper is to share with conference attendees the authors' experiences in using peace circles in classrooms and in organizations in non-conflict situations with the benefits of seemingly naturally occurring active listening in an atmosphere of non-authoritarian, sharing leadership. Those attending this session will be invited to collaborate on a formal research project to identify methods and benefits of peace circle activities in non-conflict environments.

Review of Related Scholarship

For the last few decades the peace-circle method has been used in school deviant behavior, in restorative justice in the criminal system, and in community disputes. Hamlin and Darling (2012) explained that universities like the University of San Diego used circles in cases in which one group takes actions that affect another group as in drug and alcohol use, hate crimes, and acts of intolerance. Isaac (2011) investigated the use of circles in Monroe High School in Rochester, NY, to reduce such deviant behaviors as fights and suspensions. One of the first restorative justice applications was in Yukon, Canada, in the early 1990s (Pranis, 2005). All those affected by a crime (victim, offender, family, community, justice) gathered to discuss the crime and hopefully agree on its reparations before the sentencing step with the judge. The emphasis was on healing and repairing rather than punishment. Peace circles can also be used to resolve community disputes; Isaac detailed such a conflict regarding the homeless living on Ocean Beach in California. These studies and the prior research these authors cite show positive results, sometimes large and other times small, for the peace circle's role in resolving conflicts. However, peace circles can be seen in the light of "peace-keeping" as well as "peace-making." Pranis (2005) lists a number of purposes that do not necessarily involve conflict:

- Talking to explore an issue to become acquainted
- Understanding to develop a more complete picture of a situation
- Healing to share pain after tragedy or loss

- Support for a difficult experience or change
- Community-building to build relationships for common causes
- Celebration to share joy and accomplishment (pp. 14-17)

Research about these more informing or supporting peace circles is scant, but very worthy of study for two major purposes: First, peace circles allow practice in the important art of active listening, an undervalued and little practiced skill of leadership. Active listening allows for leaders to better understand an individual's needs for achievement and growth. Understanding these needs then allows for a leader to develop a supportive climate, aligning with the individual consideration element of transformational leadership (Avolio & Bass, 2004). Second, peace circles represent an arena of practice for leading without controlling. Each peace circle has a leader, usually called facilitator or keeper, but the role is very limited in control. The leader helps the group to establish and then enforces ground rules such as no interruptions and frames the questions or statements to be posited to the group. After that the "leader" is an equal participant in the circle. The authors of this presentation are very interested in this type of peace circle and seek collaborators to study it. The rest of this paper will detail more information about conducting peace circles.

Description of the Practice

Group Size and Time: In Hamlin and Darling's (2012) study of homeless in Ocean Beach, the large number of interested members of the community were divided into groups of 15, each with a facilitator and scribe (note taker). They found the size of the group has a direct impact on the amount of time needed. In the authors' experiences, a class of 18 university seniors needed all 75 minutes of a class period to complete the circle, and a graduate seminar of 6 MBA students needed an hour to complete their discussion circle. It is important that sufficient time is allowed, at least one hour for a very small group ranging to two or three hours for larger groups. Multiple meetings may be scheduled for complex situations, and large groups may be divided into small, simultaneously functioning groups, enabling the valuable outcome of comparison of the multiple results.

Beginning the Circle: Opening, Talking Piece, and Preliminary Guidelines: The facilitator organizes participants in a circle of chairs without physical barriers like tables, starts the circle with a story, poem, song lyrics, or similar to set the tone, and introduces the talking piece. It may be a stick as in "you have the power." It may be a stone, substantial and soothing to rub. It may be a small vessel to receive one's thoughts. Or something else with special meaning to the group. One may speak only when holding the talking piece. In turn around the circle, the person may speak, hold the piece in silent contemplation for a moment, or pass it to the next person without speaking or holding. The talking piece allows for silence and time while the speaker composes the next thought, disallowing an over-eager responder's imposition, interrupting the speaker. The speaking piece makes participants listen.

In the conflict circles mentioned earlier, rules are usually developed or preformulated and may be substantial. Hamlin and Darling (2012) include seven rules ranging from agreeing that the facilitators are in full control of the Peace Circle to a promise to avoid profanity and threats. In the peace-keeping circles intended in this presentation, simpler guidelines can be developed with

the facilitator beginning with one suggestion, and then passing the talking piece so that others may add to the list. Typically, the ideas generated include respect, confidentiality, truth, not interrupting, and paying full attention to others.

Questions and Statements: During the Circle: The facilitator may begin by "taking the temperature" of the group by asking each person to say one word that describes how she or he feels. Writing these down can make a good comparison for a similar question at the end. Usual answers revolve around physical (I'm tired.) or emotional (I'm apprehensive.) descriptions. Next the facilitator should pose one or two warm-up questions such as "If you had a free hour with no obligations or responsibilities, what would you do with it?" It is very important to allow participants to become acquainted and get used to the circle process.

Then questions about the reason for meeting may begin. An example from the class of seniors was a series of two questions: "Tell us something that you have been thinking a lot about here lately, especially something that made you happy." The second question was, "Tell us something that you have been thinking a lot about here lately, especially something that you worry about." The contrast was overwhelming. The first question had answers like graduation, marriage, making money in a job, not having to study, and almost everyone gave a relatively short answer. The second question elicited responses like fear of not finding a job, personal illness, caring for parents or children, not getting along with the significant other. . . . The answers were authentic, honest, and longer. The listeners were rapt in total silence, leaning forward, inviting the speaker to go on as long as needed. A spontaneously created additional question followed: "Select one person in the circle and respond to his or her statement." There followed an intense 30 minutes of sustenance and encouragement with one person identifying with the other and giving hope and advice. That day, the authors clearly understood one of Pranis' ending statements: "We have only begun to scratch the surface of ways in which the Circle Process can change the content and meaning of our lives" (p.69).

One other example of forming a circle to become acquainted could include questions posed by Komives (2015). Ruminating about her long (and successful) career, she shared her thoughts and lessons learned about leadership; they included her three questions for understanding self in community in Western culture. The three questions were: "(1) How am I like no one else here?; (2) How am I like some others here?; and (3) How am I like everyone else here?" (p. 10). These questions are very suitable for a relationship-building peace circle, especially one with participants from diverse backgrounds or viewpoints.

Closing the Circle: At the end, the facilitator can encourage another round of "Give us one word to describe how you are feeling now." Typically, these responses will be more positive than the beginning round with words such as "renewed" or "relaxed."

Discussion

The first major purpose for studying peace circles was to foster active listening. Active listening can have a powerful impact on effective leadership. When a leader listens and gets to know an individual, she is able to consider individual needs. She is then able to spend time coaching and developing specific strengths of individuals. Peace circles can look very different, but no matter

what, the active listening component is there because one person is talking at a time and there is clear direction to listen. They can be utilized with minimal preparation but with maximum impact.

The second major purpose for studying peace circles was to better understand leading without controlling. In 2016, change expert John Kotter published *That's Not How We Do It Here*, a parable contrasting a large hierarchical meerkat clan managed in the authoritarian method and a smaller innovative, democratically led meerkat clan. The morale of his story is that we need both leadership (new clan) and management (old clan) to survive and thrive. The rules of the new clan could have been written about the Peace Circle:

- Every meercat can talk to any other meerkat without scheduling a meeting.
- No meerkat can tell another meerkat what to do.
- New ideas are discussed with other interested meerkats.
- Every group selects its own leader.
- Everyone chips in to do the work as needed.

In one way of understanding, these new rules reflect the advantages of the small business venture compared to the institutionalized stanchions of power. We need the influx of new thought and the Peace Circle is a valuable method of delivering this ground-roots wisdom.
For another comparison using another change expert, Bridges revised his earlier *Managing Transitions* (2009) to include a new chapter on the seven stages of organizational life. He predicts that an organization will die after the stage of institutionalization unless it keeps an eye on renewal – what is happening outside and inside the organization. Internal and external Peace Circles are ways of keeping in touch with today's reality of constant change.

In composing the questions for peace circles, the facilitator becomes the leader. Is the purpose for a group of professionals to form a consensus? One of the authors' MBA student is an engineer in a major steel mill. He could form a circle of engineers to discuss a major issue he faces today: "If one starts with a double tap to remove all steel from the vessel, how long should the slag splash be to maximize time between relinings of the basic oxygen furnace (BOF)?" A very different result could appear if the facilitator posed this question, "For the three BOF's which one has the shortest time period before relining and who are the shift supervisors assigned to that furnace?" The first phrasing solves a problem; the second places blame. Care in wording questions or statements for the circle is important.

In Kotter's dichotomy, after the leader establishes the setting and composes the questions, he becomes the equal participant for the duration of the circle. After the close, he may take the circle notes as input as he returns to the role of decision-maker / manager. This input from the circle is likely more varied and in-depth than many other methods of gathering information.
The peace circle concept relates to several of the items on the National Leadership Education Research Agenda, especially Teaching, Learning and Curriculum Development, the Sociological Development of Leaders, Followers, and Learners, and Social Change and Community Development.

Further Study

Proposed Next Step: The authors invite the participation of those attending the presentation in formal study of the peace circle for informative or supportive purposes. To determine the impact of the peace circle, a pretest and posttest will be given. Surveys will be the same, and will list a series of emotions that fall into two categories, positive and negative. On the list will be 10 words that correlate with positive emotions and 10 that correlate with negative emotions. Participants will be asked to circle the top three emotions they are feeling before the circle, and after the peace circle exercise has been performed. Data will be analyzed to determine if the peace circle changed the emotional state for the participant. Collaborating researchers will determine two or three subjects for circles with each having the opportunity of contributing a fourth subject of his or her own interest. See the handout for examples.

Conclusion

Kuttner (2011) said ". . . the conceptual understanding of leadership, even if not yet fully materialized in practice, has shifted in the past few decades from a position of authority to one of stewardship, service, convening, and facilitation of person growth. . . " (p. 113). Ironically, that was the concept of American Indians long ago in their circles of humble equality instilling the wisdom of the elders into the continuation of their peace-making culture. Even though the modern world first borrowed their methodology for disputes and differences, where it works quite well, it is not too late to use their sage ideology for our own every-day common dialogues before conflicts arise.

References

Avolio, B. J., & Bass, B. M. (2004). Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (Third edition): Manual and sample set. Menlo Park, CA: Mind Garden, Incl.

Hamlin, J. B. & Darling, J. (Summer 2012). "Use of Peace Circles in Large-Scale Community Conflict: A Case Study." *Conflict Resolution Quarterly, 29*(4), 403-419. DOI: 10.1002/crq.21048

Isaac, C. W. (2011). "Restorative Justice in Schools: An Examination of Peace Circles within Monroe High School." (A thesis for the MS in Criminal Justice, Rochester Institute of Technology, Rochester, NY).

Komives, S. K. (March-April 2015). "Shaping the Future: Lessons from the Past," *About Campus,* 4-12. American College Personnel Association and Wiley Periodicals, Inc. DOI: 10.1002/abc.21179

Kuttner, R. (Winter 2011). "Conflict Specialists as Leaders: Revisiting the Role of the Conflict Specialist from a Leadership Perspective." *Conflict Resolution Quarterly, 29*(2), 103-125. DOI 10.1002/crq.20042

Pranis, K. (2005). *Circle Processes.* New York: Good Books.

Guidance for Conducting Peace Circles Handout

The following information is provided to give concrete examples of the Peace Circle method to provoke thoughts in readers for their own valuable implementations.

Ceremony: Move the participants into a circle sitting in chairs or on the floor with no obstructions like tables to set the tone of equality and proximity. Beginning with a poem, a five-minute relaxation meditation, lighting of a candle for the center, or some other ritual can set the mood for reflection and connection. Introduce the talking piece and emphasize its role: only the holder may speak, hold for a moment, or pass without comment.

Set Guidelines: Ask for acceptance of five simple guidelines:

- Speak from the heart.
- Listen from the heart.
- Speak spontaneously.
- Speak leanly.
- Maintain confidentiality. (from "Peace Circle Guidelines for Facilitators")

Ask each person for acceptance of these guidelines and offer to add more. Ask each to give one word that describes how the person is feeling now, at the beginning of the peace circle.

Opening Questions: Begin with a simple "How are you feeling at the moment?" Then pose one or two easy questions to allow the group to settle. Here are examples:

- Who are you?
- Share with us a memorable moment from the last week.
- How would you want someone to describe you?
- If you had a truly free hour or day, how would you spend it?

Outline for Team Building Activity

Participants: Members of a workplace department

Purpose: To open the lines of communication and allow for the leader to get to know the followers and for the followers to get to know each other.

After the ceremonial opening of the circle, ask these questions in turn around the circle:

- What is something you feel you do well at work?
- Describe your ideal day at work.
- What is a skill you would like to improve and why?
- Choose one other person here and respond to what you have heard that person say.

Outline for a Work Project Circle

Participants: People with various responsibilities in three different extension offices of a land grant university.

Purpose: To introduce new 4-H areas into their programs that go beyond farm or rural themes.

After the ceremonial opening of the circle, ask these questions in turn around the circle:

- Tell us the 4H areas that have been your specialties.
- What new areas would you suggest for expansion?
- What area have you heard that most intrigues you?
- What area have you heard that would be difficult to develop/promote in your office?
- Finally, which areas would you research to bring information for our circle next week?

Purposeful Questions: Carefully construct questions, statements, or prompts to explore the topic(s) which is the reason for the circle. Here are some first prompts for four situations:

Outline for a Class Discussion

Participants: A class of university or high school students getting ready for the end of the semester.

Purpose: To test emotional status and check in with and/or relieve end-of-term stress and jitters.

After the ceremonial opening of the circle, ask these questions in turn around the circle:

- What have you been thinking a lot about here lately?
- Have you heard anything from someone else that is of concern to you too?
- Choose one other person here and respond to what you have heard the person say, something that might help.

One major outcome will probably be that participants realize that they are not alone in their concerns. The sharing of the experiences and feelings often leads to a sense of community

---

Outline for a Community Discussion
Participants: Homeowners in a Subdivision with increasing burglaries and safety issues

Purpose: To investigate and settle on actions that could deter crime such as a neighborhood watch group, better home lighting or landscaping, etc.

After the ceremonial opening of the circle, ask questions such as these:

- Tell us one example of how a safety matter has touched you or your neighbor.
- What one best new program/action would you suggest to improve safety?
- What idea has someone suggested that you believe might really help?
- What information or resource person could you bring to our next meeting?

It is important not to push the group to decision-making too quickly but rather to allow time and space for reflection and information gathering. It is equally important to be clear about whether the group will ultimately be able to make the decisions or whether the group is providing recommendations to a decision-maker.

Closing: To close the circle, have one more round (or more) with the question: Does anyone have anything else to share? Finally, ask each person to choose one word to describe how he/she is feeling after the peace circle. At that point, end the experience with some definite ceremonial act: a poem or brief reading, extinguishing of the candle, etc.

The Leader's Communication Tools:
A Framework for Teaching Leadership Communication

Cheryl Noel Ross, EdD
Southeastern Bible College

Abstract

Leadership and communication are inextricably linked. One cannot excel as a leader without displaying strong communication abilities. Determining which communication tools are appropriate to use in a particular situation can be a challenge for leaders. Perfecting those skills can be even more difficult. This session will provide a framework for educating and training leaders about the communication skills needed to be successful. The *Leader's Communication Tools* model has been used in both healthcare and higher education settings with groups in Ethiopia and the United States, as well as in coaching sessions with individual leaders. The model can be taught in multiple formats and serves as a springboard for reflection and skill development with leaders of all levels of experience.

Introduction

To be an effective leader, one must demonstrate well-developed communication skills. While not all leaders are naturally strong communicators, such skills can be learned (Hackman & Johnson, 2009). Leadership and business training programs must address communication skills in order to be effective (Conrad & Newberry, 2012; deVries, Bakker-Pieper, & Oostenveld, 2010; Kaplan & Patel, 2008). Because providing training for individuals from diverse backgrounds and generations can be challenging (Cekada, 2012), creating a framework that addresses key components of leadership communication, while offering a flexible delivery system is desirable. The purpose of this innovative practice session is to present a model for teaching leadership communication skills to groups and individuals. The Leader's Communication Tools Model provides a framework for introducing communication topics and serves a springboard for subsequent training on individual subjects, as well as a point of discussion for discerning what tools are relevant in specific contexts. In addition, the model presents factors of the individual leader's communication, such as self-talk and conflict management style, and how those affect the use of other communication tools. A leader's examination of the model's components promotes reflective practices and commitment to growth.

Review of Related Scholarship

The importance of communication in the study of leadership is undeniable (Tourish & Jackson, 2008). The enhancement of soft skills, such as listening and conflict resolution, as described in the emotional intelligence literature, is widely accepted as essential for leaders to be successful (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002). Understanding the best and most appropriate ways to communicate as a leader in a variety of settings, such as in interpersonal relationships, teams, and public spheres, are all relevant to leadership (Hackman & Johnson, 2009). A number of widely accepted leadership theories, such as transformational leadership and leader-member exchange theory (LMX), are contingent upon the use of communication skills (Parkin, 2008).

For example, research by Men (2014) found that transformational leaders show concern for employees by listening and valuing opinions. Additionally, workplace leaders who demonstrate communication competence can maximize follower satisfaction and potentially improve employee performance (Madlock, 2008).

How to best present communication and other soft skill development can be a challenge for leadership educators, coaches, and human resource professionals (Brungardt, 2011). Adams (2014) noted that three research-based principles should be followed when creating such training: (a) select content wisely, (b) empower individual and collaborate learning and (c) reward skill development appropriately. Cekada (2012) suggested different training methods are necessary for baby boomer, Generation X, and Generation Y learners. For example, Generation X leaders in training appreciate regular and consistent communication of feedback from supervisors (Cekada, 2012). Other types of leadership development contexts require alternative methods. *Deep interpersonal communication* with a coach who promotes self-awareness of issues that can undermine leadership and communication is recommended for executive leaders wanting to grow in their abilities (Quick & Macik-Frey, 2004).

Description of the Practice

For the educator and coach, models can provide a starting point for describing practice possibilities. The *Leader's Communication Tools Model* (Figure 1) was initially developed in an effort to teach fundamental communication skills to groups of leaders in two hospitals in Ethiopia. The framework was subsequently utilized in multiple college classes in the United States, including a Management course and Business Communication class for traditionally aged college students, and a Leadership Communication course for adult learners. In both the training in Ethiopia and the college classrooms, the model was introduced during the first meeting and provided the framework for subsequent sessions. In addition, the model was employed during individual coaching sessions with leaders and managers in business and nonprofit work in one-on-one discussions. When utilized for coaching, discussions often centered upon what tool was most relevant for a particular situation.

Learning objectives when utilizing the model were to:
1. Examine and understand key communication skills needed by leaders.
2. Conceptualize the interrelated and complementary nature of the leader's communication tools.
3. Reflect upon one's own communication strengths and weaknesses.
4. Analyze and determine when particular communication tools should be employed in a given context.
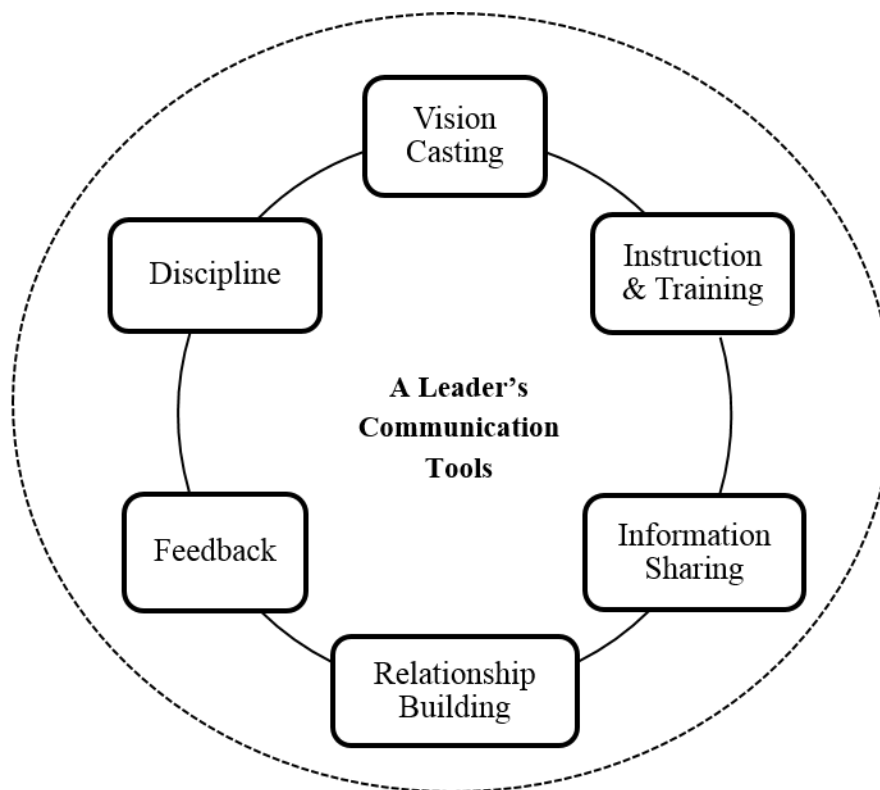
Figure 1. A Leader's Communication Tools Model.

The model indicates primary communication tools leaders have to work with when interacting with those they lead. At the first session of a class, group, or coaching meeting, the model was introduced. The initial session took approximately an hour to present. The tools include: (a) vision casting, (b) instruction and training, (c) information sharing, (d) relationship building, (d) feedback, and (e) discipline. The first session was used as for an initial description of the elements of the diagram, as well as the concept of context (noted by the dotted line in the diagram). Ensuing sessions were used to describe in detail each of the concepts, depending upon the needs and interests of the group or individual.

- Vision casting – Setting the tone and discussing the mission and goals of an organization or team.
- Instruction and training – Providing necessary training about the position or organization in order for the follower to be successful.
- Information sharing – Two way process of giving and receiving needed data and material.
- Relationship building – Creating connections between the leader and followers both individually and as teams.
- Feedback – Regular discussion of areas of success and improvement for both leader and followers. May involve encouragement, as well as correction.
- Discipline – Providing necessary controls or restrictions on inappropriate follower actions or attitudes
- Context – the interrelated conditions in which the communication takes place (DeVito, 2009)

An expanded model (Figure 2) was also introduced which includes how individual interpersonal communication factors influence leader utilization of communication tools. The framework includes the concepts of (a) self-talk, (b) style of talk, (c) listening skills, and (d) style of conflict resolution.
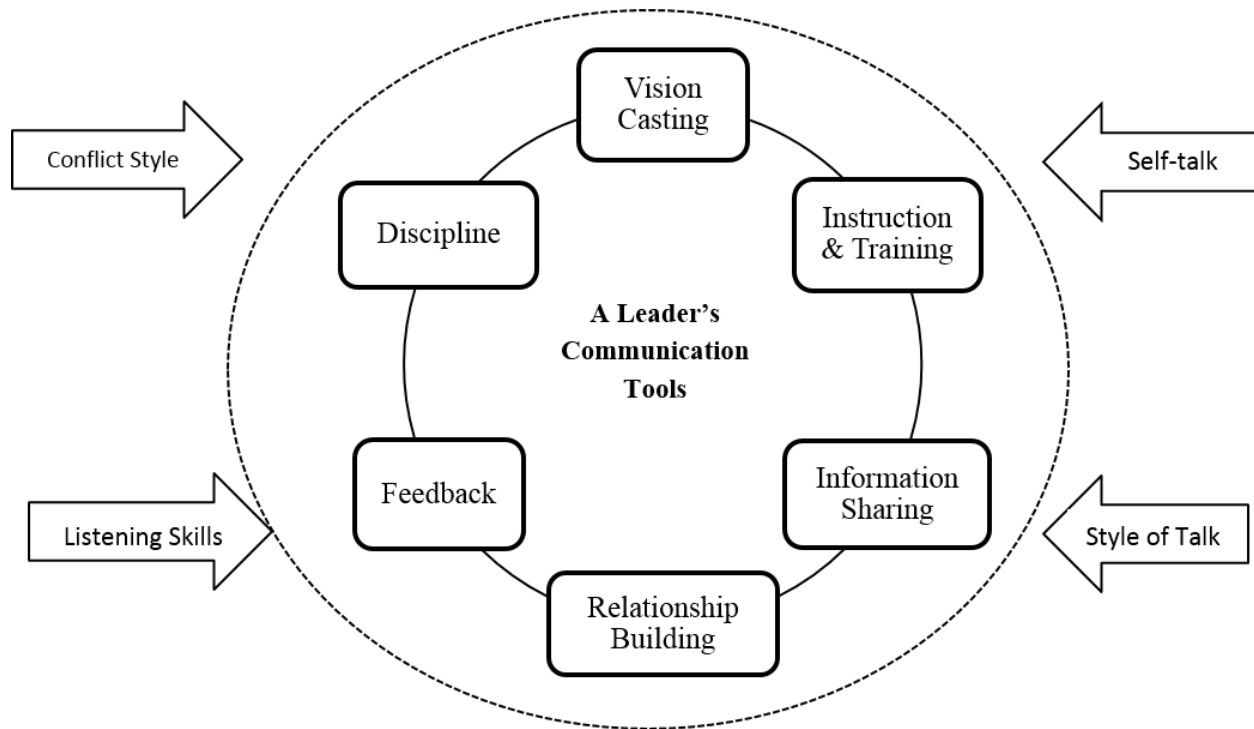

Figure 2. Individual interpersonal communication factors that influence the use of leadership communication tools.

Each of the concepts was explained in the successive sessions and activities oriented toward reflection were utilized. The flexibility of this model allows for educational or coaching sessions to plan according to learner needs. Length of sessions was approximately one hour, but could be longer or shorter based on the learners. Topics included:

- Self-talk – Intrapersonal communication. How one communicates within the self and the impact this has on other types of communication
- Style of talk – Pattern of communication that is assertive, passive, passive aggressive, or aggressive
- Listening skills – Ability to listen with intent to hear and understand
- Style of conflict resolution – How the person manages and resolves conflict

Discussion of how each individual interpersonal communication factor might influence the way the other communication tools are used provided a robust understanding of each. For example, when delivering training about listening skills, conversations about how listening impacts one's ability to give appropriate feedback often ensued. When discussing discipline as a tool, the leader's style of managing conflict also came into play. With the model, participants are able to

realize the need to improve individual communication factors in order to utilize leadership communication tools more effectively.

Discussion of Outcomes

The model met with favorable responses in a variety of settings. Learners grasped the overall concept of the model quickly, even in a cross-cultural setting. As elements of the framework were discussed, participants began the process of self-evaluation of their own skill sets. A desire for growth and development often followed. One advantage of the model is that it can be used in a variety of formats for a numerous purposes. For example, the model was taught to both a group of physicians in Ethiopia, as well as hospital department heads such as laundry and food services. Each group was able to adapt the concepts to the types of interactions that occurred in their given context. Depending on the needs of the group, a special focus could be addressed. For instance, the Ethiopian hospital department heads had a keen interest in learning how to provide feedback to employees, rather than relying on discipline as their primary communication tool as had been their practice, so additional time was spent in that subject area. Leaders at all levels can potentially benefit from training based on this model.

In addition, the model allows for any length of time to be allocated. The tool is beneficial in a one hour coaching session that focuses on a particular need of a client, as well as a semester long college level course. It is anticipated that the format could be used in an online setting, as well. While training others about leadership communication requires some level of expertise, the knowledge base of the leadership educator, coach, or trainer can certainly be supplemented by additional materials such as podcasts, online lectures, and out of class readings and reflections.

Reflections of the Practitioner

This model was developed in an effort to provide a concise way to teach leadership communication in a cross-cultural setting. Created while in Ethiopia, the author found that learners could readily identify with the structure of the diagram. Upon returning to teaching in the United States, the model was then used in several college classes with similar levels of appreciation and understanding. In addition, the author found when coaching leaders that the tool could be easily understood and discussed even without a diagram in front of the individual. In short, the model is generationally and multi-culturally friendly, as well as applicable to leaders in multiple contexts.

This framework is being developed and revised through use. In its initial creation, the model did not include the concept of information sharing. In addition, Figure 2 was constructed in the process of teaching Figure 1. It is expected that the model will continue to evolve and additional elements may be necessary to include in the future. Input from fellow practitioners and researchers is desired.

Recommendations

The enhancement of soft skills will continue to be an important growth area for leaders (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002). Tools and models for teaching these skills aid educators

and coaches in their practice. In the future, formal testing and evaluation of the model is necessary. Utilization of pre-tests and post-tests for the leaders is suggested in order to gage the level of information assimilation and growth. Longitudinal research about the sustainability of communication improvements achieved through the training is needed. Changes to the model and instruction provided with its use may be necessary based on results of research.
In addition, the author hopes to develop multiple ways this can be presented to leaders from different generations (Cekada, 2012), as well as cultures. A written curriculum to be made available to other leadership educators and coaches, which would allow for more widespread use of the framework, is being considered.

References

Adams, J. (2014). Practical advice for developing, designing, and delivering effective soft skills programs. IUP Journal of Soft Skills, 8(2), 7-20.

Brungardt, C. (2011). The intersection between soft skill development and leadership education. Journal of Leadership Education, 10(1), 1-22.

Cekada, T. (2012, March). Training a multigenerational workforce. Professional Safety, 40-44.

Conrad, D., & Newberry, R. (2012). Identification and instruction of important business communication skills for graduate business education. Journal of Education for Business, 87, 112-120.

DeVito, J. (2009). Human communication: The basic course (11th ed.). Boston, MA: Pearson Education.

deVries, R., Bakker-Pieper, A., & Oostenveld, W. (2010). Leadership=communication? The relations of leaders' communication styles with leadership styles, knowledge sharing and leadership outcomes. Journal of Business Psychology, 25, 367-380.

Goleman, D., Boyatzis, R., & McKee, A. (2002). Primal leadership: Realizing the power of emotional intelligence. Boston: Harvard Business Review Press.

Hackman, M., & Johnson, C. (2009). Leadership: A communication perspective (6th ed.). Long Grove, Illinois: Waveland Press.

Kaplan, K., & Patel, J. (2008). Developing a communication-focused leadership development programme for non-clinical managers. Journal of Communication in Healthcare, 2(2), 131-147.

Madlock, P. (2008). The link between leadership style, communication competence, and employee satisfaction. International Journal of Business Communication, 45(1), 61-78.

Men, L. (2014). Strategic internal communication: Transformational leadership, communication channels, and employee satisfaction. Management Communication Quarterly, 28(2), 264-284.

Parkin, P. (2008). Leadership communication training for small businesses. National Communication Association Conference

Quick, J., & Macik-Frey, M. (2004). Behind the mask: Coaching through deep interpersonal communication. Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research, 56(2), 67-74.

Tourish, D., & Jackson, B. (2008). Communication and leadership: An open invitation to engage. Leadership, 4(3), 219-225.

Pushing Students to their Limits: Combining Leadership Theory and Complex Societal Problems in an Infographic Assignment

Laura L. Greenhaw & Carley C. Morrison
Mississippi State University

Abstract

The purpose of this innovative practice session is to describe an infographic assignment implemented in a foundational, survey of leadership theory course. The leadership course is contextualized in agriculture, and therefore contains an emphasis on helping students connect leadership theory and concepts to issues in agriculture. Further, the course seeks to develop students' critical thinking skills, challenging them to analyze and evaluate their leadership learning rather than simply increase their knowledge of leadership. This assignment required students to illustrate the application of a leadership theory or concept of their choice to solve a complex agricultural issue of their choice.

Introduction

Educators are constantly challenged with keeping students engaged in learning. This can be especially difficult in foundational courses where the primary objective is to introduce students to a discipline and develop their knowledge and comprehension of fundamental concepts and ideas. Often times, instructors are not only striving for students to meet course learning objectives, but simultaneously striving to increase students' enthusiasm for learning. Moreover, educators are tasked with ensuring that graduates possess "21st Century Skills", including interdisciplinary and global understanding, critical thinking, problem solving, communication, collaboration, and creativity, information and media literacy, and flexibility, adaptability, and accountability (American Association of Colleges of Teacher Education and the Partnership for 21st Century Skills, 2010). Developing and delivering instruction that meets the multifaceted needs and expectations for today's classroom can be quite the task.

The purpose of the Foundations of Leadership in Ag and Life Sciences course at Mississippi State University is to develop students' foundational knowledge and comprehension of leadership theories and concepts. Furthermore, because the course is situated in the College of Agriculture and Life Sciences, it is expected that the leadership learning be contextualized within agriculture. An infographic assignment was developed specifically to allow students to creatively illustrate how leadership theories and concepts might be applied to address complex issues relevant to the agricultural industry.

Review of Related Scholarship

Acquiring knowledge of leadership theories and concepts is fundamental to leadership development. It is well known that in order for learning to occur, the learner must be able to connect new knowledge to that which they already possess. According to Bloom's taxonomy, as revised by Anderson et al. (2000), the domains of cognitive learning include remembering, understanding, applying, analyzing, evaluating, and creating (Figure 1). The first three levels are

referred to lower-order thinking skills, while the remaining three levels are known as higher-order thinking skills.
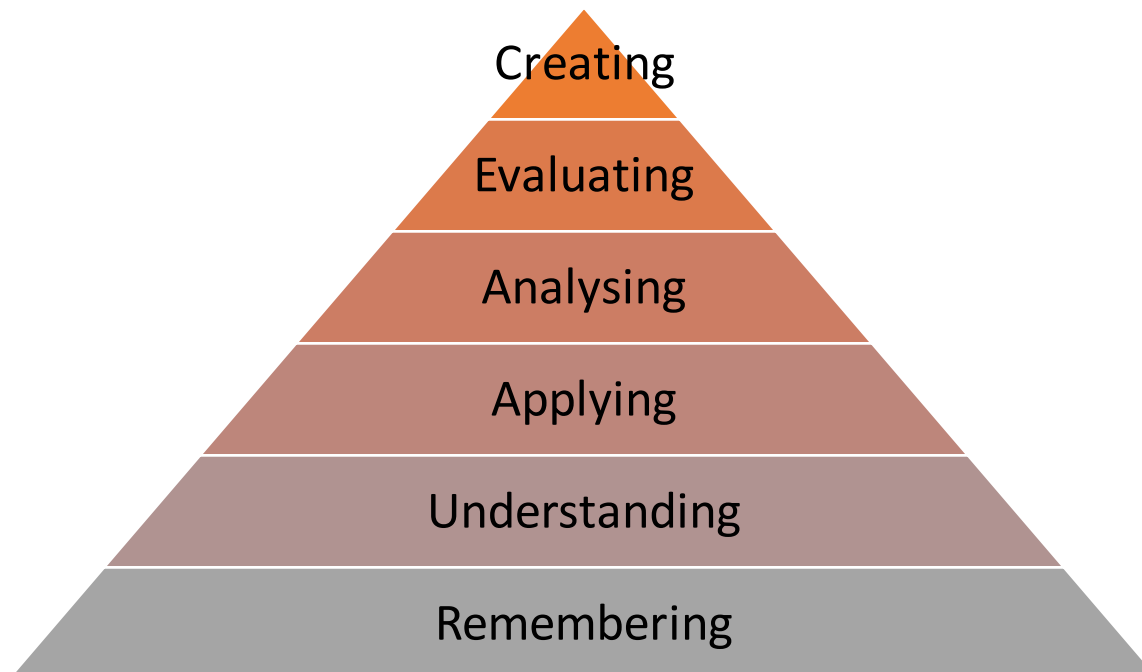

Figure 1. Bloom's Taxonomy as revised by Anderson et al.

Vygotsky (1978) indicated that students possess a zone of proximal development (ZPD). The ZPD exists beyond what is already known by the student, and extends out to the edge of what is currently achievable by the student. Students may be capable of moving just beyond the ZPD collaborating with peers or receiving guidance, but they are not capable of performing far beyond the ZPD at that moment. However, as students increase what they can do without assistance, the ZPD grows correspondingly. Thus, activities and learning initially beyond the ZPD can be brought within reach. ZPD is often illustrated using concentric circles, and is the model for scaffolded learning (Figure 2).
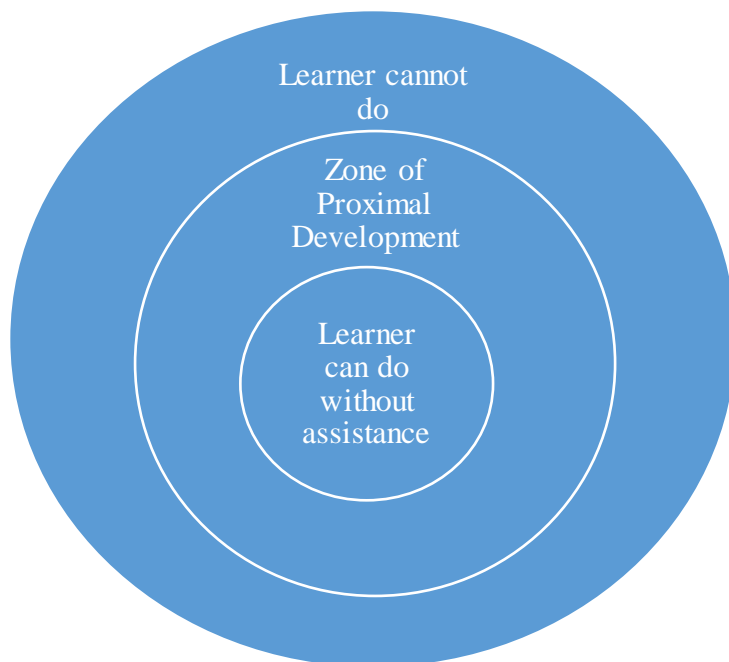
Figure 2. Depiction of Vygotsky's zone of proximal development.

Lalande and Cantin (2012) suggested that the revised Bloom's taxonomy and Vygotsky's zone of proximal development should be considered concurrently when designing activities to target learning objectives. They created the Bloom/Vygotsky Hybrid Cylinder to illustrate how both the content and the process must be taken into account during activity development (Figure 3).
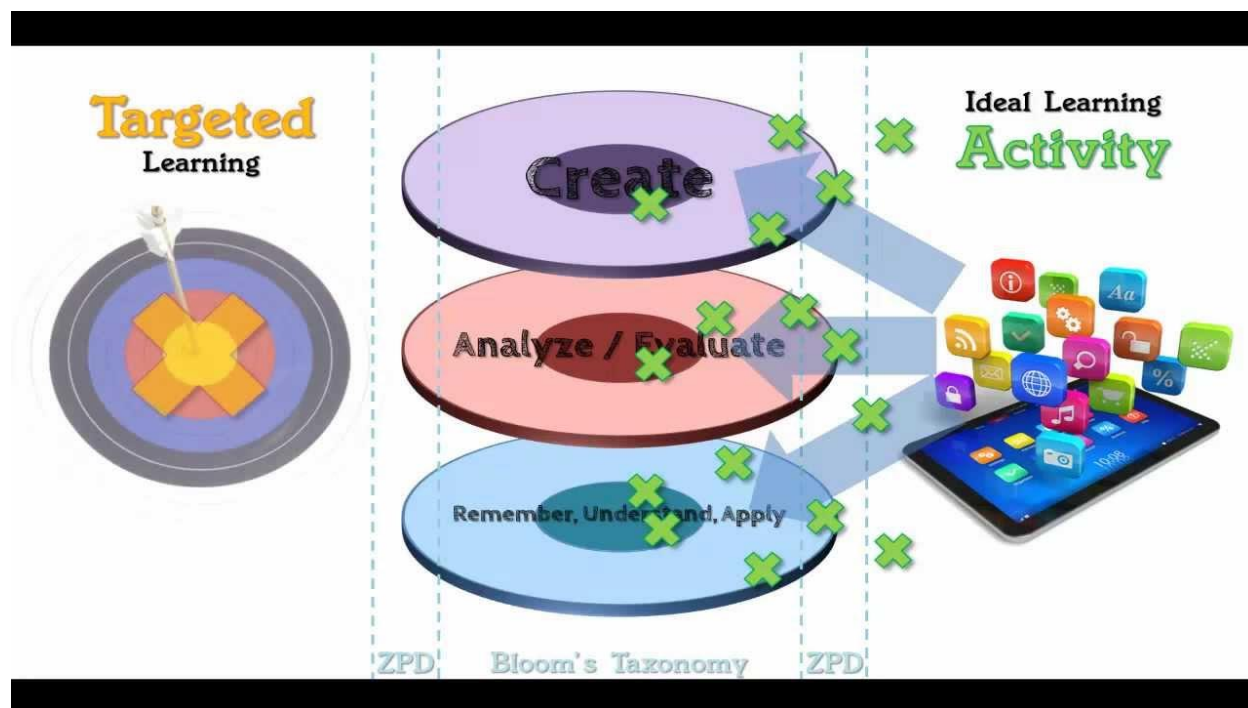

Figure 3. Bloom/Vygotsky Hybrid Cylinder (Lalande and Cantin, 2012).

Lalande and Cantin propose that the ZPD is relevant for both the targeted learning as well as the learning activity. If the targeted learning is nearer the student's current capability, but the activity is farther toward the outside edge of the ZPD, student development will likely focus more on developing the skills to accomplish the activity rather than the targeted learning. Thus, both process and content must be considered when selecting a pedagogy.

This is not to say that learning activities near the outer edge of the ZPD should be avoided. On the contrary, not only should educators target learning that pushes students to the edge of the ZPD in terms of knowledge, they must also provide learning activities that engage students' critical thinking, which is at the foundation of formal education (Marin & Halpern, 2011). In terms of leadership education, as we develop students into future leaders that will encounter "complex problems that require complex solutions", their ability to think critically is imperative (Flores, Matkin, Burbach, Quinn, & Harding, 2012, p. 218). For this reason, there is a need for innovative learning activities that allow students to apply their knowledge to real world situations.

Description of the Practice

During approximately week 12 of a 15 week long fall semester course, students received an assignment sheet (Appendix) along with verbal instructions to create an infographic. The objective of the assignment was for students to illustrate how one or more of the leadership concepts learned in class could be applied in order to help solve complex problems in agriculture. Examples of complex problems were provided, including childhood obesity/malnutrition, energy crisis, food safety, food security, and climate change. In addition, a comprehensive list of topics from the course was provided, including trait theory, skills approach, style approach, motivation theory, situational leadership, leader-member exchange, servant leadership, culture and leadership, transformational leadership, charisma, power and influence, conflict management, change theory, gender and leadership, and leadership ethics/values. Students were encouraged to use the online infographic software Piktochart. They were instructed to clearly identify the leadership concept or theory, then illustrate an example of the concept or theory being applied to solve an agricultural issue. Students were allowed to work alone or with a partner.

Within the class period in which the assignment was presented, examples of infographics were provided. However, the examples were standard, simple infographics, not specific to the assignment the students were required to complete. A rubric was included in the assignment sheet, indicating how submissions would be assessed.

Discussion of Outcomes/Results

Students had approximately two weeks to complete the assignment. During this time, no students requested additional assistance. One student requested that he be allowed to use a different software program than Piktochart, which was approved by the instructor. 27 students submitted an assignment, while one student did not. Since the assignment had never been implemented

before, students' initial submissions were graded, feedback was provided, and all students had the option to revise and resubmit. 22 students received passing grades, with six earning 100%.

At the conclusion of the semester, students were purposively selected for two focus groups. One group received high grades on their initial assignment, while the other group received less than adequate grades on their initial submission. Separate focus groups were conducted with these two groups, moderated by graduate students who had not been associated with the course in any way previously.

Several themes emerged from the focus groups. First, a need for clearer instructions was articulated by students in both focus groups. Feelings of anxiety were prominent because students felt as though they did not understand how to complete the assignment. Specifically, students struggled to connect the leadership theory or concept to the agricultural issue. Secondly, both groups of students voiced a desire for examples of infographics specific to the assignment they were given. Students found little value in the generic examples of infographics provided in class. Finally, students were uncomfortable with the amount of time they had to spend learning how to create an infographic. Several students in both focus groups recommended that a lesson be taught instructing students in the use of the recommended software. One focus group participant recommended that students be given the option to create the infographic in whatever program they were comfortable using. Overall, students enjoyed the creative and unique nature of the assignment, as opposed to writing a traditional paper, or similar activity. While they recommended some changes, they also recommended that the assignment be retained in the class.

Ultimately, students were successful in reaching the targeted learning objective of integrating their leadership knowledge within the context of a complex agricultural problem. Students were challenged both by the targeted learning as well as the activity. Most of the frustration related to the grading focused on the targeted learning, while most of the recommendations for future use focused on the learning activity.

Reflections of the Practitioner

This assignment was an attempt to find a balance in guiding students to the targeted learning while also implementing a unique and hopefully enjoyable learning activity. The idea for this assignment presented itself about half-way through the semester. As with any new assignment there were some inadequacies. First, while my teaching assistant had used the infographic software, I had never used Piktochart before. Second, while we were able to provide examples of aesthetically appealing infographics, we did not have any examples of infographics that illustrated the specific expectations of the assignment. This was quite problematic, as expressed by the students, however, since the goal was to push them to the edge of their ZPD using higher-order thinking skills, I am apprehensive about providing an opportunity for students to simply replicate, thereby diminishing their use of higher-order thinking skills.

Additionally, the structure and expectations of this assignment were different than what students have become accustomed to. In contrast to assignments and tests that have clear right or wrong answers, this assignment aimed to challenge the students to think critically and creativity to solve

a real-world problem. Although this assignment might not have been comfortable to the students I believe the experience provided a much needed change-of-pace for students stuck in a cycle of memorizing information and repeating it for a grade. In the end, as educators, if we want our students to be successful contributors to society we must create an environment for them to practice what we are teaching by applying their knowledge in realistic scenarios through interesting activities.

Recommendations

Several recommendations emerge from implementation of the infographic assignment. Overall, the students enjoyed the unique approach to demonstrating their learning, and ultimately recommended retaining the assignment in the class. However, as with any good pedagogy, clarity is fundamental. Clear instructions should be provided, along with ample time for students to ask questions. Additionally, some students had prior experience with the infographic software while other students were completely unfamiliar with the program. While it may not be necessary to spend an entire class period teaching students to use the software, spending a moderate amount of time introducing students to the program and allowing them to practice would likely reduce anxiety and frustration.

During the focus groups, several students noted that specific examples of infographics would have been helpful. However, part of the objective for this assignment was to encourage students to be creative. Providing specific infographic examples representative of "a good grade" would have merely served to encourage students' replication and regurgitation. However, providing examples of aesthetically pleasing infographics, as well as additional instruction on the components and purpose of infographics would assist students in completing the assignment more effectively.

Finally, although students revealed that they were very apprehensive about their submission, all but one made an acceptable attempt at the assignment, indicating that it was within their zone of proximal development, with regard to content and process. It may reduce anxiety to incorporate individual components of the assignment at various points in the semester beforehand, providing further guided practice before requiring them to put all the components together at once.

References

American Association of Colleges of Teacher Education and the Partnership for 21st Century Skills. (2010). 21st century knowledge and skills in educator preparation. Retrieved from http://www.p21.org/storage/documents/aacte_p21_whitepaper2010.pdf

Anderson, L.W., Krathwohl, D.R., Airasian, P.W., Cruikshank, K.A., Mayer, R.E., Pintrich, P.R., Raths, J., Wittrock, M.C. (2001). *A Taxonomy for Learning, Teaching, and Assessing: A revision of Bloom's Taxonomy of Educational Objectives*. New York: Pearson, Allyn & Bacon.

Flores, K. L., Matkin, G. S., Burbach, M. E., Quinn, C. E., & Harding, H. (2012). Deficient Critical Thinking Skills among College Graduates: Implications for leadership. Educational Philosophy and Theory, 44(2), 212-230.

Lalande, Marc-Andre, & Cantin, Judith. (2012). Aiming Higher: Bloom & Vygotsky in the Classroom. Retrieved from https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=NjUOHhFvR4k&feature=youtu.be

Marin, L. M., & Halpern, D. F. (2011). Pedagogy for developing critical thinking in adolescents: Explicit instruction produces greatest gains. *Thinking Skills and Creativity*, *6*(1), 1-13.

Appendix
Leadership Infographic

Objective:
Reflect on the leadership theories and concepts you've learned this semester. Develop an infographic that illustrates how one or more of the concepts can be applied in order to help solve big complex problems in agriculture.

Examples:
Childhood Obesity/Malnutrition
Energy crisis
Food Safety
Food Security
Climate change

Instructions:
Identify **one or more** theories or concepts that we learned during the course of this class and illustrate their use in real life using an infographic.

Topics discussed in this class:
Personality/Trait Theory
Skills Approach
Style Approach
Motivation Theory
Situational Leadership
Leader Member Exchange
Servant Leadership
Culture and Leadership
Transformational Leadership
Charisma
Conflict Management
Power and Influence
Change
Gender and leadership
Ethics/Values

Requirements:
- Use Piktochart to create your infographic.
- <u>Clearly identify</u> the leadership concept or theory
- <u>Be creative</u>. Your infographic should illustrate the concept or theory and use the agricultural issue as the context in which to provide an example of application of the theory or concept.
- Use proper grammar and spelling
- You may work individually or with a partner. No more than <u>TWO</u> people

Grading:
You will be graded using the attached rubric. Please read through it to know what specific items you will be expected to fulfill. There are 100 points possible.

Due:
November 18, 2016. Upload your PDF to myCourses no later than 11:59pm.

CATEGORY	4 - Above Standards	3 - Meets Standards	2 - Approaching Standards	1 - Below Standards
Leadership theory or concept **clearly identified** 4 x ____ = ____ 16				
Leadership Concepts/Theory **creatively and accurately illustrated** 7 x ____ = ___ 28				
Clear application in an agricultural example 7 x ____ = ____ 28				
Aesthetic appeal of the infographic 4 x __ = ____ 16				
Proper spelling and grammar throughout 3 x ____ = ____ 12				
Total =_____/100				

Teaching Creativity in a Leadership Seminar

Renee Kosiarek
Aurora University

Abstract

More than ever, leaders need to learn to be creative. Sometimes, they must find a way to solve an ambiguous problem with limited resources, and other times they need to develop new ways to motivate their diverse followers. Leadership programs would be well-served by teaching students how to be more creative. At X College, we offer a Seminar on Leadership that focuses on creativity. Through role modeling, discussion, create-your-own assignments and exercises, students learn and practice how to be creative, create a culture that enhances creativity, and tackle and solve difficult problems in the workforce. This innovative practice session will share details of the course, including rationale, objectives, assignments, and class exercises in the hope that other institutions may create similar offerings.

Learning Objectives

1) Participants will recognize the need for creativity training in a leadership program and be informed about a model class.
2) Participants will learn key strategies, assignments and exercises that were used in an undergraduate leadership class to teach creativity.

Introduction and Review of Related Scholarship

Recently, Harvard Medical School surveyed 72 senior leaders and found nearly all of them reported signs of burnout (Schwartz, T. & Porath, C., 2014). When individuals are not fully engaged, organizational performance suffers (The Energy Project & Harvard Business Review (2014). But there is a way out, and that involves creativity.

Creativity is about bringing new, novel, and useful ideas, thoughts, processes, and sometimes art and music to life (Csikszentmihalyi, 1997). Creativity and creative problem solving make us feel alive and are part of our humanity (Csikszentmihalyi, 1997; Sawyer, 2012). Creativity, in fact, is often seen as a peak experience and has been associated with strong mental health and stability (Sawyer, 2012). Creative people are typically "engaged, motivated and open to the world" (Bronson & Merryman, 2010). And this type of engagement is what we need in order to enhance our organizations and the people within them.

Creativity also enhances a person's sense of value and worth according to some studies, including Adobe's 2012 study on people's attitudes and beliefs about creativity at work, school, and home. In this study of 5000 participants from across the globe, over 80 percent of participants reported that being able to create enables them to make a difference in their lives, while nearly two-thirds of the people surveyed felt that creativity is valuable to society. More recently, Adobe commissioned a study to explore how creativity influences business outcomes. This study of senior corporate managers found that companies that "embrace creativity

outperform peers and competitors on key business performance indicators, including revenue growth, market share, and talent acquisition (Forrester, 2014).

Unfortunately, the vast majority of people believe that they are not making the most of their creativity. In fact, more than 75 percent of people globally believe that they are not living up to their creative potential (Adobe, 2012).

Creativity is important to enhance businesses in the 21st century. In 2010, IBM asked more than 1,500 CEOs questions about leadership and creativity (IBM, 2010). The majority of these CEOs reported that creativity is the single most important leadership competency for enterprises facing the complexity of global commerce today.

Innovative organizations enjoy greater market share than do less innovative ones (Puccio, G., Cabra, J. & Schwagler, N., 2014). With our rising and complex global problems, creativity is needed now more than ever. Jobs that don't require creativity are beginning to be automated, and positions and leadership require creativity in order to solve complex ambiguous problems that machines cannot solve.

That is why schools are beginning to teach creativity in the leadership classroom. Syracuse University and Babson College have modules in their MBA program to teach creative thinking skills, and others include creativity training in their marketing courses (McIntyre, F., Hite, R. & Rickard, M.K 2003). Several researchers believe that creativity training should be taught to business students (Schlee, R.P. & Harich, 2014, citing Driver, 2001; Fekula, 2011; Kerr & Lloyd, 2008; Schmidt-Wilk, 2011; Smith, 2003). Tayloe Harding (2010) from the University of South Carolina believes that it is "essential" to provide tools to help students think more creatively, and urges a "focused effort to help tomorrow's leaders." She says "teaching a student how to imagine an answer to an unanswered or ill-answered questions – that is to thinks creatively – is perhaps the most efficacious way to provide him or her with the comprehension tools and skills necessary to lead societal change rather than simply react and adapt to it." (Harding, 2010).

Description of the Practice

The workshop will discuss the need for creativity training as stated above. Participants will learn about the course format, teaching methods and exercises. A copy of the syllabus will be made available to participants.

Learning outcomes for the class were:

- Develop an understanding of the relationship between creativity and leadership.
- Understand the major components of leadership and creativity, including the elements of the creative process.
- Understand how to develop a creative culture as a leader and individual.
- Learn tips, techniques and tools to help each student become more creative in his/her own life.

- Understand the history and philosophies of several creative and innovative individuals and leaders.

These learning outcomes were met through a variety of readings, discussions, exercises and papers.

In one such paper, students reflect on one of their former creative projects by applying a 4 stage model of the creative process. They write about how they prepared for the creative work, and discuss the process of incubation and illumination. Students often find they skip incubation or verification, and discuss how those steps would have helped advance their work had they gone through the process more thoughtfully.

For another assignment, students present a workshop to the class in small groups on a creative leader or organization. Part of this includes a standard biography. However, students need to craft learning outcomes for the workshop, and develop creative activities for the class based on their leader. For instance, one group did a workshop on Stan Lee, former head of Marvel Comics. The group shared Lee's background, work ethic, creative process and collaborative techniques, and asked the class to develop their own superhero comic using Lee's "Marvel" method of collaboration. This method pairs a writer with an illustrator to create the strip. By working together, students were able to see the value of collaboration and leading from strengths. Just as important, students who presented had to think through and plan an activity that related to the leader, engaged the students, and taught them something about leadership and creativity.

In the first iteration of the course, students were given tests and quizzes. However, students did not feel like they "mastered" and deeply absorbed the materials when cramming for these tests. So, in subsequent years, students brainstormed other creative methods that could be used to demonstrate understanding of the readings in place of quizzes. Students openly acknowledged that they can let readings slide without some assessment. A few students still wanted quizzes, but most preferred a different option. After thoughtful discussion, students agreed to turn in weekly discussion questions and brief insights on the readings in place of quizzes.

As well, students had to complete the following twice during the term:
Write a reflective journal based on the readings. Here, you should (1) describe the concepts we studied in the reading and (2) reflect on how those readings apply to your life and leadership. You should (3) critically evaluate the readings, and share potential problems with some of the presented ideas. You must then (4) assess your journal, and give yourself a grade. Include a brief explanation of this grade, and be ready to discuss the journals in small groups. The professor may use the student's grade in assessing the work, but will grade the final work independently.

OR

Create a piece of work (song, artwork, collage, word cloud, story, reflective response, photographs, critical analysis, skit, poem, new office design, work manifesto, etc.) related to the readings. A short explanation should be included with your work if it is unclear how the piece relates to the readings. Students should be prepared to discuss these pieces in small groups throughout the term, and give themselves a grade on the assignment. The professor will grade

these assignments after those discussions. Students should play with creating different types of work during these assignments. The professor may use the student's grade in assessing the work, but will grade the final work independently.

This assignment gave the student choice and helped them evaluate the quality of their work (See Collard, 2014 stating "It is also important to support learner autonomy. In the open learning mode, it is particularly important that teachers and learners be able to evaluate the quality of their ideas.")

The final project was a "choose their own assignment." In this project, students are given a broad learning objective (demonstrate knowledge of creativity and practice creativity), but called to create more specific objectives based on their personal preference and needs. From these objectives, students make their own projects. For instance, one student wanted to try painting. So, he decided to videotape himself painting alongside a Bob Ross video. He journaled about the process, and paid close attention to how he led himself through creating the new work. This reflection helped him, as a leader, recognize his flaws and see how he holds himself back from risk.

In this same project, another student created an infographic about creativity. She had never created this type of work, but wanted to play with this new marketing tool. She shared her infographic, and also wrote about the process of creating the infographic. This experience allowed her to safely create something, while reflecting on her own strengths and weaknesses.

Crucial class exercises

Throughout the course, students regularly participated in creative exercises. These exercises served a number of objectives, including**:**

- Taught students new training methods leaders can use to enhance teamwork, leadership, and self-assessment
- Allowed students to expand their creativity
- Helped students understand the way we lead so they can create a culture that maximizes creativity.

Arts based training has been used in business and management programs of late, and were integrated into my course as well (Tawadros, 2015; Kelly, L., 2014). The Cranfield School of Management, Copenhagen Business School/Danish School of Education, Oxford University and IEDC-Bled School of Management all have integrated arts based learning into their leadership/management curriculum (Tawadros, 2015; Purg, 2010).

Arts based learning can be used to help create deeper experiences of personal connection and lead to greater self-knowledge (Tawadros, 2015; Purg, 2010). As well, arts based approaches may help leaders convey different sides of themselves, their organizations or their visions. (Cranfield University; Purg, 2010). Finally, arts based learning, like conducting a musical group, may help leaders develop team building, communication and listening skills (Cranfield University; Purg, 2010). "The arts offer a way to make sense of the growing complexity with

which leaders are confronted, as well as a powerful set of practices and tools that may be used to develop leaders" (Tawadras, 2015, p. 339).

For that reason, arts based training was used in the class. Near the beginning of the term, students were asked to draw a picture of a house in 1 minute. They then hold up their images and see how each student has different ideas for what a house should look like. This very simple exercise showed students the power of mental models, and led to a great discussion about how leadership means different things to different people. Just as important, this exercise exposed students to the "culture" they create within themselves that inhibits their own creativity. Indeed, students quickly acknowledged how they held themselves back from risk and creativity during this one minute drawing exercise.

Students continue to build on that self-awareness throughout the class. In one instance, students put together a measure of a song using a variety of objects. They then were given a chance to conduct. Students had to make creative use of limited resources, and reflect on how they led and followed. Questions for discussion included: What did you do that held you back? What messages did you tell yourself? What did you learn about your teammates? How could this be used in leadership development training?

In another instance, students created a poem as a group about education, a social cause that was important to them. The words for the poem included about 30 singular words students shared when asked "tell me about education." Some of the words included "boring," "privileged," "useless" and "opportunity." Students then had to put those words in order to create a poem. However, every student had to agree on the order of the words: consensus was required. This activity showed a new way to train leaders and build listening skills, and required participants to be flexible and adjust.

In addition to arts based training, creative problem solving was incorporated into the class. The creative problem solving (CPS) method is widely used in educational institutions and business organizations alike (Puccio, 2011; Sawyer, 2012). This method (CPS) helps people redefine problems and develop innovative solutions in a step-by-step process that has been proven to lead to a higher frequency of ideas. The most recent iteration of the CPS method has four stages—clarifying, ideating, developing, and implementing. CPS balances divergent and convergent thinking. Divergent thinking generates a lot of ideas and options, while convergent thinking evaluates those ideas and results in a decision. In CPS, divergent thinking and convergent thinking are separate, with participants generating lots of ideas before evaluating them.

Students learned the process of Creative Problem Solving through readings and a case study day. In the 2017 class, students wanted to tackle education for the case study day. Here, they applied the 4 steps of CPS in small groups. Some groups used standard group brainstorming tactics during ideation, and others used techniques like brainwriting or personal brainstorming followed by group sharing. Everyone took a break during ideation to allow for incubation and found that the break actually helped them develop additional ideas. Upon completion of ideation, students worked to select ideas using some of the tools developed by Creative Education Foundation, including Dot stickers and Evaluation Matrix. Finally, students created an implementation plan to make their ideas a reality.

This CPS case study day gives students tools and techniques to help them frame and solve ambiguous problems. Students understand the need for structure around creative problem solving, and begin to learn how they can lead groups to novel solutions. This crucial skill is important to successful leadership (Northouse, 2016).

Throughout the course, students practice brain teasers (9 dot exercise or 30 circles exercise). Sometimes they invent new uses for everyday items, or combine two things to create something new. These short exercises, together with the previously mentioned activities, help students expand their thinking, recognize the power of creativity to engage, and learn how to create a culture to enhance creative thinking.

Outcomes/Results and Reflections of the Practitioner

Students adore the class, and consider it one of their favorites. In past years, students always rated the course above college average. Their qualitative comments were also strong, saying things like:

- "We learned a great amount of knowledge and did lots of critical thinking"
- "She taught me the importance of creativity and change and how that makes us a good leader"
- "I learned so much about myself and how to become better"
- "I realized I am capable of being more creative … and I think about the concepts that we learned on a regular basis"
- "This was truly a life changing experience"
- "I learned how to improve myself in and out of the workplace"

References

Adobe. (2012). State of create study: Infographic. http://www.adobe.com/aboutadobe/pressroom/pdfs/Adobe_State_of_Create_Infographic.pdf

Amabile, T. (1997). Motivating creativity in organizations: On doing what you love and loving what you do. California Management Review, 40(1), 39-56.

Bronson, P. & Merryman. A. (2010). "The creativity crisis." Newsweek.

Collard, P. & Looney, J. (2014). Nurturing creativity in education. European Journal of Education, vol. 49, issue 3, pp. 348–364.

Cranfield University (n.d.). Arts-based leadership development: Applications and impacts. Centre for Executive Learning and Leadership. Retrieved from http://www.som.cranfield.ac.uk/som/dinamic-content/research/documents/arts_based_development.pdf

Creative Education Foundation. (2014). Creative problem solving resource guide. Buffalo, NY: Creative Education Foundation.http://www.creativeeducationfoundation.org/wp-content/uploads/2015/06/CPS-Guide-6-3-web.pdf.

Csikszentmihalyi, M. (1990). Flow: The psychology of optimal experience. New York, NY: HarperCollins.

Egar, J.M. (2011, May 9). *President's committee makes strongest case ever for arts education*. Huffington Post Blog.

Harding, T. (2010). Fostering creativity for leadership and leading change. Arts Education Policy Review, vol. 111, pp. 51-53.

Forrester Consulting. (2014). The creative dividend: How creativity impacts business results. Retrieved from http://adobe.ly/1uVMtZX

IBM. (2010). Capitalizing on complexity: Insight from the global chief executive officer. IBM CEO Study. Portmouth, UK: IBM Corporation.

Kelly, L. (2015). Yes, and: How improvisation reverses "no, but" thinking and improves creativity and collaboration--Lessons from the second city. New York: Harper Collins.

Miller, B., Vehar, J., Firestien, Thurber, S., & Nielsen, D. (2011). Creativity unbound: An introduction to creative process. Evanston, IL: FourSight.

Northouse, P.G. (2016). Leadership: Theory and practice (7th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Sawyer, K. (2012). *Explaining creativity: The science of human innovation*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Puccio, G., Mance, M., & Murdock, M. (2011). Creative leadership: Skills that drive change (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage

Puccio, G., Cabra, J. & Schwagler, N. (2014). "10 Reasons to Flex Your Creative Muscle: From FourSight." World Creativity and Innovation Week. Retrieved from http://wciw.org/2014/02/11/10-reasons-to-flex-your-creative-muscle-from-foursight/

Purg, D. (2010). Arts-based leadership development at the IEDC-Bled School of Management. Business Leadership Review.

Schwartz, T. & Porath, C. (2014). "Why You Hate Work." The New York Times.

Tawadros, T. (2015). Developing the theater of leadership: An exploration of practice and the need for research. Advances in Developing Human Resources, vol. 17, no. 3, pp. 337–347.

The Energy Project & Harvard Business Review (2014). ” “The Human Era @ Work.” Retrieved from, http://documents.kenyon.edu/humanresources/Whitepaper_Human_Era_at_Work.pdf

PhotoVoice as a Means of Meaning Making in a Leadership Theory Course

Jackie Bruce, Abigail Whitaker, & Caroline Clement
North Carolina State University

Abstract

In this practice, an instructor used photovoice to engage students in essential meaning making and critical thinking tasks. Designed to push students to connect the very abstract nature of leadership theory to their own "everyday lives", this practice moved students out into the(ir) worlds and helped them understand leadership was not "out there" somewhere untouchable and ineffectual in their lives, but right where they were every day. The instructor discovered while students were first reticent about the project (several questions were posed about what "counted" as a photo), student feedback about the assignment at the end of the semester was positive. While incredibly important, positive feedback was secondary to the learning students demonstrated throughout the semester using this practice.

Introduction & Literature Review

For many students, leadership theory is incredibly abstract, but it is particularly so for students who have few formal leadership experiences (ex: clubs/organizations, sports participation, etc) or who have not previously formally studied leadership concepts. How do we as instructors help students take abstract theories and not only make them more real and concrete, but assist them in seeing the application of theory in their everyday lives? It is foundational to understand the intersection of critical thinking, active learning, and meaning making.

Frankl (1963) explained that meaning is essential in our lives. People want to understand and make meaning of our lives and experiences because at its heart, this is what makes us human (Kraus, 2005). Further, Kraus told us, "meanings are the cognitive categories that make up one's view of reality...A person draws meanings from, or gives meanings to, events and experiences... As such, meaning is the underlying motivation behind thoughts, actions and even the interpretation and application of knowledge." (pg. 762-763). When we consider meaning making in relation to learning, we can look to Mezirow who shared "learning is defined as the social process of construing and appropriating a new or revised interpretation of the meaning of one's experience as a guide to action" (Mezirow, 1994, pp. 222-223). In the case of this assignment, students were asked to construct new or revise old interpretations they had about leadership in order to help them understand leadership and its proximity to their own lives is much closer than they may have previously considered.

Prince (2004) defined active learning as "any instructional method that engages students in the learning process...whose core element is student activity..." (pg.1). We know students who are actively engaged in the learning process retain (and use) more of what they learn. So then it follows that faculty must spend less time as 'sage on the stage' and more time as 'learning facilitators', helping students to identify ways that make the most sense for them.

Duron, Limbach and Waugh (2006) described the marriage between active learning and critical thinking:

> "Active learning can make the course more enjoyable for both teachers and students, and, most importantly, it can cause students to think critically. For this to happen, educators must give up the belief that students cannot learn the subject at hand unless the teacher covers it. While it is useful for students to gain some exposure to the material through pre-class readings and overview lectures, students really do not understand it until they actively do something with it and reflect on the meaning of what they are doing."

As educators, we prepare students to be 21st century leaders and it's essential to help them become active in the learning process, not passive. Students cannot sit passively in class, or in the case of asynchronous environments, on their computers, with instructors doing the heavy lifting of thinking (Maiorana, 1991).

For this practice, an instructor used the advice of Duron, Limbach, and Waugh (2006) and prepared a weekly, asynchronous course assignment requiring students to actively engage with course content and their own worlds (however they chose to define them), in order to build critical thinking skills, create new meanings of leadership for themselves, and apply leadership theory and tools to their own real life situations.

Description of the Practice

This assignment was based on Walter, Baller, and Kuntz's (2012) work where students used PhotoVoice to evaluate different dimensions of health and environmental impacts of college student use of alcohol and tobacco on campus. Students defined environmental impact individually for their first round of photos, and were then asked by instructors to consider additional concepts such as socio-cultural impacts and how they influenced interpretation of the photos. Through this experience, students saw their own environments from new perspectives and increased their individual awareness of effects of alcohol and tobacco used by those in their environments. An increase in awareness, though in a context different from that used in this particular practice situation, was one of the outcomes the instructor was hoping for in adapting the assignment to leadership theory.

[Course] and [University] is the introductory leadership theory course, and is required of all students in the [major] and [minor], and is also an elective course for the [college]. Approximately 150 students take the course annually, either face-to-face or via distance. For purposes of this practice, we worked with distance-enrolled students using the Moodle learning management system.

Northouse's *Leadership Theory and Practice 7th edition* was used as the course text, and each week students read a chapter and viewed PowerPoint presentation and supplemental video on content focused on reinforcing essential concepts. Following this, students began photovoice Guided Reflections, designed to help make connections between course content and their own lives, to see leadership in places they may not have considered before. PGR had two parts – photo posts and written reflective writing, described in detail below.

In the course syllabus and via the learning management system, students received the following directions for the PGRs:

- <u>Part One:</u> Go out into your world and take a minimum of one photo (hopefully you'll take several) that you believe accurately depicts the concepts that we are working with that week in class. Photos must be your original photographs—no Google Images, Getty photos, etc., and they must have been taken within two weeks of the unit under study!
- <u>Part Two:</u> Post that photo to Moodle each week in the provided forum and answer the related reflection questions found below.
- <u>Part Three:</u> Reflect on at least two (2) other classmates' photo entries each week first by answering the required questions, but also by making comments, asking your own questions, etc. always related to leadership and course content, to inspire leadership discussion and reflection!

To further clarify photo parameters, the following information was provided:

- You must take pictures in public settings. Public settings are anywhere that is not restricted (club meetings, political rallies, are public settings; someone's private home is not). If you choose to take photos of people, they must be of public figures doing their jobs as public figures (in other words, don't be a paparazzi with a long lens).
- If you take pictures of private citizens, you will need to fuzz out their faces, or take the photos from far enough distance that the faces are not easily identifiable unless you have the express permission of that individual to take the photo.

Once student post their photos, they are required to complete a guided reflection. Questions remain the same each week, allowing students to have a consistent guide as they wrestle with challenging content. Guided reflection questions include;

- Describe what is happening in your photograph.
- Why did you take a photo of this?
- What does this picture tell us about leadership and this week's topic?
- How does this photo show leadership challenges or opportunities?
- How can you act in your leadership journey based on what we see in your photo?
- Did you use at least one citation from the textbook in your responses?

After photo and reflection are posted in the LMS, students are then asked to engage with each other using the forum as the medium. They can comment on classmates' photos, on the content of each other's reflections, or both, as long as comments are not evaluative in nature (no "great post" or "I love your photo" type comments allowed) and focus on incorporating course content. The goal is to come as close to "real time" discussion about content as possible in an asynchronous environment.

Discussion of Outcomes/ Results

At the outset of the semester, students were hesitant about the assignments. Many believed if they were not involved in traditional leadership activities on campus (student organizations, student government, Greek Life), they had no subject matter for photos. Still others were worried they did not possess the photography skills necessary to be successful with the assignment, or

that their equipment (or lack thereof) would be an impediment. The instructor also spent significant time explaining what constituted a photo, what content was or was not appropriate, and the circumstances in which photos could be taken (ex. could they take photos of something on their TV and turn it in, could they use a photo that someone else took of them). However, by the end of the term, students provided several pieces of positive feedback about the experience (via both formal and informal course evaluations). Overall, students enjoyed opportunities to take photos in their own environments. Several commented taking the photographs allowed the instructor and classmates to get to know them in real ways, even in an online environment. Still others remarked it was fun to "show off" their family, friends, and communities as part of the assignment. Many students also appreciated the unique, creative outlet to demonstrate their understanding of course content.

The assignment was intended to help students bring leadership from 'outside' their lives and see it as a part of themselves and their worlds. Throughout the semester, students remarked they didn't often think of family members or peers, or even themselves, as leaders because they lacked formal leadership titles or positions. In thinking about finding leadership in their own spaces, students were able to reevaluate leadership positions and discovered all of these people are, in fact, leading in big and small ways. This experience allowed them then to apply the theories they learned about and them to explain and predict leadership behaviors, evaluate leader effectiveness, and grab hold of opportunities to influence peers and organizations. The instructor also found that students in another distance section of the same course where guided prompts were used without photos, students wrote more in both initial posts and reply posts in the photovoice course. While there no quantifiable data supports this assertion, it is this instructor's belief that the photos were a great catalyst for discussion and reflection that perhaps encouraged students to write more.

Recommendations

Recommendations for this practice:
- Be prepared to set parameters and guidelines for students taking photos. The initial set of instructions describing types of photos allowed for the assignment should include discussion of acceptable subject matter and obtaining permissions for people at minimum. Beyond that, parameters for photos can be as tight or as loose as the instructor deems appropriate. This instructor believed fewer rules better allowed for students to make their own meaning of the content in whatever way made sense to them. Instructors may vary parameters by week or blanket instructions can be given at the outset of the term, as was the case here.
- Similarly to the photo parameters and directions, the same can be said for the guided reflection prompts. In this case, because this was an introductory course, the instructor determined providing more direct and prescriptive guides for reflections helped students focus on making connections between abstract leadership concepts and their own lives. However, in the case of a more advanced undergraduate course or a graduate course, instructors might provide fewer (or no) prompts, instead allowing for more organic and personal reflection.
- Have students post photos and their guided reflections several days before conversation deadlines/due dates. In other words, photos and guided reflections might be due Thursday

night, while discussions (reply posts to others photos and guided reflections) may be due Sunday evening. This structure allows students time to post initial photos, and then think and reflect before returning to view other posts to help encourage discussion.

References

Duron, R., Limbach, B., & Waugh, W. (2006). Critical thinking framework for any discipline. *International Journal of Teaching and Learning in Higher Education*, *17*(2), 160-166.

Frankl, V. (1963). Man's search for meaning. Boston: Beacon Press.

Krauss, S. E. (2005). Research paradigms and meaning making: A primer. *The qualitative report*, *10*(4), 758-770.

Maiorana, V. P. (1991). The road from rote to critical thinking. *Community Review*, *11*, 53-63.

Mezirow, J. (1994). Understanding transformation theory. Adult Education Quarterly, 44(4), 222-232.

Prince, M. (2004). Does active learning work? A review of the research. *Journal of engineering education*, *93*(3), 223-231.

Educating and Developing Principled Leaders: Implementing an Empirical Model of Servant Leadership within a Values-Based, Residential University Community

Benjamin P. Dean
The Citadel, Charleston, SC

Abstract

This case study examines a leadership innovation by which The Citadel, a state higher education institution located in Charleston, South Carolina, continues to fulfill its mission and tradition of educating and developing principled leaders. Applying a five-stage change process, the institution adopted and began formally implementing in 2016 a theoretically grounded, empirical model of servant leadership, using a validated survey instrument to assess learning outcomes and educational effectiveness. The study describes an organizational change process employed to-date in planning, preparing for, and implementing the project. The study offers recommendations for infusing values-based leadership behaviors within a university community, emphasizing residential undergraduate students. Key words: *Leadership education, leadership behaviors, innovation, theory application, strategy design, change process, best practice, assessment.*

Introduction

Could a university with a strong commitment to values-based leadership implement a theoretically grounded, empirical model of leadership to fully achieve its organizational mission of educating and developing principled leaders? That question sets forth the central leadership education challenge that in 2015 confronted The Citadel, a state institution located in Charleston, South Carolina. In response, The Citadel launched an initiative to find and implement a model that would fit its established core values as a historic institution. Such an initiative also would enable the university to more effectively guide and assess its efforts in leadership education. Since The Citadel's founding in 1842 as an educational institution, it has combined a rigorous higher education with a classical military environment for character formation and leadership development (The Citadel, 2016, sec. "The Corps of Cadets"). The Citadel's undergraduate daytime students comprise the South Carolina Corps of Cadets, totaling approximately 2,300 undergraduate students. To this undergraduate residential community, The Citadel Graduate College adds over 1,000 students in various graduate and evening undergraduate degree completion programs, offering on-campus and online courses in a civilian context (The Citadel, 2016, sec. "Welcome to The Citadel"). The Citadel's stated higher education mission for all students is "to educate and develop our students to become principled leaders in all walks of life" (The Citadel, 2016, sec. "Mission Statement").

Long before launching this initiative in late 2015, The Citadel's history and tradition had firmly established its organizational culture and a values-based philosophy of leadership. By consensus within the university community – including among alumni and other stakeholders, the term "principled leaders" centers on three core values: "Honor, Duty, and Respect" (The Citadel, 2016, sec. "Core Values"). The community expects The Citadel's leadership to be applied broadly across four major functional areas (see The Citadel, 2012, p. 11), articulated as the "four

pillars": character, academics, military, and fitness (The Citadel, 2017). This background created a highly favorable environment for undertaking this ethical leadership innovation.

Even so, The Citadel still needed to address certain challenges to more fully achieve its stated mission. A particular concern arose because no theoretical model underlay its leadership approach. The existing principled leadership approach lacked a sufficient conceptual and empirical basis for articulating and applying the approach consistently across various curricula or for reliably measuring progress in leadership education. A small group of people interested in these issues coalesced to evaluate informally these conceptual and empirical gaps in the existing leadership approach. This group, in which I participated, served as an on-campus project team to formulate and to refine the institution's approach to principled leadership. The specific goal was to undergird The Citadel's leadership philosophy with an appropriate conceptual, evidence-based model. This effort evolved as an organizational change process covering five discernible stages.

The first stage represented an organizational diagnosis phase that had revealed the conceptual and empirical gaps in the institution's approach to leadership education. The diagnosis also identified a need to work through certain organizational cultural challenges. To effectively fill the gaps in its existing approach, the institution needed to identify a suitable theoretical model that could guide the community in its mission of teaching and developing leaders. The model would have to align with and reinforce the organization's mission, core values, and strategic goals. Finding such a model required a further stage in the process.

The second stage focused on finding an empirically tested leadership model that could also enhance institutional assessment. The steps required within this stage included designing, coordinating, and preparing a coherent plan for the new initiative. Also within that process, close collaboration among several key leadership-focused entities would be indispensable for achieving broad participation and support by the university community.

Review of Related Scholarship

Considering The Citadel's well-established organizational culture – shaped by history and traditions, the main challenge required clarifying and reinforcing a mental model regarding what behaviors and actions accurately define a shared understanding of what a principled leader is (see Schein, 1985). An opening for organizational change arose from a general recognition that the institution depended on well-defined elements to guide its leadership education mission and to measure progress toward achieving it. A theoretically grounded empirical model of leadership could provide such elements. Indeed, the university community expressly recognizes that "a strong foundation of leadership theory is essential to the development of principled leaders" (The Citadel Foundation, 2017). For reasons of time, cost, and other resource limitations, the university viewed an effort to develop an empirical model as infeasible. The alternative was to review the field of leadership studies to find the most appropriate existing model.

Among the myriad of theoretically sound, empirically tested models of leadership, the institution needed to identify one within the particular subset of *ethical* leadership models. The project team formulated a set of clear criteria to focus the search. These criteria included: (a) a good values fit and a vocabulary acceptable to the organizational members and stakeholders; (b) enough flexibility to prepare all its students in any profession or career field they might enter; (c)

behaviors defined sufficiently to guide instruction and learning outcomes; and (d) a reliable and validated survey instrument for assessment. Among various ethical leadership models, the project group gradually focused on the further subset encompassing *servant leadership*.

While most theories of leadership consider influence as a key or even the main defining element, servant leadership theories shift a leader's focus to the aspect of service, which emphasizes the needs of followers (van Dierendonck, 2011, p. 1229). Contemporary servant leadership models trace back four decades to Robert Greenleaf (see Greenleaf, 1977; see also Anderson, 2008). As research on servant leadership has continued to develop, several empirical models have emerged (Northouse, 2016, pp. 226, 239-240; see also Brown & Bryant, 2015; Berger, 2014). The emergence of different empirical constructs in itself has generated some confusion about how to operationalize and prescribe behaviors for leaders, elements van Dierendonck described as "key characteristics of servant leadership behavior" (2011, pp. 1229, 1234).

Description of the Practice

The foregoing stages of the leadership innovation essentially captured the two conceptual phases of the organizational change process. The first required diagnosing and articulating criteria for filling the identified gaps, specifically in how to conceptualize the institution's values-based approach, and how to measure effectiveness. The second involved surveying ethical leadership models that would meet certain defined criteria. These stages led to the next phase of the process.

In this third stage our team undertook to identify and select a servant leadership model suitable for teaching and developing such leadership. We were primarily interested in those studies that seek to define and measure servant leadership as observable behaviors or actions (see, e.g., Liden, Wayne, Zhao, & Henderson, 2008; Patterson, 2003; Russell & Stone, 2002; van Dierendonck & Nuijten, 2011). This stage required carefully examining and then adopting a particular servant leadership model that would provide a clearly defined set of behaviors for practical use within our university community. The team saw that several servant leadership models might meet the criteria we had set. These criteria guided us to two multidimensional models that held the best prospects for clearly defined and measurable behaviors: Liden, Wayne, Zhao, and Henderson (2008); and van Dierendonck and Nuijten (2011). Liden, et al. viewed servant leadership as a construct substantially distinct from other familiar leadership theories; their studies yielded seven dimensions defining servant leadership (Liden et al., 2008, p. 175). Van Dierendonck and Nuijten (2011) developed and validated a model with eight dimensions. Reliable and validated survey instruments accompany both models.

While both of these empirical models reflect important advances in the conceptual development of servant leadership and its behavioral dimensions, the team ultimately opted for van Dierendonck and Nuijten's (2011) model. Three chief reasons supported our choice. One reason was that the model's dimensions appeared to be more readily identifiable with our institutional core values: honor, duty, and respect. The model afforded a close enough fit with our core values to enable us to informally map the eight behaviors against those values. Second, Van Dierendonck and Nuijten intentionally sought to define servant leadership as observable leader behaviors (pp. 250–251). Through a series of empirical studies, the researchers derived eight distinct behaviors: empowerment, accountability, "standing back," humility, stewardship,

authenticity, courage, and forgiveness (acceptance) (pp. 259–61). The definition of each of these elements adheres to existing leadership literature (see behaviors and definitions in the Appendix, below). Such well-defined dimensions serve as a reliable prescriptive guide for instructing, observing, and measuring leadership behaviors. A third reason emerged for selecting this model in that its instrument proved easy-to-use and readily accessible. The Servant Leadership Survey (SLS) consists of 30 items scored on a six-point Likert scale. The SLS expressly states it may be used without charge for scientific purposes (p. 256, Table 1), which was also confirmed by the developer (D. van Dierendonck, personal communication, January 29, 2016).

In the fourth stage of the innovation process the team moved toward formal approval of the model. This stage encompassed closely related dynamics: continuing to build consensus by communicating and coordinating with key representatives on-campus, and advocating for the necessary intermediate approvals. The team needed to impart a high level of confidence that servant leadership could be embraced across the university community and show that the particular leadership model could be applied practically within our organizational context. In April 2016, the team presented the entire project to The Citadel's president, who reviewed the foundations of the eight servant leadership behaviors and granted approval for us to proceed.

Successful progress in those four stages opened the way for the fifth and final stage, which involved actually implementing the leadership model on-campus and infusing those behaviors in ways that could more broadly impact and shape the organizational culture. By this point, curiosity about "the Eight Behaviors" was gaining momentum. This opened new doors for presentations in various units across the campus. The team also began developing the means for integrating the behaviors into the learning objectives of courses and for assessing desired outcomes in educating and developing leaders.

Discussion of Outcomes/Results

At this early point in The Citadel's leadership innovation, the outcomes produced by this change process remain positive. Progress continues across all four of the major functional areas, albeit not at the same rate or to the same depth. Implementation started in the academic area by embedding the leadership model's elements into course curricula. Certain existing courses readily afforded an immediate opportunity for incorporating the eight servant leadership behaviors into undergraduate and graduate curricula. Over a ten-week period in 2016, faculty members embedded elements by revising the learning objectives, instructional content, and key assignments in two face-to-face undergraduate courses and one online graduate course.

Evaluating and measuring the key leadership behaviors so far have mainly involved assessing learning outcomes by focusing on students' recognition and comprehension of the behaviors. One particular undergraduate course provides a clear example of how the institution has begun to measure learning outcomes. The Department of Leadership Studies has constructed a graded project assignment embedding servant leadership behaviors into a case. The students are required to analyze the case and write a structured essay identifying the behaviors and explaining the supporting evidence. Taskstream software compares the outcomes against learning objectives.

The Citadel has also begun to apply a multidisciplinary approach by incorporating one or more of the key behaviors into the learning outcomes of leadership-related courses taught in various academic departments. Key behaviors, as appropriate, can be integrated into the reflective analysis required of students engaged in high impact learning opportunities, such as internships, study abroad, and undergraduate research. The institution is further extending the project by embedding the behaviors into learning outcomes of co-curricular and student affairs activities. Within the military functional area, leadership training modules for the Corps of Cadets and the current Cadet Leader Development Program (The Citadel, 2017) have undergone revision to expressly incorporate these behaviors. Certain units within the institution already are accruing research benefits by leveraging the leadership model's behavioral dimensions into small-scale studies. An institutional review board has approved formal research requests to administer the SLS instrument among populations within the university community and to collect other data on how effectively the behavioral dimensions are understood and applied. These studies at The Citadel include a quantitative cross-sectional study of cadets, an interview-based qualitative study of Citadel staff officers ("TAC officers") who mentor cadets on-campus, and an ongoing quantitative longitudinal study that now includes the behaviors in its focus on students engaged in high-impact and civic engagement activities in Charleston. These examples expand possibilities for collecting and analyzing data derived from various campus populations.

Yet another example shows how The Citadel's campus community is more broadly engaging the transformation. The Human Resources department has integrated the model's key behaviors into its "supervisors' boot camp," a leadership training event for supervisors – four such sessions having been conducted or planned, and engaging major services departments on-campus. This example evokes one of the initial purposes in conceptualizing and launching this initiative: to clarify and reinforce an organizationally shared mental model about how to fully achieve the goal of educating and developing principled leaders, not just on-campus but in all walks of life.

Reflections of the Practitioner

As described above, this case study sets forth the practical experience of a higher education institution adopting and implementing a conceptual model of servant leadership. This project responds to a much wider need for institutions to understand how they can design effective leadership programs, including for servant leadership (see van Dierendonck, 2011, p. 1253). This case also exemplifies how a leadership innovation can unfold through the recognized stages of a process of organizational diagnosis and transformation. Our experience to-date tends to confirm the requirements and dynamics of preparing for and achieving a major change initiative within an organization (see Kotter, 1996). This includes the need to anticipate and prepare for resistance arising from a variety of natural and cogent reasons, as Lewin (1947) articulated.

Even with the advantage of The Citadel's well-established core values and generally accepted philosophy of leadership, the university community needed a refined and shared language and vocabulary. In fact, this lack of one language posed problems. For example, our early experience revealed misconceptions and confusion about – and thus potential resistance to – the phrase "servant leadership." That problem is not unique to The Citadel and originated partly during servant leadership's early development while constructs were still emerging. But conforming to van Dierendonck's advice (2011, p. 1251), the team focused on the leadership behaviors

themselves and on how those behaviors help *to educate and develop principled leaders*. The language challenge we had not anticipated, however, was resistance arising from some people on-campus who misinterpreted the word *model* and questioned any need to adopt any "new model." That was a misnomer, but the institution's longstanding, values-based leadership philosophy had become so well-established that the community was accustomed to referring to the three core values as a "principled leadership *model*." We thus had to adapt our language to emphasize that the purpose of the initiative was not to create a new model, but rather, to "refine our approach." Similarly, our presentations on the value of an actual model that is "theoretically grounded, empirically based" became better understood by emphasizing its value in terms of implementing an *evidence-based* set of behaviors for educating and developing leaders.

To-date, the team has adhered closely to the definitions van Dierendonck and Nuijten (2011) applied to the eight behavioral dimensions (see Appendix). But challenges may arise in ensuring we are implementing the dimensions without diluting their meaning or otherwise compromising their academic integrity and potential value for assessment and research.

Recommendations

This process of implementing a leadership model remains ongoing and thus incomplete. Even so, the team's direct experience offers some valuable lessons. The first recommendation reflects the importance of treating any leadership innovation as an organizational change process. Our experience affirms the need to remain mindful of basic principles engaging the stages of an organizational change process. Although our own process could have been more purposeful and structured, early on we did put into place crucial pieces. Notably, we formed the team who gradually assumed an essential role as change agents and advocates for the innovation.

Another recommendation is to keep the change process flexible and adaptive, progressively broadening it by inviting others. But the change agents must also remain firm about goals and priorities. This requires a balance between opening the process, yet protecting indispensable criteria that preserve the model's value. In retrospect, our team could have expanded sooner.

A final recommendation concerns how best to integrate the leadership behaviors into the university community even more widely. The Citadel's progress is now mainly focused on the Corps of Cadets. Looking beyond just a residential community of undergraduate students, the institution must consider how to extend change into other student and non-student populations.

Conclusion

In sum, by adopting and implementing an evidence-based servant leadership model, The Citadel has embraced a reliable set of well-defined behaviors to more fully achieve and accurately gauge its mission of producing principled leaders. As the university community embraces these behaviors, one can see momentum increasing toward a shared understanding of what this ethical leadership model looks like in action. This innovation affords a valuable new means to guide and evaluate leadership education and development across the university community.

References

Anderson, J. (2008). The writings of Robert K. Greenleaf: An interpretive analysis and the future of servant leadership. In Servant Leadership Research Roundtable. Regent University. Retrieved from http://colowebsite.regent.edu/acad/global/publications/sl_proceedings/2008/anderson.pdf

Berger, T. A. (2014). Servant Leadership 2.0: A Call for Strong Theory. Sociological Viewpoints, 30(1), 146–167.

Brown, S., & Bryant, P. (2015). Getting to know the elephant: A call to advance servant leadership through construct consensus, empirical evidence, and multilevel theoretical development. Servant Leadership: Theory & Practice, 2(1), 10–35.

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

Kotter, J. P. (1996). Leading change. Boston, Mass.: Harvard Business School Press.

Lewin, K. (1947). Frontiers in Group Dynamics: II. Channels of Group Life; Social Planning and Action Research. Human Relations, 1(2), 143–153. https://doi.org/10.1177/001872674700100103

Liden, R. C., Wayne, S. J., Zhao, H., & Henderson, D. (2008). Servant leadership: Development of a multidimensional measure and multi-level assessment. The Leadership Quarterly, 19(2), 161–177. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2008.01.006

Patterson, K. A. (2003). Servant leadership: A theoretical model. Regent University, Virginia Beach, VA.

Russell, R. F., & Stone, A. G. (2002). A review of servant leadership attributes: Developing a practical model. Leadership & Organization Development Journal, 23(3), 145–157. https://doi.org/10.1108/01437730210424

Schein, E. H. (1985). Organizational culture and leadership. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

The Citadel. (2012). The LEAD plan 2018: The Citadel's strategic plan to promote leadership excellence and academic distinction. The Citadel. Retrieved from http://www.citadel.edu/root/images/leadplan/theLEADplan_forweb.pdf

The Citadel. (2016). Retrieved November 26, 2016, from http://www.citadel.edu/root/

The Citadel. (2017, May). Cadet Leader Development Program AY 2017-2018. (Available from the Krause Center for Leadership and Ethics, The Citadel, 171 Moultrie Street, Charleston, SC 29409).

The Citadel Foundation. (2017). Retrieved May 31, 2017, from
http://campaign.citadel.edu/priorities/leader-development/office-of-the-provost

van Dierendonck, D. (2011). Servant leadership: A review and synthesis. Journal of
Management, 37(4), 1228–1261. https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206310380462

van Dierendonck, D., & Nuijten, I. (2011). The servant leadership survey: Development and
validation of a multidimensional measure. Journal of Business and Psychology, 26(3), 249–267.
https://doi.org/10.1007/s10869-010-9194-1

Appendix
SERVANT LEADERSHIP BEHAVIORS OF A PRINCIPLED LEADER

Eight Behaviors/Actions	**Behaviors/Actions Defined**
Empowering others for action and decision-making.	Enabling and encouraging the personal development of others, believing in the inherent value of each individual, and giving authority and power to make decisions.
Holding team members accountable for results.	Holding others accountable for performance and outcomes within their control, ensuring they know what is expected.
Putting team members first.	Serving others by giving support and priority to the interest of others and by giving them credit for achievements.
Keeping a balanced view of one's own importance.	Viewing one's own strengths and weaknesses in a balanced perspective that recognizes the abilities of others and invites their contributions; demonstrating humility.
Staying authentic to one's real self.	Staying open and truthful with others by acting consistently with who one is as a person; demonstrating authenticity by accurately representing one's true intention, and commitments; not behaving inconsistently, that is, according to a role or position.
Acting and speaking with courage.	Engaging challenging situations proactively and strongly by relying on values and convictions. Taking risks that are reasonable in view of potential benefits, particularly for innovation and creativity.
Creating trust that permits others to make and learn from mistakes.	Creating an environment of trust and freedom in which others can make and learn from mistakes. Accepting and understanding others, to build trust and healthy interpersonal relationships, and to bring out best efforts of others; making reasonable efforts to avoid rejecting or punishing others; not trying to get even.
Developing people and resources.	Taking responsibility for the value of people and resources; stewarding them in the common interest versus using them in one's self-interest.

Adapted from Van Dierendonck & Nuijten (2011).

Learning Servant Leadership and Identifying Community-Based Strategies in Times of Divide: A Student, Faculty, Community Partner Interfaith Collaboration

Margaret Douglas & Dr. Kristine Hoover
Gonzaga University

Abstract

In times of deep political and religious divide and limited resources, the need for developing leadership that influences and heals our communities is particularly critical. Using service-learning, combined with community engaged scholarship, this pedagogical approach enhanced student transformation, involved and benefited the community growing together, and explored potential contributions to literature in servant leadership. The collaboration involved designing and planning a three-hour event and data collection to address combatting hate and creating greater compassion. Student, faculty, and community worked together in this independent project and reflections indicate significant efficacy of servant leadership in the interfaith community with actionable and accessible outcomes.

Introduction

The demand for leadership continues to be a strong and present need in our global society. At the 2017 Annual Meeting of the World Economic Forum, the chairman stated "We must never forget that we live in an interdependent world...If we recognize that we are all part of a global community, then we have to overcome our prejudices and work together in a practical fashion while genuinely respecting each other's identity and dignity" (Schwab, 2017). In business, Uber CEO explicitly acknowledged, "I need leadership help" (McGregor, 2017). Students across the country in business and public policy have written to the U.S. President asking for greater leadership to create jobs, businesses and benefits of clean energy (Holz & Serrurier, 2017). In the complex contexts of economics, education, politics, religion, and multiple other forms of identity and worldviews, these are a small sample of the need to effectively develop a leadership pipeline and the necessity for continued innovation in relevant leadership education and development. The learning outcomes for the innovative practice presented here were:

1. The student will be able to experience the deeper meaning of enacting servant leadership in the complex context of an interfaith dialog (Servant leadership elements of persuasion, conceptualization, foresight and stewardship)
2. The community will be able to identify strategic actions to combat hate and create greater compassion as well as enhance their own motivation to act (Servant leadership elements of listening, empathy, healing, awareness, growth of people, and building community)
3. The student and faculty member will be able to study the community's perceived effectiveness of several servant leadership elements.

To be effective, leadership educators must design opportunities aligned with leadership learning outcomes and grounded in leadership theory. The innovative practice described in this paper is particularly impactful in that it creates a more holistic learning experience (cognitive, affective, and behavioral) allowing the student to partner with the community and learn research

methodologies; this pedagogy may also be known as undergraduate community-based action research that contributed to the leadership needs of the community. In this student experience, the student was asked to stretch beyond her existing body of servant leadership knowledge and move into higher levels of critical thinking (Bloom, 1956) as related to complex challenges facing today's leaders. In the midst of intellectual, secular conceptions and applications of servant leadership, servant leadership is often observed as a predominantly non-secular approach to leadership theories and practices. As religious foundations serve as the basis for which individuals interpret and categorize the world around them, theories of servant leadership must be accessible beyond any one singular space. For a higher education system to situate itself in such a way to cultivate interfaith dialogue in the community surrounding, the benefits of servant leadership must be applicable beyond predominantly Western categorized spaces.

As such, the authors identify servant leadership, as practiced through service-learning, the central access point for students to understand and respond to society's deepest needs. With the focus of interfaith servant leadership, it is critical for a campus-community partnership to flourish for community members to access neutral spaces and abundance of knowledge and resources, and for students to tap into places of deep fear and anxiety in the community, and reach out with the intention of serving to develop the followers' understanding of empowerment and success.

Review of Related Scholarship

Service-learning models originate in the values of "connect[ing] both disciplinary learning and generational education with...commitment to public purposes" (Felton & Clayton, 2011). In order to separate from the traditional understanding of education as a "process where an individual receives or gives systematic instruction," educators must demonstrate the desire to integrate civic engagement with academic learning (Bugenhagen, 2015). As service-learning evolves into a popular pedagogical approach, the experiences of these practices emerge with a focus around three central themes: advanced learning goals, reciprocal collaboration, and critical reflection (Felton & Clayton, 2011).

The transition from traditional education to service-learning models of learning comes with the "action of acquiring new, or modifying…existing knowledge, behaviors, skills, values, or preferences as well as synthesizing different forms of education" (Bugenhagen, 2015). This nuanced interaction with knowledge is then put into conversation with civic learning and personal growth. Learning processes and outcomes shift towards an interdependent relationship with community processes and outcomes, and students experience strong correlations between their service-learning experiences and "deep learning and personal development" (Felton & Clayton, 2011).

Felton and Clayton's (2011) service-learning research reports students with high exposure to service-learning have higher likelihood of being open "to diverse perspectives and ways of being...and understand more fully the true complexity of social problems." As a consequence, these experiences expose students to the opportunity to develop enhanced empathy, and as a result of their experience, be more likely to practice civic engagement in the community around them.

The employment of service-learning, then, can open the door to practicing theories of servant leadership and strategic learning. Greenleaf's theory of servant leadership, as understood by Larry Spears, challenges leaders to "emphasize increased service to others, a holistic approach to work, promoting a sense of community, and…sharing of power in decision making" (Greenleaf, 2002). Service-learning, then, becomes a fertile option to learning and practicing servant leadership. Larry Spears (2002) identifies ten characteristics of servant leadership to be "of critical importance" to the practice: listening, empathy, healing, awareness, persuasion, conceptualization, foresight, stewardship, commitment to the growth of people, and building community. Although the link between service-learning and servant leadership may seem natural, the pedagogy of service-learning would be incomplete without the practice of "reflection, discussion, analysis, and evaluation of that experience" (Polk, 2013).

Strategically, service-learning will thrive in an environment that supports "substantive change in their organizations and communities" (Langone, 2004). Practicing service-learning in a strategic way requires the organization to examine the "environment and the organization's mission or purpose and making decisions about which visions, activities, and goals to pursue" (Langone, 2004). Making an explicit connection between a service-learning environment and civic engagement enhances a student's ability to create and sustain real change. It is necessary to have a strategic understanding of service-learning in an educational setting to encourage practices of servant leadership and community dialogue.

Eboo Patel (2015) describes the crisis of rapidly changing religious dynamics for higher education institutions, as "prime sites for conflicts involving religious identity." How then, may we place the call for interfaith excellence in conversation with the service-learning and servant leadership? This education, Patel (2015) argues, must be based in empowering students to navigate "complexity, diversity, and change." Students in service-learning courses are positioned in an environment that has the possibility to not only nurture theories of servant leadership, but also cultivate civic engagement and interfaith service beyond the academic setting.

Description of the Practice

Responding to a request from a community partner, faculty and students from one of the University's research institutes engaged to coordinate an event centered around the Interfaith Compassion Games "Souper Bowl Sunday." The initial goal of the event was to "perform compassionate service" as well as "establish/strengthen personal interfaith connections" (J. Broeckling, personal communication, January 19, 2017).

With the intention of being mindful to the multiple faiths represented at the event, it was essential the date of the event not in conflict with any major religious holidays. University resources to host an event with approximately 80 people were assessed. The student, community partner and faculty member together reviewed advertising, communications, and risk management issues. The design of the "Souper Bowl" encouraged attendees to bring crockpots of soup and or canned goods to donate.

Although the community partner and student facilitated the three-hour event, there was no "guest speaker" per se. The event was held on a single evening and separated into three sections: meal,

building relationships, and dialogue. During the meal, participants were encouraged to sit with those that practiced faith differently, and have conversations. During the "building relationships" segment, participants built different forms of bridges at their tables with the donated cans of food and a stack of cards. For the last portion, participants first conversed about the manifestations of fear and hate in their communities and ways in which they actively combat related actions, followed by a request to complete a survey.

Discussion of Outcomes

There were three specific learning outcomes for this innovative practice. The first was deepening the student's understanding of servant leadership in a complex context. The second was the community's identification of strategic actions to combat hate and create greater compassion as well as enhance their own motivation to act. And the third involved the community-engaged scholarship.

For the student, the learning focused on persuasion, conceptualization, foresight and stewardship as elements of servant leadership (Greenleaf, 2002). During the initial discussions regarding the event, as a student working with community leaders and University administration, the student practiced persuasion, which was required given the inherent differences positional power. Persuasion was involved with identifying a date, location, advertising and food logistics.

In the practice of conceptualization, the event was designed to stretch beyond a single night of "breaking bread" together, and included intentional listening, empathy, healing, awareness, growth of people, and building community (Greenleaf, 2002). The opportunity to learn and grow in the area of foresight was evidenced in many ways. The University had several risk management concerns. Multiple crockpots using the outlets in one space was an immediate flag for risk management, the concern being focused around safety hazards for attendees and students. Additionally, concerns were raised because of warm food that was exposed for more than one hour, and unpredictability of food prepared outside a commercial kitchen. As challenges with University policies and procedures increased, the organizers were presented with an opportunity to re-conceptualize and move beyond the "day-to-day focused approach" of leadership solutions (Greenleaf, 2002).

The lesson of foresight was amplified due to these circumstances, as a search was initiated for space in local libraries, community centers, and other non-denominational and non-political gathering spaces. Challenges of open space as well as funding limitations surfaced. Cancelling the event was an alternative of last resort as a true commitment to stewardship was tested. The stewardship learning outcome also became evident when the event was eventually located at a community center in one of the lowest income neighborhoods in the state. In addition, the day of the event brought snow, and with it, many of the elderly participants were unable to attend. The student practiced strategic leadership throughout the event, as she evaluated the needs of the organization, and aligned it with the capacity of the event. Fostering the value of stewardship in the midst of internal and external challenges, thirty adults and children brought soup and other foods to enjoy. Of the thirty attendees, thirteen surveys were collected. The event concluded at the end of the three-hour segment with warm embraces and exchanges of contacts.

For the community partner, growth occurred in the servant leadership areas listening, empathy, healing, awareness, growth of people, and building community. Specifically, the evening's agenda included eating together, building relationships, and dialoguing where these skills could be practiced. Community members began to conceptualize the needs of their own communities, and the communities of others. The Jewish woman's experience of learning Arabic sentences to listen and speak with her Islamic neighbor showed insight for how she may not only meet her neighbor in her own experiences, but also show the willingness to heal deep divisions. The partnership between the University and interfaith organizations not only empowered those involved with the organization of the event to build community, but the attendees as well, as they participated in deconstructing preconceived barriers by simply starting a conversation.

The third learning outcome was community-engaged scholarship. A one-page pencil and paper was administered as a means of collecting data on the evening (Appendix A). Wording on the survey reframed aspects of servant leadership in with the intention of measuring responses to behaviors, and in respect that some faiths may have preconceptions of the concept of servant leadership. The results of the exploratory study allowed a lens for which the university and the community could recognize and serve the needs of their communities. Among the 13 respondents, 46% were female, 15% were male, and 23% were other, or preferred not to answer. The ages of those who responded ranged from 32 years of age to 70 years of age. Faiths and worldviews present were Agnostic and/or Toltec, Islam, Unity Church, Jewish, and Catholic. Both quantitative and qualitative data was collected. Participants were asked to rate responses to the question "How effective are each of the strategies for you in combatting hate?" and to provide examples of various forms of servant leadership behaviors. Ratings were based on a scale of 1 to 5 with 1 being not very effective and 5 being very effective. Average scores were: Learn to enjoy small talk more (listening) 4.18; Give compliments (empathy) 4.18; Open up to people (healing) 4.45: Think of all the ways people can help you (awareness) 4.0; and Volunteer (growth and building community) 4.78. Two open-ended questions were asked: "What was a significant lesson you will take away from this event?" and "What is a recommendation you would make to improve events like this in the future?" Participants indicated they felt inclined to volunteer more often in their community and open up to others, as their experiences provided an avenue for which they may "take a chance" and understand "how easy it is to connect" with one another.

Reflections of the Practitioner

This innovative practice was a result of collaboration by student, faculty, and community partner. Reflections of the practitioners mirror those that organized the study.

The opportunity to strategically engage with the student's undergraduate education, beyond spaces of campus, encouraged the exploration of possibilities when applying knowledge. When conversations and organizations among organizers seemed unoptimistic, all parties looked to align themselves with the understanding of a similar mission: success for all involved. With this recognition, navigating the University's policies became less of a combatant search for answers, and instead a strategic pursuit of opportunities for the interfaith community. The surge of confusion with licenses and risk management left little time to consider best options. As the student had the opportunity to speak more with community members who were to attend, it

became increasingly obvious the need wasn't necessarily to find a *campus* space, but rather, a space of neutrality in the midst of polarization.

The opportunity to align actions with both the University community and the interfaith community presented a unique opportunity: the student's service-learning did not necessarily require her to practice servant leadership for one community, but rather, for each communities involved. As the student listened to the needs of those involved, she was encouraged to "put followers first" and listen with intention and authenticity to the needs of others. Consequentially, the team refocused the location of the event with little difficulty.

The student valued her service-learning because of the unique opportunity to practice servant leadership theories in both secular and non-secular spaces. Her comprehension of Robert Greenleaf's theories on servant leadership redefined itself through the ability to move servant leadership away from predominantly Christian setting, and instead to interfaith and secular spaces.

This experience provided learning opportunities and benefits in both intended and unintended ways. In addition to the stated objectives, the student, community partner, and faculty member also exercised skills in adaptive leadership, with unforeseen aspects of scheduling procedures, risk management, initial misunderstanding of community needs, and weather concerns. This innovative practice effectively placed the student, community partner, and leadership learning objectives first – in contrast to a traditional faculty "sage on the stage" approach. Through the event planning and implementation, the student, community partner, and faculty practiced the embodiment of servant leadership, encouraging the leadership necessary for a civil, democratic society. The survey was an integral aspect of the event, in that it provided a basis for scholarship, and just as importantly provided a mechanism to empower the interfaith community to reflect and generate strategic and accessible action steps.

Recommendations

Moving forward with a deeper understanding and awareness for service-learning opportunities, we recommend a component of similar experiences for students at least once during their tenure at their undergraduate institution. The student's conceptualization of organizing and participating in the community has shifted away from transactional exchanges, to an understanding of collaborating with the community for common good. The intense preparations before the event not only challenged the student's perceptions of working with and serving others, but it also encouraged the development of service beyond the University community.

This service-learning opportunity was independently driven; there were no requirements for action from any class syllabi or professor. As such, the service-learning opportunity was guided outside of an academic setting, but brought together by the guidance of the faculty member and director for the Institute of Hate Studies at the University. By incorporating the support and guidance of a senior faculty member, the student's experience of servant leadership and service-learning went beyond the scope of pure volunteerism. Instead, because the faculty member was attune to the growth and development of the experiences as an undergraduate student, the faculty member reviewed experiences to derive academic and personal meaning. As such, the student's

learning went beyond the lessons of how to navigate university policies, and instead focused on the strategic enhancement of community and civic engagement.

As a consequence, our recommendation resides in the ability for the faculty member to encourage and challenge the experiences of their students, regardless if the experience is spurred by a syllabi or not. The ability for the faculty member at the University to test the limitations of learning for the event provided the student the opportunity to engage with her own experiences as they pertain to the overall development of the human person. It is vital to continue and strengthen educational experiences so we may equip students with the tools and resources to address society's deepest needs.

References

Boyer, E. L. (1990). *Scholarship reconsidered: priorities of the professoriate*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-bass.

Boyer, E. L. (1996). The Scholarship of Engagement. *Journal of Public Service & Outreach, 1*(1), 11-20. Retrieved March 2, 2017.

Bloom, B. S. (1956). *Taxonomy of educational objectives*. New York: David McKay Co Inc.

Bugenhagen, M. (2015). From the Guest Editor's Desk. Retrieved March 1, 2017, from http://www.journalofleadershiped.org/index.php/issues/vol-14-iss-4/413-from-the-guest- editor-s-desk

Greenleaf, R. K., Spears, L. C., Covey, S. R., & Senge, P. M. (2002). *Servant leadership: a journey into the nature of legitimate power and greatness*. New York: Paulist Press.

Felten, P., & Clayton, P. H. (2011). Service-Learning. *New Directions for Teaching and Learning, 128*, 75-84. Retrieved March 2, 2017.

Holz, K., & Serrurier, B. (2017, January 18). Tomorrow's Energy Leaders Call for Leadership. From Trump Today. Retrieved March 1, 2017, from https://www.greentechmedia.com/articles/read/tomorrows-energy-leaders-call-for- leadership-from-trump-today

Huang, H. B. (2010). What is good action research? Why the resurgent interest? *SAGE Publications, 8*(1), 93-109. Retrieved March 2, 2017.

Langone, C. A. (2004). The Use of a Citizen Leader Model for Teaching Strategic Leadership. *Journal of Leadership Education, 3*(1), 82-88. Retrieved May 1, 2017, from http://www.journalofleadershiped.org/attachments/article/58/JOLE_3_1_Langone.pdf

McGregor, J. (2017, March 1). Uber's CEO says 'I need leadership help.' What should it look like? Retrieved March 1, 2017, from https://www.washingtonpost.com/news/on-leadership/wp/2017/03/01/ubers-ceo-says-i-need-leadership-help-what-should-it-loo

Patel, E., Baxter, K. B., & Silverman, N. (2015). Leadership Practices for Interfaith Excellence in Higher Education. *Liberal Education, 101*(1/2), 48-53. Retrieved March 1, 2017.

Polk, D. M. (2013). Cultivating Self-Awareness with Team-Teaching: Connections between Classroom Learning and Experiential Learning. *Journal of Leadership Education, 12*(2), 122-135. Retrieved March 1, 2017, from http://www.journalofleadershiped.org/attachments/article/305/Polk.pdf

Schwab, K. (2017, January 10). A call for responsive and responsible leadership. Retrieved March 1, 2017, from https://www.weforum.org/agenda/2017/01/a-call-for-responsive- and-responsible-leadership/

Appendix A

The following questions are intended to help us evaluate this evenings program and learn how to better build compassion and combat hate.

1. **How effective are each of the strategies for you in combatting hate? 1 = not very effective, 3 = neutral, 5 = very effective**

_____ **Learn to enjoy small talk.** Practice assuming that anyone who talks to you has the best intentions, not the worst. Smile more and be friendly. Show people that you're open to conversation and find common ground with people. Conversation what leads us to build deeper relationships and to get to know people better eventually.
Please share an example of how you might have taken this action this evening:

_____
_____

_____ **Give compliments.** The random compliment you give to a person can make that person's day. Maybe it'll be the only positive interaction that person has all day, and it takes so little effort. Make a habit of giving at least one or two compliments a day to an acquaintance or a perfect stranger to show that you're paying attention.
Please share an example of how you might have taken this action this evening:

_____
_____

_____ **Open up to people.** Make sure to ask people questions about themselves, too. You don't need to bare your soul to the first person you see. However, if you slowly open up to your acquaintances, you may be more inclined to connect with people. *Please share an example of how you might have taken this action this evening:*

_____
_____

_____ **Think of all the ways that people can help you.** Most of the people around you can be viewed as untapped resources. Talking to people more will make you see how much they have to offer to you. You may not know, for example, that your neighbor is a whiz at math until you talk to him more. If people help you with something, help them out in return.
Please share an example of how you might have taken this action this evening:

_____
_____

_____ **Volunteer.** if you make an effort to care about people and to help your community improve and grow, you'll start to feel more connected to the world through the simple act of helping. Just volunteering a few times a month can help you feel more open-minded and like you're making a real difference.
Please share an example of how you might have taken this action this evening:

_____
_____

2. **What was a significant lesson you will take away from this event?**

3. **What is a recommendation you would make to improve events like this in the future?**

4. **Please feel free to share any additional comments with us and thank you for your participation.**

Kansas Leadership Studies Summit:
Cultivating Collaborative Capacity for the Common Good

Kerry Priest
Kansas State University

Clinton M. Stephens
Emporia State University

Brandon W. Kliewer
Kansas State University

Abstract

Bringing together leadership educators from 12 programs and institutions in Kansas, the Leadership Studies Summit fostered new initiatives and strengthened collegial networks. The summit responded to local and national expressed needs for intensive dialogue focusing on collaboration and capacity building among leadership educators for advancing the common good. We will share outcomes of these dialogues, including new initiatives and recommendations for future multi-campus collaborations.

Introduction

It has been widely expressed that more and better leadership is needed at all levels of society; indeed, this call has served as a catalyst for building the leadership capacity of young adults through our colleges and universities (e.g., Zimmerman-Oster & Burkhardt, 2000). Since the moral development of future clergymen, higher education institutions have both contributed to the development of students' leadership capacity and continuously expanded the access to education—with public institutions in the United States have been on the forefront of these efforts. In contemporary times, our state has taken on the mantle of leadership education more directly.

Since the founding of its first Leadership Studies Program in 1993 at Fort Hays State University (Brungardt, 2000), the state of Kansas has been an incubator of new programs in the field of leadership education. Today, a total of ten academic programs are now active at colleges and universities in the state. This concentration of curricular programs is the highest of any state (National Clearinghouse for Leadership Programs, 2016).

One persistent observation by faculty in multiple programs has been a need to convene together these disparate programs. While connecting with in-state colleagues at national conferences is beneficial, it is not fulfilling an expressed need by faculty to collaborate directly with in-state colleagues from all programs together.

The identified need for collaboration across programs reinforces national trends as well. Recently a national report from the Inter-Association Leadership Education Collaborative (2016)

shared that while leadership education provides a platform for addressing critical challenges facing local and global communities,

> … considerable work is necessary to address the gap between our aspirations for a better society and evidence of real and lasting change...Leadership Education organizations and associations can and should bridge this gap and increase boundary-spanning efforts to advance leadership education and development for the next generation. (ILEC, 2016, p. 2)

The ILEC priorities document also identifies three critical focus areas for action: (1) building inclusive learning communities, (2) expanding evidence-based practice through assessment and evaluation, and (3) enhancing our community of practice through professional development and resources (2016).

We believe Kansas leadership educators are poised to make progress, not only in advancing the teaching and learning of leadership, but also in facilitating social change and community development - both of which are priorities articulated within the National Leadership Education Research Agenda (Andenoro et al., 2013). Building on an ALE mini-grant funded in November 2016, this paper highlights the intentional design of a Kansas Leadership Studies Summit, convened in May 2017. The purpose of the summit was to: advancing the common good through collaboration and build capacity among leadership educators across programs in Kansas. Our conference presentation two months after the summit will share timely reflections as well as recommendations for leadership educators in other geographic regions to imitate cross-campus collaborations.

Review of Related Scholarship

Leadership *for What?*

"Leadership for what?" is an essential organizing question for leadership practitioners, educators, and students. Assuming that leadership is socially constructed and values-based (Dugan, 2017) means that the implicit and explicit beliefs, principles, and values shaping our programs have direct implications for pedagogy and leadership practice. The theoretical and conceptual framework for this project is informed by laying a leadership lens over humanity's call for change (e.g., UN's Sustainable Development Goals, Declaration of Human Rights, Earth Charter and others), pointing towards values and practices of socially responsible leadership.

For conceptualizing these practices and the efforts of practitioners and students, we look to the Social Change Model of Leadership Development (Higher Education Research Institute, 1996). This model was developed for use with college students (Higher Education Research Institute). Owen's (2012) research showed this model was the most prevalent theoretical model used by leadership studies programs. The model positions leadership as social responsibility and culminates in benefiting the common good through creating change. Grace (2011) describes the moral urgency for leaders to embrace a common good world-view, one that moves from concern for self and group towards a conscious concern for the good of all, in order to effectively engage the world's greatest challenges in more sustainable, caring, and just ways. Chrislip and

O'Malley's (2013) call for civic leadership echoes "an expanding circle of concern …feeling and taking a broader sense of responsibility for civic concerns that recognizes our individual complicity in these problems, and thus our responsibility for helping make progress on them" (p. 159).

Leadership education, then, plays an important role in helping people not only learn about leadership, but engage in the activity of leadership - through and with the classes, programs, institutions, and communities of which they are a part - toward a common good.

Exercising Leadership

With this framing in mind, we consider then what kind of leadership practices are required to create the conditions for people to accept responsibility to make progress towards change? We draw from practices of adaptive leadership (Heifetz, Grashow, & Linsky, 2009) and strategic social change leadership (Dugan, 2017; Ospina et al., 2012). Adaptive leadership assumes that complex challenges require more than technical solutions generated by experts, but rather a commitment to learning, renegotiating power and authority, involving multiple voices and perspectives, and taking on an experimental mindset to progress (2009). O'Malley and Cebula (2016) merge a common good mindset with the practices of adaptive work, offering a framework for diagnosing and making progress on tough challenges facing our organizations and communities. They suggest one of the hardest parts of exercising leadership is working across factions, or various stakeholder groups, to understand values, loyalties, and losses, and leveraging strengths and connections. Dugan (2017) proposes that a applying a critical sensemaking lens to adaptive leadership practice creates further possibilities for adaptive work to be a collaborative, co-constructed learning process.

Strategic social change leadership (Ospina et al., 2012 as cited in Dugan, 2017) is motivated by a recognition of the realities of systemic inequality and visions of human well-being and justice. Long-term change to structures, policies, and thinking require leadership activities (e.g., organizing, advocacy, community building and service) facilitated through leadership practices of reframing discourse, bridging differences, and unleashing human energies (2017). When deployed at across levels of capacity (individual, organizational, inter-organizational), the "practices are the sources from which leadership emerges" (2017, p. 302). This gives new dimension to leadership for the common good, as the leadership practices themselves co-construct new understandings of leadership required to enact social change.

Leadership educators who seek to develop the capacity for social change in students - and enact social change through leadership learning - are well served to employ pedagogies of practice (Ganz, 2012) that create the conditions for engaging in adaptive practices for strategic social change.

Deliberative Dialogue as Leadership Practice

Ganz's (2011) suggests that leadership on behalf of social change requires telling a public story: "a story of self, a story of us, and a story of now" that communicates our deeply held values and invites others to join us in making progress on an urgent challenge (p. 282). Kliewer and Priest

(2016) adapted this public narrative framework into a multi-stage community storytelling approach for deliberative dialogue that creates the conditions for collaborative civic leadership activity.

Deliberative civic engagement is a civic leadership activity that convenes people for constructive, informed dialogue around important public issues (Nabatchi, 2012). Spaces of deliberative civic engagement operate within what Drath (2001) frames as a relational dialogue principle of leadership meaning-making. Grounded in this perspective, Ospina and Shall (2001) articulate how leadership resides in the social system, with conditions of uncertainty and complexity. Leadership is practiced "when people with different world views use dialogue and collaborate learning to create spaces where common purpose can be achieved while diversity of perspectives is preserved and valued" (Ospina & Shall, 2001, p. 14).

The summit's purpose is advancing the common good through collaboration and build capacity among leadership educators across programs in Kansas. A convening of leadership educators using a deliberative civic engagement approach aligns theory and form. Our learning is an act of leadership, meaning that through deliberative practices we embody the very philosophies and practices of leadership we seek to develop.

Description of the Practice

The one-day summit was held on May 17, 2017 at the Emporia State University campus. The 34 participants of the summit represented faculty members, staff, and partners from 12 programs, including public and private universities, community college, military college, and non-profit organizations.

Story of self. The summit began with an introductory session, emphasizing participants' "story of self", or personal call to leadership (Ganz, 2011). Around the walls of the room were posted blank tear sheets (posters), one for each participant. Participants were invited to write their name, institution, and three points responding to the prompt: "What brought you here today, what do you want to learn, and/or what interests do you want to share with this group." Then, participants moved around the room in a "gallery style" to review others' posters, and respond with comments, questions, or connections. Upon completion, participants returned to their own poster and review the comments. Finally, each participant made a verbal introduction to the group, sharing one aspect they found interesting from this exercise.

Story of us. The next step was to identify themes generated by the stories. This "story of us" allows for the development of shared values that shape collective identity and purpose (Ganz, 2011). The initial themes identified included: Assessment and evaluation, coaching, global/international education, life-span learning, networking and leadership educator development, and women and leadership. These themes served as focus areas for morning work sessions, with the goal of discussion and dialogue to further diagnose the challenges related to the topic and how we might collectively make progress. We utilized and "open space" approach, allowing individuals to move freely to whatever work group they felt they could best contribute and or learn. Each working group utilized a google doc to capture discussion notes. The following prompts were provided to help guide discussion:

- What work is already being done around this topic/area?
- Why is this a priority for you personally? For your institution? For our state? For the field of leadership studies/leadership education as a whole?
- What are the gaps, urgent needs, or critical questions related to this area?
- What knowledge, skills, and perspectives are necessary for leadership educators to enact this work?
- What are some key resources that exist?
- What resources are needed to support learning in this area?
- Who are other stakeholders or partners in this work and how do we engage/mobilize them? (e.g., community partners, organizations, other departments)
- How does this priority connect leadership education practices (teaching and learning with our students/communities) to broader outcomes of change at individual, group, or society levels?
- What are some ideas for collaborative action in this area?

The lunch break provided an opportunity for community building. Participants self-selected into groups which dispersed among four local restaurants. The optional prompts for lunch conversation were designed to allow for storytelling about self, programs, and communities:

- How did you become a leadership educator?
- What is the purpose/mission of your leadership studies program?
- What are some innovate ways you are making progress on that purpose? What are some challenges you face?
- How do you see yourself as a leader in your institution and/or community?
- What is the most pressing need/issue facing your community? And, what is your program doing to make progress on that need?

After lunch, we returned to work sessions, with an explicit goal of creating a synthesis our work to share with the large group. The format of this summary took the form of powerful propositions and action steps about the future of Kansas leadership education, guided by the prompts, a) "What if?", b) "Then …", and c) "How?" "What if?" surfaced our vision of change in our students and state - a preferred future or the change we hope for. "Then" represented the outcome we expected to see from that change. And finally, "how" was led us to strategies and actions necessary to make progress on that vision.

Through the open-space approach, participants narrowed down the work to four primary areas: coaching, global and international education, women and leadership, and networking/leadership educator development.

Story of now. Identifying shared challenges of our community, as well as the choices we must make and the outcomes we aspire make up our "stories of now" (Ganz, 2011). The final session of the day invited groups to share back their propositions. We invited the whole group into a conversation about reactions to the ideas and insights shared, as well to answer the question, "Where do we go from here?" in the pursuit action items. Finally, participants were invited to reflect and write their "next stories" (Kliewer & Priest, 2016), or personal commitments for next

steps, on their original poster. We by creating a space for public commitments, allowing individuals to verbalize their next stories.

Discussion of Outcomes/Results

A full analysis of the evaluation results from the May 2017 summit are forthcoming, and will be presented at the ALE conference. We administered a participant evaluation to gain feedback on both the process and product of the summit. The evaluation explored the following outcomes: (1) participants feedback on summit design, experience, and significant learning, (2) the development of new initiatives by participants, and (3) their future needs for ongoing professional development.

An initial review of evaluation data suggests that all respondents (n=26 out of 34 participants) agreed (n=6) or strong agreed (n=13) that they made or strengthened professional relationships at the summit. A general perception that the summit was useful and should be continued was expressed in both participants' comments at the event and in the feedback. Action steps (next stories) represented a commitment to collaboration across institutions around curriculum development, scholarship, professional support, and increased student learning opportunities.

The participant evaluation included an invitation to join a working committee to follow up on the ideas discussed at the event, as well as ideas surfaced in the evaluation. We also plan to initiate quarterly check-ins (via conference call or video conference) to invite participants to provide updates on their initiatives and encourage collaborative coaching and support.

Reflections & Recommendations of the Practitioners

The gap between leadership education programs' espoused values of social change and lack of documented sustainable impact surfaces a systemic, adaptive challenge in our field. To make progress requires us to exercise leadership. This project seeks to model the inclusive, boundary-spanning practices necessary to advance leadership education in our state and across the field. Our approach is informed theoretically and conceptually by contemporary perspectives that emphasize leadership for the common good. We draw from leadership practices that support the activity of social change. In doing so, this opportunity highlights the role of leadership studies programs in Kansas to be change agents in and with their communities.

Recommendations for practice related to both the summit process and ideas for the field will be more clearly articulated after completion of the event and final review of the feedback. While focus of this summit is leadership educators, we anticipate future initiatives to include student collaborators. We expect multiple initiatives will be identified from this summit, including multi-institutional collaborations. With an intention to share the findings (related both to the process of collaboration and content/goals generated), we will report out to ALE members the highlights of our findings through both a conference presentation and distribute a final report.

References

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

Brungardt, C. (2000). Proposed program in organizational leadership: A degree for the 21st century workplace (pp. 1–150). Fort Hays, KS: Fort Hays State University.

Chrislip, D. D., & O'Malley, E. (2013). *For the common good: Redefining civic leadership.* Wichita, KS: Kansas Leadership Center Press.

Drath, W. (2001). *The deep blue sea: Rethinking the source of leadership.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Dugan, J. P. (2017). *Leadership theory: Cultivating critical perspectives.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Ganz, M. (2010). Leading change: Leadership, organization, and social movements. In N. Nohria & R. Khurana (Eds.), *Handbook of leadership theory and practice* (pp. 527-561). Boston, MA: Harvard Business Press.

Ganz, M. (2011). Public narrative, collective action, and power. In S. Odugbemi & T. Lee (Eds.), *Accountability through public opinion: From inertia to public action* (pp. 273-289). Washington, DC: The World Bank.

Ganz, M., & Lin, E. S. (2012). Learning to lead: A pedagogy of practice. In S. Snook, N. Nohria, & R. Khurana (Eds.), *The Handbook for teaching leadership: Knowing, doing, and being* (pp. 353-366). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Grace, B. (2011). *Sharing the rock: Shaping our future through leadership for the common good.* Bellevue, WA: Common Good Works.

Heifetz, R. A., Grashow, A., & Linsky, M. (2009). *The practice of adaptive leadership: Tools and tactics for changing your organization and world.* Boston, MA: Harvard Business Press.

Higher Education Research Institute. (1996). A social change model of leadership development (Version III). Los Angeles, CA: University of California Higher Education Research Institute.

Inter-Association Leadership Education Collaborative. (2016). Collaborative priorities and critical considerations for the field of leadership education. Retrieved from the National Clearinghouse of Leadership Programs: https://nclp.umd.edu

Kliewer, B. W., & Priest, K. L. (2016). Creating the conditions for political engagement: A narrative approach for community-engaged scholarship and civic leadership development. In K. M. Soria & T. D. Mitchell (Eds.), *Civic engagement and community service at research*

universities: Engaging undergraduates for social justice, social change and responsible citizenship (pp. 47-62). London: Palgrave Macmillan UK.

National Clearinghouse for Leadership Programs. (2016). Curricular programs. Retrieved September 27, 2016 from https://nclp.umd.edu/resources/CurricularPrograms.aspx

Nabatchi, T. (2012). An introduction to deliberative civic engagement. In T. Nabatchi, J. Gastil, G. M. Weiksner, and M. Leighninger (Eds.), *Democracy in motion: Evaluating the practice and impact of deliberative civic engagement* (pp. 3-18). New York: Oxford University Press.

O'Malley E. & Cebula, A. (2016). *Your leadership edge: Lead anytime, anywhere.* Wichita, KS: Kansas Leadership Center Press.

Ospina, S., & Schall, E. (2001). Leadership (Re)Constructed: How lens matters. Paper presented at the APPAM Research Conference, Washington, DC. Retrieved from: http://wagner.nyu.edu/community/faculty/sonia-m-ospina#showMore--773

Ospina, S. M., Foldy, E. G., El Hadidy, W., Dode, J. Hoffman-Panila, A., & Su, C. (2012). Social change leadership as relational leadership. In M. Uhl-Bien and S. M. Ospina (Eds.), *Advancing relational leadership research: A dialogue among perspectives* (pp. 255-302). Charlotte, NC: Information Age Publishing.

Owen, J. E. (2012). Findings from the multi-institutional study of leadership institutional survey: A national report. College Park, MD: National Clearinghouse for Leadership Programs

Zimmerman-Oster, K., & Burkhardt, J. C. (2000). Leadership in the making: Impact and insights from leadership development programs in U.S. colleges and universities. Battle Creek, MI: W. K. Kellogg Foundation.

Girls on the Run: Practical movement-based interventions to develop leader identity in young girls

RJ Youngblood
Kansas State University

Abstract

This innovative practice critically examines how a youth development program, Girls on the Run, that specifically focuses on the empowerment of girls can unintentionally perpetuate stereotypes of what it means to be a girl by focusing on the development of certain gendered competencies. By situating the curriculum in an intentional framework and incorporating developmentally appropriate activities to develop leader identity, the sample lesson plan provided is a way to intervene in youth development curriculums to reframe competencies to include intentional leadership capacity development for girls participating in the program.

Introduction

Girls on the Run (GOTR) is an international non-profit that offers a movement-based after school program for 3rd-5th grade girls. A team meets twice a week to works towards program goals of completing a 5k race and completing lessons related to positive emotional, social, mental and physical development. The curriculum, while focused on many positive outcomes: positive self-talk, finding balance, being friends, choosing gratitude, etc., is problematic. The skills that the curriculum focuses on developing emphasize that the competencies are essential to girl-ness. While these skills are positive and should be developed in youth generally, the activities and values are gendered in ways that work to reinforce stereotypes of what it means to be a girl and exist without placing them in the sociocultural environment that the girls are in. The activities and lessons reinforce that girls are only contributors to their communities rather than able to shape and intervene in their communities and create realities by exercising leadership. As a practitioner, I propose that placing this curriculum in an intentional framework and context of developing leadership competencies will help to develop the leadership capacities of girls and reframe what counts as leadership to include the competencies the curriculum highlights.

To do this, I propose two interventions to the curriculum. One is to re-frame the objectives with the addition of a unit of lesson plans that focus on developmentally appropriate activities that offer opportunities for diverse leadership activity. These lessons will work to build a foundation of experiences, reflections, opportunities to exercise leadership, and re-defining leadership, both explicitly and implicitly, for future leadership identity development. The second intervention would be in the coaches training, shifting the perception of the coaches' identity to also include leadership educator. Coaches training will take an intentional look at how social construction shapes our understanding of who has access to leadership as a capacity, who can exercise leadership, and what exercising leadership looks like. These efforts to develop the coaches' understandings of leadership activity are so that an intentional verbal tradition of identifying when girls exercise leadership in diverse ways is prominent throughout the course of the GOTR program.

Review of Scholarship

To support the development of this intervention into the GOTR curriculum, I first explored what research indicates as how girls identify as leaders and how they exercise leadership. Research done by the following individuals and groups suggests that in order to develop the capacities to exercise leadership, programs must aim to strengthen the confidence girls have in their voice. Lia Klinsky and James C. Anderson II build on research by Hoyt and Kennedy in "Women's Leadership Development Training for [Program]" that suggests that "women deal with messages related to leadership identity that promote a loss of voice starting at a young age" (p. 161). They continue to explore what programmatic interventions can be made, and in doing so, suggest that for effective leadership development, programs must "include experiences that allow them to explore their interests, discover their authentic selves, develop autonomy, and increase their decision-making power…" (Klinsky and Anderson II, p. 163). When thinking about how to utilize role models, research done by the Lean In organization in collaboration with the Girls Leadership organization similarly suggests that in order to ensure that we have women leaders, coaching girls to speak confidently is one way to develop the leadership capacity of young girls (para. 3). These research findings suggest that one of the best ways to develop a program that efforts to strengthen the leadership capacities and competencies of girls is to include ways that girls can find confidence in their voice and practice using their voice in a safe environment.

In a research report from the Girl Scout Research Institute, "Change it Up: What Girls Say about Redefining Leadership," the research findings suggest that cultivating a combination of self-confidence and skills help to develop the capacity for girls to exercise leadership. The implications of their findings suggest that a process for leadership development programs for girls need to "boost girls' self-confidence and…create a supportive environment for girls to express themselves freely and experiment with their leadership identities" (p. 21). Creating the conditions for girls to experiment with their voice and discover how to use their voice to intervene in a system is one way to start to build the potential for girls to see themselves as capable of exercising leadership and building a strong foundation for when they begin to explore their leadership identity. Because of this research, the lesson plan developed for this project helps girls begin to identify their voice and use it confidently to make progress on challenges.

Description of the Practice Speaking Confidently Lesson Plan

Supported by the research, the lesson developed for this project teaches girls to speak confidently as a way of exercising leadership and understanding how to use their voice confidently to intervene in a system. The learning goals of the lesson are: to define confidence, to practice being confident, to become conscious of our voice and when to use it, and to understand our role in a group. The lesson plan builds on existing GOTR lesson plans in the format and was placed hypothetically as Lesson 8 after the Identity: Self-Care, Self-Awareness, and Knowing Self unit. It includes a short discussion that asks girls to define confidence and how they know when they are confident, a warm-up running activity where girls can practice identifying positive aspects about their identity and how they contribute to groups and share them confidently, a workout activity that puts into practice learning when to use their voice confidently in order to make progress on a challenge, and an identity card activity that challenges them to use their voice to speak confidently to help a group before the next practice as their GOTR GOAL. Each of these

activities includes facilitation discussion at the end for girls to work to make meaning of their experiences.

Social Construction of Leadership and Leader Identity

A second intervention into the GOTR curriculum is to help the coaches' facilitating the curriculum to reframe their understanding of who has access to leadership as a capacity, who can exercise leadership, and what exercising leadership looks like to include a broader range of leadership activity. In thinking with Komives, et. al. in "A Leadership Identity Development Model: Application from a Grounded Theory," adults are instrumental in the leadership identity development of youth (p. 406). Komives, et. al. explains that in the early stages of development when first beginning to change to a view of self and to broaden understanding of leadership, in order to recognize leadership potential, a person in authority would point out and reinforce leadership behaviors, roles, actions, etc (p. 407). Transition from Stage One: Awareness "usually began with recognition by an adult of the student's leadership potential" (p. 406). In understanding leadership identity development through the Leadership Identity Development model, the coaches can work to understand their role in acknowledging the leadership capacities of each girl on their team. The LID model suggests that understanding the developmental stages of the process will "assist educators in their facilitation of student leadership development" (Komives, et. al. p. 403). Having coaches that can work within the girls' development stages will support capacities for leadership development over the girls' lifetimes.

One challenge to address when using the LID approach in the coaches training is that it places the responsibility on the adult coach to identify certain activities and interventions that occur during lessons as leadership. This could become problematic if we do not include a space for the coaches to also explore the socially constructed nature of leadership and help to surface biases and assumptions that may determine what kinds of activities the coaches view as leadership. For the particular context of Girls on the Run, Sonia Ospina and Ellen Schall in "Leadership (Re)constructed: How Lens Matters" provide a way of viewing agency as a product of exercising leadership that might be helpful when working with young girls (p. 7). Their work places leadership as an emerging process and a participatory process, viewing leadership as "…the process by which the group engages in making meaning together…" (Ospina and Schall p. 7). The focus on leadership belonging to a community rather than an individual might be a developmentally appropriate approach to help coaches recognize leadership activity in girls during practices.

Sample Leader Identity Lesson Plan: Speaking Confidently Coaches – Are you ready?

> **Learning Goals:**
- To define confidence
- To practice being confident
- To become conscious of our voice and when to use it
- To understand our role in a group

> **Target Skills:**
- Confidence

- Connection
- Contribution

> Think About It:
- When are you most confident in your own voice?
- How do you decide when to speak up in a group?
- Where does your confidence in your abilities and skills come from?

> Materials:
- Multicolor beads, one color for each girl
- Clear jar or cup
- Cone
- Identity Cards
- Markers

Girls – Are you ready?

> Informal Conversation:
Use this time to observe and investigate what is going on with the girls regarding family, school, friendships, etc. by asking questions and engaging in conversations. This informal time is a great opportunity to connect with the girls one-on-one.

Getting on Board: How do you speak confidently? (10-15 min.)
> Set up:
- Girls are seated in a circle.

> How it's done:
1. Discuss the GOTR GOAL from last practice *(when you feel yourself experiencing a strong emotion and see the storm cloud start to roll in, practice the Stop and BrThRR strategy)* with the girls and get feedback on how it went.
2. Say, "Today's theme is: **Speaking Confidently**. Can someone tell me what confidence is?"
3. What do you think it means to speak confidently?

> Processing:
1. What do you do to be confident?
2. When do you think you are the most confident?
3. When do you share your ideas with others, in class, with your family, or with your team?

Stretch and Strengthening Exercises (3-4 min.) Warm-up: (15-20 min.)
> Set up:
- Materials: Cone
- The cone will be placed about 45 feet away from where the girls start the activity. They will run down to the cone, stop, and run back.
- Remind girls about their confidence poses from lesson 2.

> How it's done:

1. Ask girls to strike their confidence poses.
2. Say, "In this warm-up, you're going to practice speaking confidently."
3. Explain the warm-up:
   - Strike your confidence pose at the start.
   - One at a time, in your confidence pose, say one thing about yourself using an "I am…" statement. For example, "I am funny" or "I am good at solving problems."
   - The girls will run to the cone and stop.
   - They will strike another (or the same) confidence pose at the cone.
   - In their confidence pose, they will say one thing that they do to contribute to a group: their team, family, class, etc. For example: I encourage others.
   - Send off girls one by one so that the group can hear who is talking.
4. Encourage girls to do this activity with enthusiasm and volume.
5. Repeat activity as time allows.

> Processing:
1. Was it easy for you to think of an "I am…" statement and how you contribute? Why or why not?
2. What are some of the things our teammates said about themselves?
3. Did everyone say the same things or were they different? What do you think about that?

Workout: (45-50 min.)
> Set up:
- Materials: Multicolored beads, one color for each girl; clear jar or cup
- Let each girl pick a color bead that they want to represent them
- Girls may run as a group in today's workout.

> How it's done:
Say, "In today's workout, you're going to have to practice speaking confidently and working together as a team to complete the workout."
1. Explain the workout:
   - You will have to work together as a team to complete each person's lap goal.
   - On each lap while staying together as a team, you will need to complete a squat, a jumping jack, a lunge, and a high knee march.
   - They cannot be done in a row, and they have to be done in a different order on each lap.
   - If you speak during the lap to give an idea, you will put a bead in the jar.
1. Have the girls set their lap goal for today.
2. Begin the workout. The workout will continue until the group decides to stop or the time is up.

> Processing:
As you lead the girls through some cool-down stretches (see Introduction), ask the girls the following questions:
1. Looking at the jar, who has the most beads? Who has the least amount of beads?
2. Was it hard or easy to decide what to do? Why or why not?
3. When did you share the most ideas?

4. When did you share the least?
5. Was everyone's lap goal met? Why or why not?
6. How did you decide what to do?

Identity Card and Wrap-up   (5-10 min.)
> Set up:
- Materials: **Identity Cards,** markers
- Girls seated in a circle

> How it's done:
1. Pass out the **Identity Cards** to each girl and have them fill out their lap chart.
2. Say, "On your Identity Card today, **write what makes you speak confidently and when you should speak confidently."**
3. Allow 3-4 girls to share.
4. GOTR GOAL: Before the next time we meet, use your voice to speak confidently to help a group.
5. Give our ENERGY AWARDS and end with a CLOSING CHEER (See Coach Note).

Future Interventions and Applications

The sample lesson plan provided is just a start to intervening in youth development curriculums to reframe competencies to include intentional leadership capacity development for girls participating in the program. Further programmatic additions could include a unit that builds on leadership competencies and shifts to more explicit conversations about leadership in line with the Leadership Identity Development model, as well as the inclusion of leadership educator identity development for the coaches training. Beyond Girls on the Run curriculum, this example can serve as a way to examine youth development programs and work to implement curriculum that moves beyond gender expectations and develop the capacities for youth to see themselves as agents and exercisers of leadership.

References

Girl Scout Research Institute. (2008). *Change it up: What girls say about redefining leadership.* Retrieved from girlscouts.org/content/dam/girlscouts-gsusa/forms-and- documents/about-girl-scouts/research/change_it_up_executive_summary_english.pdf

Kelinsky, L.R. & Anderson II, J.C. (2016). Women's leadership development training for (program). *Journal of Leadership Education,* 15(1), 161-170. doi: 1012806/V15/I1/A7

Komives, S. R., Longerbeam, S. D., Owen, J. E., Mainella, F. C., & Osteen, L. (2006). A leadership identity development model: Applications from a grounded theory. *Journal of College Student Development, 47,* 401–418. doi:10.1353/csd.2006.0048

Lean In Organization. (2016). How to be a role model for girls. Retrieved from http://leanin.org/tips/role-model

Ospina, S. & Schall, E. (2001). *Leadership (Re)constructed: How lenses matter*. Paper presented at APPAM Research Conference, Washington, DC. Retrieved from http://wagner.nyu.edu/faculty/publications/leadership-reconstructed-how-lens-matters

The Certificate of Social Justice Program

Jackie Bruce, Joy Morgan, Wendy Warner, & Katherine McKee
North Carolina State University

Abstract

When students leave higher education, educators want to believe that they are prepared to participate in, and serve as leaders of, a diverse world. However to ensure that is the case, we must provide opportunities for students to build those necessary competencies. The pilot program of the Certificate of Social Justice (CSJ) is a comprehensive grant funded program that begins a student's journey in understanding the complex and diverse world in which they live, and how they can become leaders in that world. By creating a cohort of students who are interested in learning more about leading diverse communities, we provide them a "safe" zone to assist in learning about and navigating differences with which they are unfamiliar. Students participate in activities and reflections that contribute to a greater knowledge base, a better understanding of multiple perspectives, personal and leadership development, all while strengthening their potential for success in a global society. Leadership is a process that is developed over time and largely based on experiences. By providing students with experiences focused on inclusion and activism, leaders are being built one experience at a time and being provided with the tools needed to build bridges with others.

Introduction & Related Scholarship

The United States is a melting pot of different countries, races, and religions hoping to find new opportunities and an improved quality of life (Millet, 2011). With an ever growing society, one that is said will have no racial majority in thirty years, higher education plays a key role in preparing students to live and work in a society of diverse populations with different experiences and perspectives. Studies show diversity initiatives, such as mentoring programs and other programs that promote interaction between student groups, positively affect all students (Smith, Gerbick, Figueroa, Watkins, Levitan, Moore, Merchant, Beliak, & Figueroa, 1997). However, as instructors, we recognize that students are often apprehensive to participate in diverse experiences on their own and we see a need to implement an initiative to help students grow into a globally minded individual.

Priority Five of the National Leadership Education Research Agenda charges educators to "better align Leadership Education with principles of contemporary leadership theories emphasizing inclusion, social justice, and equity". Checkoway (2001) writes, "For democracy to function successfully in the future, students must be prepared to understand their own identities, communicate with people who are different than themselves, and build bridges across cultural differences in the transition to a more diverse society" (p. 267). This certificate program supports Laudeman's (2012) belief that the role of the educator is to organize and facilitate the structure of the educational content and provide feedback so that students take full ownership of their learning. Considering that leadership is a process, we see the importance of placing students in situations and experiences that challenge their thoughts and beliefs. McManus (2012) stated "We can provide students with a body of knowledge surrounding the critical and analytical study of

leadership and be a part of crafting experiences to help students develop skills that ultimately may be helpful to them in leading people and organizations" (p. 1). This is the very foundation of the CSJ.

In 2008, Kuh identified ten educational practices that have been proven to add value to the university experience of students from a variety of backgrounds. Kuh's notes, universities offer courses to encourage students to explore diverse perspectives and global issues. At [University], a multitude of courses are offered to meet the US Diversity requirement. To supplement coursework, there is a need to develop additional experiential learning and engagement opportunities allowing students to examine and explore diversity in the university community and beyond (Kuh, 2008). Why does this matter particularly to leadership education? Our students will leave our classrooms to become leaders, thought influencers, and change agents in a wide array of fields and communities. However, the common thread that will bond them is the complexity of the world in which they will serve. In order to be effective in those roles, students must be aware of and understand issues of social justice. Students must understand the role that social justice plays in creating strong communities. They must develop a worldview that acknowledges the differences in lived experiences among all people, and the challenges innately faced by many who lay outside the majority. Students must be able to identify and confront their personal biases (conscious and unconscious) in order to combat the normativity that drives the exclusion of certain groups. And finally, students must develop an attitude of inclusion. Bringing more people to the table, in very real ways, creates an avenue for a greater diversity of thought leading to greater innovation and problem solving for complex problems.

A survey of an introductory level class in the [Department] revealed a lack of diverse experiences among our students. The students identified the university setting as their most diverse experience when compared to their home, church, community, and previous school settings. While [University] has identified several goals in the strategic plan to encourage a more diverse and inclusive environment, a closer look at the demographics of the newly admitted students reveals a different story. The admissions data provided by the university reported for the 4,237 first year students: 71% white, and 714 students outside of [State] were accepted into the university (Admissions, 2016). While there are many areas of diversity, those statistics indicate a need to expand student opportunities beyond the college campus.

In the 2011 - 2020 Strategic Plan, [University] pledged a commitment to "move deliberately to provide transformative educational experiences" (p. 5). One of the high impact practices include an emphasis on diversity and global learning. Kuh noted the importance of providing experiences for students to explore cultures and viewpoints different from their own as an educational practice that adds value to a student's university experience. To supplement US Diversity requirement coursework, there is a need to develop additional experiential learning and community engagement opportunities allowing students to examine and explore diversity in the university community and beyond (Kuh, 2008). The CSJ, discussed in greater detail below, is a first step at an initiative to provide students with experiences designed to expose them to a wider world.

By creating this cohort of students who are interested in learning more about diversity, inclusion, and activism, we provide a "safe" zone of classmates and mentors to assist in navigating

differences that may be unfamiliar. Students will participate in activities and reflections that contribute to a greater knowledge base, a better understanding of multiple perspectives, personal and leadership development, all while strengthening their potential for success in a global society. We believe the CSJ will develop strong leaders who, upon completion of the program, have the skillset and background in diversity and inclusion based on their experiences in the program to be positive leaders in their communities and professional settings.

Goals and Objectives

The pilot program of the Certificate of Social Justice (CSJ) program is a program engaging both undergraduate and graduate students within the [College] at [University] in opportunities to learn about issues of social justice, the challenges faced by diverse populations, and the personal biases that they carry. In doing so, we aim to expose students to a wider world, opening the doors to building understanding of all people.

Target Objectives and Overall Impact
The program co-directors have established four target goals and objectives for the CSJ program. Participants of the program will:
1. Increase their knowledge of social justice and diversity/inclusion issues
2. Increase their knowledge of challenges and social justice issues faced by diverse students
3. Increase their awareness of personal biases, injustices, and exclusions with forms of diversity
4. Develop open and inclusive attitudes toward their peers including diverse students
5. Define a leadership role for themselves in the processes of social justice and inclusion.

Description of the Practice

 When students leave higher education, we want to believe that they are prepared to participate in, and serve as leaders of, a diverse world. However to ensure that is the case, we as educators, must provide opportunities for students to build those necessary competencies. The Certificate of Social Justice will be a comprehensive year long program that begins a student's journey in understanding the complex and diverse world in which they live, and how they can become leaders in that world.

Project Audience
The primary audience for this pilot program will be the student cohort. This pilot cohort includes 4 undergraduate students. A goal of this program is to create a safe, inclusive environment where ideas and thoughts are challenged while participants grow and thrive. Keeping this pilot group small allows us to foster that environment as we gather information for future programs.

Project Deliverables
In order to deliver the CSJ program the project co-directors will produce the following:
1. Eight learning modules focusing on the eight arms of social justice. Each module will include the following components:
   - Basic instructional modules designed to help students become focused on the social justice issue and related cultural normativity

- External readings related to the social justice issue
- Field trip visit to an external site related to the social justice issue
- Pre and post external experience reflection questions
- Group debriefing protocols
- External social justice mentors related to each issue that serve as resource people for the cohort.

Plan of Operation
Capitalizing on the rich diversity afforded to us in the [geographic are] and the expertise housed in the faculty and staff at [University], the CSJ builds on an existing infrastructure.

1. Phase 1-- Solidifying program plan and student pilot recruitment using an application and interview process.
2. Phase 2-- Student cohort member orientation. Project co-directors spend time with the initial cohort orienting them to the program and outlining expectations.
3. Phase 3-- Program delivery. Twice a month students attend events related to the arms of social justice defined by the Social Justice Center at Washington University in St. Louis (2016). Project co-directors leverage their personal campus and community contacts to create student learning opportunities. This includes attending existing events/symposium, visiting relevant sites, and listening to guest lectures. In addition to those events, students attend reflection sessions with the project co-directors, keep active reflection journals, and create a culminating project to demonstrate learning.
4. Project evaluation- Project co-directors will use both qualitative and quantitative methods in order to measure what worked, what failed to work as planned and what adjustments were made and could be made by future implementers/project leaders. Such evidence, garnered using a developmental evaluation framework, is critical for making educational improvements and innovation available to the larger educational community.

Potential evaluation questions include:
1. How are the (8) issues of social justice reflected in the products developed and processes/activities supported with grant funds?
2. How do participants perceive the products and related experiences (utility, design, quality of facilitators, suggestions for classroom practices/process, model techniques)?
3. What – if any – mid-course corrections are necessary as informed by formative and summative evaluation data gathered and analyzed?
4. Does the combination of proposed products, experiences and supports yield the anticipated changes in student awareness and concern?
5. How is awareness/concern reflected in observable student behavior?
6. Are outcomes/impact (self-reports of students) dependent on other variables (intensity of treatment (duration) and intentionality (variation in delivery, products utilizes and other aspects of service mix) or participant characteristics?
7. To what extent did the grantee meet the learning and engagement outcomes proposed and how might the OIED investment be further leveraged via broader use, dissemination and sustainability?

Discussion of Outcomes/Results to Date

To date, the student cohort members have been recruited, oriented, and are currently attending cultural events and reflections sessions. Students are eager to learn about people, and dive into discussions as a cohort, in small groups, and in one-on-one reflection sessions. Because this first pilot cohort is an abbreviated experience, these students will be welcomed back as peer mentors in year two, when the program is expanded.

Project co-directors continue to add to the readings and resources available to the students. In addition, the store of cultural events continues to grow as current events influence the number of events available in and around campus for student to attend.

Preliminary evaluation of the program has also begun. Students have been asked to create an initial reflection characterizing how they currently make meaning of issues of social justice. The will follow up that initial reflection with subsequent writings after cultural events. Those writings will be a key piece of tracking the growth and development of cohort members. Secondarily, project co-directors are also keeping reflection journals in order to follow their own growth, as well as the program evolution and student learning, from an instructor's perspective.

Reflections of the Practitioner

Recruitment is key in this situation. Without effective recruitment, including application, interview and selection procedures in place, the cohort itself falls apart, and the cohort is the foundation of the program's success.

Students came to the program with a variety of preconceived notions. It would have been advantageous to have more time to spend uncovering those in order to meet the students, more accurately, where they were when we started. Also, with the abbreviated time frame, there was no time really provided to allow the participants to get to know each other first and begin to develop rapport. There was a brief introduction and then we moved full-steam ahead into content. Perhaps designating the first meeting as a chance for participants to get to know each other more informally would help establish a more open environment.

Recommendations

Based on the current experience, the project co-directors would recommend the following for anyone thinking about undertaking a similar project:
- Allow yourself plenty of time for student recruitment. Recruitment is foundational to the success of the cohort. Make sure you plan on enough time to invite students to apply, read applications, potentially do face to face interview, and then accept those individuals into the final program.
- Be ready to embrace what is going on in the world as a real time case study. While foundational literature is key in framing social justice and leadership work, being open to using what arises in your local community, the nation and the world provides a real time opportunity to discuss social justice issues that are affecting people in that moment.
- Clearly develop boundaries within which all parties (student cohort members, project co-directors, guest speakers, and mentors) will work. Set clear behavioral expectations and provide open communication channels. Model the behavioral expectations in all of your

interactions with the group. This will be the beginnings of providing a space where all members can grow and learn.

- Communicate clearly and often with the group. Because this is such heavy work, keeping up a steady flow of communication is important to building and maintaining relationships. This could include weekly emails, updates, sharing of resources, etc.

References

Checkoway, B. (2001). Renewing the civic mission of the American research university. *Journal of Higher Education*, 72(2), 145–147.

Admissions: First Year Facts. (2016). Raleigh: North Carolina State University Office of Undergraduate Admissions. Retrieved from https://admissions.ncsu.edu/wp-content/uploads/2016/09/first_year_facts_2016-PAGES.pdf .

Kuh, G. D. (2008). Excerpt from high-impact educational practices: What they are, who has access to them, and why they matter. *Association of American Colleges and Universities*.

Laudeman, G. (2012). *Leading in Complex Worlds.* Barbour, J., Burgess, G., Falkman, L., McManus, R. (Eds.). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Millet, J. (2011). From melting pot to salad bowl. *Understanding American Culture.* Retrieved from: http://www.culturalsavvy.com/understanding_american_culture.htm

Smith, D. G., Gerbick, G. L., Figueroa, M. A., Watkins, G. H., Levitan, T., Moore, L. C., & Figueroa, B. (1997). *Diversity Works: The Emerging Picture of How Students Benefit*. Washington: Association of American Colleges and Universities.

Development of an Interdisciplinary Doctoral Program in Organizational Leadership

Joseph Marchetti, George Sharp, & Pamela Vaughan
Stockton University

Abstract

This proposal addresses the gap that exists between the environment in which leaders lead and the leadership development programs designed to prepare leaders to lead in this environment. The environment that leaders face has rapidly changed, and the knowledge, skills, and competencies necessary to lead in this complex environment have also changed. But, leadership development programs have not changed fast enough, or in the right ways to prepare new and existing leaders with the knowledge, skills, and competencies that are now necessary. This proposal describes how one Ed.D. in Organizational Leadership program bridges this disconnect.

This project presents how a new doctoral level program in organizational leadership was developed and implemented over a four-year period. The program is in its second year of operation and has two cohorts (46 students) currently involved, with a third cohort beginning in Fall 2017. The program is designed to be interdisciplinary. Leaders from the following types of organizations are welcome to participate in the Ed.D. in Organizational Leadership program: Business, Health care, Education, Government, Not-for-profit, and Faith-based organizations.

Specifically, the program focuses on the integrity of leadership, focusing on the congruencies between and among how the leader thinks, communicates, makes decisions, uses power and authority, and takes action. The primary intent of the program is to help leaders improve so that they, in turn, will help their respective organizations to improve. The overarching goal is to help resolve the disconnect that exists between the work environment in which leaders lead and the leadership development programs that are designed to prepare leaders to lead in this changing work environment.

Introduction

Leadership development, whether offered as part of a college or university program or through an organization's human resources department, has historically focused horizontally, and been delivered as a prescriptive approach. Horizontal leadership development refers to the adding of knowledge, skills, and competencies. It increases the number of tools that occupy space in the leader's toolbox. This approach also answers the question: What does good leadership look like? This prevailing focus on horizontal leadership development has served organizations well until recently. The environment in which leaders lead has been slowly, steadily changing for several decades. However, the pace of change has accelerated during the past two decades and will continue to accelerate into the future, at a more pronounced and heightened rate of speed. The environment created by this accelerating change is more ambiguous, confusing, volatile, and unpredictable. This disruptive turbulence is increasing the complexity of the challenges that leaders encounter and address. Indeed, complexity has already become the new normal in the environment of leadership practice.

Several factors have made leading in a complex and ambiguous environment more difficult and challenging. These include:

- The large number of interacting elements; the interactions are non-linear, and often appear at an exponential rate.
- Information in a complex system is highly ambiguous, incomplete, and often in a state of constant flux.
- It is increasingly more difficult, and even impossible in some situations, to ferret out a right answer, making the right course of action or path to follow difficult to determine.
- It is increasingly more difficult to forecast and predict what will happen next; leading in complexity is leading in an environment of unpredictability.
- In this environment, we can only understand why things happen in retrospect.

According to Petrie (2013), there are four common issues currently built into the design of most leadership development programs. These include:

- Wrong focus: Too much time is spent delivering information and content and not enough on the hard work of developing the leaders themselves. Most leaders already know what they *should be doing*; what they lack is the personal development to do it.
- Lack of connectivity: While the content of programs may be very interesting, it is too often disconnected from the leader's work. When the leader returns to the "real" world and is overwhelmed by tasks, it is too hard to convert what was learned in a program into actions that address real problems.
- Leader in isolation: Most programs fail to engage the leader's key stakeholders back at work in the change process. As a result, leaders not only miss out on the support, advice, and accountability of colleagues but are also more likely to experience resistance from stakeholders who are surprised and disrupted by changes leaders make in their behavior.
- Too short: The programs are designed as disconnected events rather than as integrated processes over time. Programs give leaders a short-term boost but not the ongoing follow-up to solidify new thinking and behaviors into new habits.

Clearly, a disconnect exists between the leadership work environment and leadership development. Very few leadership development programs have made the transition in mindset and changes with the knowledge, skills, and competencies necessary to prepare leaders to lead in this complex environment. A new type of leadership development focus is necessary – one that will move beyond the horizontal leadership development that has served organizations for so long. This transition and change leads us to vertical leadership development, and it answers different questions: At what developmental stage am I actually applying the tools in my leadership toolbox? Or, stated differently, at what developmental stage am I actually practicing good leadership? And finally, from a vertical perspective, at what developmental stage am I thinking about, communicating, building and sustaining relationships, using power and authority, and taking action in my role as a leader?

The Ed.D. in Organizational Leadership program is designed for the practitioner leader. The learner objectives for this program are: (1) to understand the balance that exists between horizontal and vertical leadership development, and the connections that exist between

leadership practices and leadership theory as well as the need for more 'academically-based" and effective development for leaders, (2) to examine the components involved in guiding an academic proposal through the myriad of approvals at institutional, professional associations, and accreditation agencies, and (3) to understanding the benefits of community leadership initiatives as they are integrated within academic communities.

Review of Related Scholarship

The Ed.D. in Organizational Leadership program was developed as an integration and interconnection of several conceptual understandings designed to address the disconnect that exists between the environment in which leaders are required to lead, and the current practices of preparing leaders to lead in this environment.   The following create the overarching framework for the program:

- Horizontal development as a focus on good leadership knowledge, skills, and competencies (Petrie, 2011)
- Vertical development as a focus on transformational capacities and the developmental stages of leadership. (Petrie, 2011).
- The developmental stages and characteristics as described and profiled in the Global Leadership Profile (Torbert & Herdman-Barker, n.d.), the Leadership Development Framework (Rooke, n.d.), the Leadership Maturity Assessment (Cook-Greuter, n,d.), and/or the Subject-Object Interview (Kegan & Lahey, 2009)
- Leadership decision making and complexity science: The Cynefin Framework (Snowden & Boone, 2007, Garvey-Berger & Johnston, 2015)
- The capacities necessary for managing polarities and paradoxes (Johnson, 1998, Leslie, Ping Li & Zhao, 2015)
- The mental complexity and mindset necessary to adapt to change and complexity (Kegan & Lahey, 2009, and Garvey-Berger & Johnston, 2015)
- Reflective thinking, reflective inquiry, and action inquiry with past, present, and future time horizons
- An understanding of the 'disrupting and disorienting,' 'increasing exposures and perspectives,' and 'facilitating connections and sense-making' framework, necessary for vertical leadership growth and development to take place. (Petrie, 2015)

According to the Carnegie Project on the Education Doctorate (2014), the professional doctorate in education:

- Is framed around questions of equity, ethics, and social justice to bring about solutions to complex problems of practice.
- Prepares leaders who can construct and apply knowledge to make a positive difference in the lives of individuals, families, organizations, and communities.
- Provides opportunities for candidates to develop and demonstrate collaboration and communication skills to work with diverse communities and to build partnerships.
- Provides field-based opportunities to analyze problems of practice and use multiple frames to develop meaningful solutions.

- Is grounded in and develops a professional knowledge base that integrates both practical and research knowledge, that links theory with systemic and systematic inquiry.
- Emphasizes the generation, transformation, and use of professional knowledge and practice.

The Doctor of Education (Ed.D.) in Organizational Leadership program is based upon current research in leadership development and designed to be relevant, practical, flexible, and process-driven. Leadership development is viewed as an integrated and sustained process, not as an event, or series of disconnected events. The leadership concepts and understandings embedded in the program are designed to be rigorous and relevant and will be connected to and applied within the leader's work environment.

In developing the intellectual merit of this program, we conducted an extensive review of the leadership materials (See Appendix A), wherein we found that the disconnect between the leadership environment and leadership preparation is less a leadership problem and more a leadership development challenge. The methods being used to develop leaders have not kept pace with changes in the work environment. Changes in leadership development that have occurred are, in reality, adjustments to the existing techniques as opposed to changes to the assumptions and thinking upon which the leadership development programs have been based. The majority of leaders/managers are developed from on-the-job experiences, training, and coaching/mentoring. While these are all still important, leaders are no longer developing fast enough or in the right ways to match the needs of the changing environment.

We designed a program intended to help address leadership deficits through core competencies and capacities. Throughout the program, participants attain the following objectives:

- Review and analyze current leadership research emphasizing leadership development practices, as well as the mindset of leadership, to maximize their personal leadership styles, knowledge, understanding, skills, ethics, adaptive thinking, and application;
- Assess the environment in which today's leaders will lead and equip leaders with the competencies necessary to cope with and build upon the challenges in a world of accelerating change and adaptation, technological transparency, increasing complexity, diverse cultures, and global interdependence;
- Examine the underlying assumptions of a dynamic organizational culture to build their own capability to understand, interact with, and respond to different societal and cultures across the world;
- Enhance their ability to think systemically by examining and applying the competencies necessary to create cultures and structuring processes for continued growth and learning in their organizations;
- Explore organizational concepts related to leadership and design a forward-thinking organization aligning all components, including vision, mission, strategy, structure, dynamics, adaptability, entrepreneurial-ship, sustainability, and ethical behavior and integrity;
- Examine and apply the different communication skills, competencies, and approaches necessary to be an effective leader in the organization, as example: the ability to

- communicate a message in a public environment; the ability to navigate through organizational politics; the ability to ask the right questions; and how to use effective communication to build and sustain an effective organization. Participants will investigate the dynamics among different communication processes, multi-perspective thinking, and human interactions;
- Investigate the concepts of program quality and assessment that can be applied to organizations and encourage participants to engage in and become familiar with issues related to the assessment of quality performance in an organization. Attention will be given to strategic alignment and the role of values and propositions along with a focus on the utilization of different tools for assessing quality. Participants are encouraged to connect, apply and evaluate the concepts they learn about leadership, planning, quality, standards, accountability and accreditation to their organization and experiences; and
- In all aspects of the program, provide participants with opportunities to apply and practice the relevant leadership concepts and understandings in the organization and work place.

Upon successful completion of this program, graduates will have the capacity to contribute new knowledge and understanding to the practice of leadership and become positive forces of change in their respective organizations

Description of the Practice

The Ed.D. in Organizational Leadership is a 54-credit program, beyond the Master's degree. The program is divided into two phases: Phase I encompasses an interdisciplinary core of eight courses (24 credits). Completion of the interdisciplinary core in Phase I is required for entrance into Phase II. Phase II is the research (four courses, or 12 credits) and dissertation-in-practice (18 credits) component of the program. The courses included in both phases of the Ed.D. program will be offered in one of two delivery formats: face-to-face or hybrid (defined as a combination of face-to-face meetings and online experiences). Courses for Phase I and Phase II are included in Appendix B.

Discussion of Outcomes/Results

With the Spring 2017 underway, the Ed.D. in Organizational Leadership program completed its first academic year of operation. It took four years to develop and receive the necessary approvals for this creative and innovative initiative. We enrolled 23 students in Cohort One and another 23 students in Cohort Two. We are currently conducting admissions interviews for Cohort Three to begin Fall 2017.

We believe the viability of this program is very strong. Word of mouth and social media advertising, including Twitter, Facebook, and information fairs, resulted in strong numbers showing interest. For Spring 2016 there were 36 applications with 25 applicants paying deposits and 24 students enrolling. For Cohort Two, Fall 2016, there were 37 total applications with 26 offers of admission. We believe there is strong potential for subsequent cohorts over the next

few years. Most importantly, the professional distribution of students enrolling is encouraging. Cohort Two has representation from all targeted disciplines.

Reflections of the Practitioner

In the Ed.D. in Organizational Leadership program, our emphasis on 'reflective thinking, reflective inquiry, and action inquiry as integrated with past, present, and future time horizons,' is based upon our internalization and interconnections of the work of Richard Paul and Linda Elder (The Critical Thinking Community), Carol Dweck (Stanford University), Carl Glickman (University of Georgia), James Henderson (Kent State University), and William Torbert (Action Inquiry Associates).

In the Ed.D. in Organizational Leadership program, reflective thinking (past to present time horizons) and reflective thinking (present to future time horizons) are framed through five lens: creative, critical, multi-perspective, ethical and political. The five reflective lens are not equally emphasized in each course in Phase I or Phase II of the program. The two or three reflective lens that are accentuated in each course are those that best support the 'Core Leadership Understandings' and 'Essential Habits and Mindsets' naturally inherent in each course. Our emphasis on action inquiry is a vertical leadership extension of reflective thinking and reflective inquiry that describes and emphasizes the differences in how leaders think, communicate, build and sustain relationships, use power and authority, and take action. We view action inquiry through a present to future time horizon, emphasizing the program participant's prominent and emerging growth and development.

Thus, our reflective practice, as professors in the program, mirrors the intended use of reflective thinking and reflective inquiry required of students. Through reflective thinking, we have realized one unintended outcome, that we are serving as coaches and mentors to the participants in this program, just as much as we are serving as teachers. We have used reflective inquiry as a collective, collaborative process with the program participants to probe and reach a decision that it is an essential part of our professional practice to continue and highlight our balanced roles.

We are pleased with the breakout of demographics and the representative disciplines. Due to the admission requirements, only those with Master's Degrees are considered for admission. We continue to admit cohorts that reflect ethnic, gender, and professional affiliation diversity.

Recommendations

Based on the success of this program, we recommend limited expansion of geographic locations. In short, take the program on the road. This will entail identifying key geographic markets and transporting faculty to conduct the programs where the programs are in demand. We also recommend the creation of a Master's program in Organizational Leadership which will be a modified version of Phase One courses, along with a culminating action research project that is based in the student's organizational environment.

References

Bureau of Labor Statistics. (2012). Employment projections: Employment by detailed occupation. Retrieved from: http://www.bls.gov/emp/ep_table_102.htm

Cook-Greuter, S. (n.d.). Leadership Maturity Assessment. The Center for Leadership Maturity http://www.cook-greuter.com/SCTi-MAPForm.htm

Garvey-Berger, J. & Johnston, K. Simple habits for complex times. Stanford Business Books, an Imprint of Stanford University Press. 2015.

Johnson, B. (June 1998). Polarity management: A summary introduction. Polarity Management Associates. Retrieved from: http://www.jpr.org.uk/documents/14-06-19.Barry_Johnson.Polarity_Management.pdf

Kegan, R. & Lahey, L (2009). Immunity to change. Harvard Business Review Press.

Leslie, J. (June 2009). The leadership gap. Center for Creative Leadership. Retrieved from: http://www.ccl.org/leadership/pdf/research/leadershipGap.pdf

Leslie, J., Ping Li, P., & Zhao, S. (November 2015). Managing paradox: Blending east and west philosophies to unlock its advantages and opportunities. Center for Creative Leadership. Retrieved from: https://www.ccl.org/wp-content/uploads/2015/11/Managing-Paradox.pdf

Petri, N. (December 2011). Future trends in leadership development. Center for Creative Leadership. Retrieved from: http://www.ccl.org/wp-content/uploads/2015/04/futureTrends.pdf

Petri, N. (November 2013). Vertical leadership development – Part 1. Center for Creative Leadership. Retrieved from: http://www.ccl.org/leadership/pdf/research/VerticalLeadersPart1.pdf

Petri, N. (March 2015). The how-to of vertical leadership development – Part 2. Center for Creative Leadership. Retrieved from: http://www.ccl.org/wp-content/uploads/2015/04/verticalLeadersPart2.pdf

Rooke, D. (n.d.). Leadership Development Framework. Harthill Consulting http://harthill.co.uk/the-LDF-profile/the-leadership-development-framework/

Snowden, D. & Boone, M. (November 2007). A leader's framework for decision making. Harvard Business Review. Retrieved from: https://hbr.org/2007/11/a-leaders-framework-for-decision-making

The Hay Group. (2014). Building the new leader. Retrieved from: http://www.haygroup.com/downloads/MicroSites/L2030/Hay_Group_Leadership_2030%20whit epaper_2014.pdf

The Carnegie Project on the Education Doctorate. (2014). Definition of the Education Doctorate & Working Principles for the Professional Practice Doctorate in Education. Retrieved from: http://cpedinitiative.org/files/about_cped.pdf

Torbert, B. & Herdman Barker, E. (n.d.). Global Leadership Profile. Action Inquiry Associates http://www.williamrtorbert.com/global-leadership-profile/the-global-leadership-profile-overview/

Whiteboard Advisor. Education Insider (January 2014). Retrieved from: http://www.whiteboardadvisors.com/research/january-2014-education-insider-2014-gubernatorial-elections-school-choice-advice-aspiring-p

Appendix A

Research in Support of the Program
According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics employment projections, the following leadership/managerial positions exceed the 10.8% average increase for all jobs due to projected growth and replacements between 2012 and 2022:

- Medical and health services managers 23.2%
- Social and community service managers 20.8%
- Education administrators, preschool and childcare center/program 17.0%
- Computer and information systems managers 15.3%
- Education administrators, postsecondary 14.5%
- Human resources managers 13.2%
- Public relations and fundraising managers 12.9%
- Marketing managers 12.7%
- General and operations managers 12.4%
- Administrative services managers 12.2%
- Supervisors of office and administrative support workers 12.1%
- Top executives 11.2%
- Training and development managers 11.2%

In addition to the employment projections, several studies have influenced the need for and design of the program. Key findings of a Center for Creative Leadership study (Jean Leslie, The Leadership Gap, 2009) include identifying: "the current leadership deficit" between the skills current leadership has and the demands of the future.

Whiteboard Advisors (Education Insider, January 2014), conducted a survey asking its participants to select the top leadership skills that aspiring leaders should develop and possess. The top rated skills were: Collaboration / Team Building; Risk Taking; Decision Making; Stakeholder Engagement; Leadership / Talent Development; and Strategic Communications.

Based upon a recent report by The Hay Group (2014), leaders of the future will need to be skillful conceptual and strategic thinkers; have deep integrity and intellectual openness; embrace creativity, curiosity, and open minds; find new ways to create loyalty; lead increasingly diverse and independent teams over which they may not always have direct authority; and relinquish their own power in favor of collaborative approaches inside and outside the organization.

According to Petrie (2013), there are four common issues built into the design of many current leadership development programs that constrain the capacity of leaders to lead in the current environment: incorrectly focusing on content instead of leadership development, lack of connectivity from the program to the real work of leaders, isolation from their key stakeholders who should be involved in their program development, and inadequate length of the program to solidify new thinking into new habits.

In summary, the gap between the environment in which leaders lead and the leadership preparation to serve in that environment presents a significant leadership development challenge.

The methods being used to develop leaders have not kept pace with changes in the work environment. Changes in leadership development that have occurred are, in reality, adjustments to the existing techniques. The proposed program makes changes to the assumptions and thinking upon which our leadership development is based.

Appendix B

Phase I and Phase II Courses
The Ed.D. in Organizational Leadership is a 54-credit program, beyond the Master's degree. Courses included in the Ed.D. program will be offered in one of two delivery formats: face-to-face or hybrid (defined as a combination of face-to-face meetings and online experiences). The program is divided into two phases: Phase I encompasses an interdisciplinary core of eight courses. The courses include:

- LEAD 6010: Leading Your Organization (3)
- LEAD 6020: Engaging Communities and Stakeholders (3)
- LEAD 6030: Adapting to Change and Complexity (3)
- LEAD 6040: Transforming an Organizational Culture (3)
- LEAD 6050: Thinking Creatively, Innovatively, and Entrepreneurially (3)
- LEAD 6060: Leaders Serving with Ethics (3)
- LEAD 6070: Evaluating, Assessing, and Planning (3)
- LEAD 6080: Cultivating Organizational Talent and Innovation (3)

Completion of the interdisciplinary core in Phase I, with a cumulative GPA of 3.0, is required for entrance into Phase II. Phase II is the research and dissertation-in-practice component of the program and includes the following courses:

- LEAD 6100: Quantitative and Qualitative Research (3)
- LEAD 6800: Independent Study (3)
- LEAD 6500: Research Seminar I (3)
- LEAD 6501: Research Seminar II (3)
- LEAD 7100-02: Action Research / Dissertation-in-Practice (18)

The doctoral action research/dissertation-in-practice is the capstone experience of the Organizational Leadership program. Like the doctoral program itself, the action research/ dissertation-in-practice is innovative and different from traditional dissertations. In this action research/dissertation-in-practice process, there is less concern for universality of findings as more value is placed on the relevance of the findings to the researcher and his/her local collaborators as well as the benefits to the organization. The action research doctoral dissertation in practice is distinctive because of its interrelated purposes:

The purpose of a doctoral participant's action research implementation is to make a positive difference in an organizational setting in which the candidate currently is serving. The purpose of a participant's action research implementation is to investigate the action systematically and methodically through a form of disciplined reflective inquiry. As such, it involves deep inquiry into one's professional practice and the benefit of that practice to the organization. Critical reflection is at the heart of action research, and when this reflection is based on careful examination of evidence from multiple perspectives, it can provide an effective strategy for improving the organization's ways of working and the whole organizational climate. It can be the process through which an organization learns.

Sounds Good, But:
Assessing Relational Leadership Teaching

Yael Hellman Ed.D.
Los Angeles County Sheriff's Department

Abstract

This session presents an original survey of Organizational Leadership program alumni measuring the personal and professional impact of the courses' relational elements. Along with gauging the effects of in-class and post-graduation cohort relationships, survey results suggest ways to maximize benefits of interpersonal techniques and focus in leadership training. Overwhelmingly, respondents recognized the uniquely relational nature of the courses as due to their student-led format and their purposive cultivation of connections between instructor and students and among students. Nearly all credited such interpersonal skill-honing for their success in the classes and advances at their workplaces. ALE Session participants who similarly survey current or past leadership students will be able to assess, and increase, the degree to which their learners' interconnectedness creates outstanding private- and public-sector leaders.

Introduction

Almost all leadership education researchers and instructors, in both private and public sectors, agree that an interactive, student-led, facilitative approach superlatively teaches the theory and practice of executive arts. Its success has been widely ascribed to its hands-on quality, the instructor's avoidance of lecturing, and the students' setting their own agenda. But comments from many of my Bachelor and Master of Organizational Leadership program alumni suggested they found that the courses' efficacy stemmed directly from their unusually cooperative nature and the closeness it engendered among classmates. Their awareness of the uniquely relational characteristics of this mode of executive training, and of its power to teach leadership, invited deeper inquiry.

Certainly, current works on collaborative group adult education and on relational leadership theory and training corroborate those anecdotal alumni impressions. But measuring the magnitude of this effect through a relationality-sensitive instrument had, to my knowledge, never been attempted. So I composed an online multiple-choice- and open-question survey to verify and, ideally, to quantify the role of those specifically relational elements, and sent it to three years of program alumni. Results of 238 surveys illuminated the types and extent of the courses' in-class and post-class professional and personal connections; specified their advantages and pitfalls; and highlighted curricular and teaching practices which would enhance courses' relational aspects.

After analyzing the results, I saw that such an instrument can greatly help administrators of leadership programs and instructors in leadership courses. By examining the survey questions and answers, participants in this session will appreciate the immense impact of relationality in leadership instruction, and discover a reliable mechanism with which to gauge and increase the relation-based components of their own leadership courses.

Review of Related Scholarship

Teacher-student and student-student relationships at elementary and secondary levels have long received scholarly attention as crucial in children's mental and emotional maturation (Brailey, 2012). But research into teacher-student connections at tertiary institutions focus almost exclusively on academic performance (Umbach & Wawrzynski, 2005), while student-student relationship gets barely a nod. Student-teacher engagement, measured by the amount of feedback students receive on their work, seems to be one of the best predictors of learning and personal development (Kuh, 2003), and Milner (2011) concludes that experts endorse this valuation with near unanimity, most finding, rightly, that academic engagement builds mental and emotional habits which reinforce an individual's continued learning and growth (Shulman, 2002).

But in leadership, no one is an island. Investigators informed by social constructionist theory offer analyses more relevant to leadership training. For in the classroom as well as the boardroom, social processes influence all learning. Van den Bossche, Gijselaers, Segers and Kirschner (2006) investigated the operative factors of team-based education. They argued that a team is more than a group of people in the same (virtual or real) space, and explored the social bases of cognition which affect a team's performance. When successful, group learning makes and preserves mutually shared knowledge--a process which enables the improved performance scholars of collaborative learning have noted.

Van den Bossche's research team closely examined which types of discourse best allow the co-construction of "shared cognition" and the achievement of collective goals. They measured the process of group-made constructs, and found both interpersonal and socio-cognitive mechanisms crucial in the formation of commonly-held ideas and of teamwork. Seconded by other researchers, it also seems that this group construction of knowledge, perhaps counter-intuitively, means that groups with diverse experiences, values, and knowledge actually solve problems more effectively than do homogeneous ones or individuals. Indeed, their efficacy appears to depend on their hammering out varying perspectives--through interaction and negotiation--to forge a shared grasp of a problem (Daft & Weick, 1984; Roschelle, 1992). In brief, research suggests the most fruitful collaboration does not spring from grouping people with relevant knowledge or similar views together; it derives from a group's hard work at creating shared cognition and applying it to a common challenge.

Uhl-Bien (2003) saw that, beyond the acknowledged importance of relationships in institutions, a focus on specific relational processes is attracting renewed interest among organizational behavior and leadership researchers (Brass & Krackhardt, 1999; Day, 2000; Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998; Uhl-Bien, Graen, & Scandura, 2000). Indeed, Hunt and Dodge (2000) find multi-directional relationship at the forefront of leadership studies. Uhl-Bien (2006) named such a focus "Relational Leadership Theory" (RLT)--an overarching paradigm for examining leadership as a social construction built from an evolving interaction among divergent values and ideas.

This observation and the increasingly adopted propaedeutic aim of encouraging collaborative group connection support current theoretical and practical findings on relational leadership. In *Advancing Relational Leadership Research* (2012) Uhl-Bien and Ospina note that our essential

human interdependence extends to the leader-follower relationship--a social construction born of the group's needs and behaviors. For this relationship to answer those needs, leaders and followers--like instructors and learners--must understand each other's language and thinking in order to bridge the divides of private experience. This means that relationship *between all parties* constructs the leader as a holder of the interplay between individuals' separate paradigms.

So, that makes the question of just how educators can build and sustain interpersonal processes with adult learners paramount in leadership training. Hellman (2014) begins to fill the gap between propounding, and actually producing, teacher-student and student-student relationships in higher education. She demonstrates that, while leadership learning relies first on the student-teacher connection, it nourishes executive abilities most fully when the teacher parlays a trusting relationship *with* students to one *among* students. Fostering relational leadership, then, requires developing it in an explicitly social context. Thus, RLT dovetails with findings of cutting-edge adult education theorists. And as the practice presented here reveals, insights from both fields illuminate results of the survey of organizational leadership program alumni and, more important, suggest ways to improve leadership education.

Description of the Practice

To measure the perceived effects of a relation-based facilitative leadership program, I emailed a nine-question multiple-choice and open-answer survey, and three reminders with the survey attached, to three years of alumni of Organizational Leadership master's and bachelor's programs in in which I had taught. Respondents were permitted to choose more than one multiple-choice answer and to skip questions. To the 536 surveys sent, 238 recipients responded and 298 did not respond (including 3 who opted out and 25 whose addresses did not function).

The 238 responses represent a 95% confidence level and a $5^{\pm}$ margin of error. Based on these statistics, researchers can be 95% confident that the true value of the parameter is in the confidence interval and 95% of the observed confidence intervals will hold the true value of the parameter. Since the confidence level is the complement of the respective level of significance; this 95% confidence interval reflects a significance level of 0.05 and meets the standard 95% confidence level in applied practice.

Discussion of Outcomes/Results

First, the negative reviews: Statistical analysis of responses (see session hand-outs) and representative comments revealed some disconnect between the relation-based training to which the programs aspired and actual instruction, particularly at the master's level. Respondents primarily cited students' very unequal levels of academic and professional proficiency and commitment, which was felt to compromise inter-student connections. In addition, some held that the curriculum insufficiently integrated private- and public-sector concerns. Finally, participants indicated that the uneven student backgrounds and interests, while they challenged all instructors, wholly defeated some.

Yet even these complaints attest to respondents' appreciation of, and eagerness for, relational qualities of the programs. The majority of survey participants felt known as an individual by

most instructors and students. Questions 1-3 showed that they attributed that familiarity to one-on-one contact with the teacher and to "healthy," "non-competitive" collaboration with students (group activities and discussions); "insights into" students' diverse backgrounds; the student-run ethos of courses; and being themselves "honest" and "open." A number called for combatting a tendency to clique-formation by recomposing groups often and socializing more outside class.

Questions 4 and 5 moved from other's knowing them to the subtler topic of coming to know themselves. The majority of respondents felt they had increased in self-knowledge greatly (over 55 percent) or somewhat (around 42 percent) from the courses' reflective and interactive aspects. For this, they generally credited having to pinpoint their leadership capacities and styles ("my own performance, goals, strengths and weaknesses"); to take responsibility for their own learning; to studying leadership theory and then practicing it in the classroom and at work; and to experiential learning itself, all of which required continuous self-assessment. Yet even the basic course mechanics, including collaborative group projects and discussions, "stimulated introspective thinking and self-examination," elicited useful feedback from diverse others, and gave them psychological insights into group dynamics and emotional intelligence ("tolerance, flexibility, empathy and confidence"), and thus seemed equally to bring deeper understanding of the self. One respondent summarized the process by noting that learning "group dynamics … helps me understand why I do the things I do, who or what affects what I do, how I am affected by my surroundings, and what I can do to improve myself."

Answers to Questions 6 and 7 showed that over 97 percent believed specific relational characteristics of the training gave them a deeper grasp of others' interests and personalities as well. Many traced their heightened understanding of colleagues to the "cooperative" and "relaxed" atmosphere of their program, which could, however, be limited by certain classmates' reticence to share or lesser interest in the material. Some alumni specified the program's structure--small classes, a permanent cohort, reconfigured groups, and diverse backgrounds—as allowing them to learn more about fellow students as individuals. As noted above, though, having class members with considerably varied *amounts*--but not, significantly, *types*--of work and life experience, or of openness to the cohort, appeared to hinder mutual understanding.

The process of coming to know others could be difficult: "This program demands for you to leave some of your own beliefs and perspectives at the door to fully engage and absorb some of the instruction," one respondent admitted. Another agreed: "I think some came with a 'check the box' attitude (just get the degree), but because of the format of the experience, it's nearly impossible to just 'show up.'" Yet another described group work as "wonderful and painful … but where I think you learn the most about another person." Most respondents located the core of leadership learning in "respect for individuals' opinions."

Question 8 investigated the persistence of the connections made in the classroom after graduation and in work or social settings. Impressively, over a third of respondents stated they kept in touch regularly or occasionally with classmates for mentoring; slightly more than half maintained a connection with other alums for work support; and nearly three quarters met with program colleagues occasionally or regularly to socialize. In fact, responses indicated that participants more often continued informal social, rather than formal professional, contact. It is

possible, though, that their shared educational experience made even a social relationship a good source of informal professional consultation.

Finally and most broadly, Question 9 asked respondents to assess whether the knowledge of others and of themselves gained in their facilitative program impacted their leadership and, if so, how. In addition to earning promotions or plum work assignments, the clear majority of alumni recognized qualitative improvements in their executive behavior and efficacy. Specifically, respondents found the program raised their self-confidence, which in turn permitted greater openness to risk-taking; made them more aware of their responsibility for consequences of their decisions; and sharpened their use of new leadership techniques and approaches. Stated a participant, "It helped me identify some of my deficiencies as a leader and how to mitigate their impact." Part of finding ones' own leadership style required that alumni "take a more diagnostic approach in my quest for leadership. I have found that relationships are key to promoting." A few reported they now adhere to the model of servant leadership: "It works. Lead by example, your staff is watching and paying attention." Many believed their relation-based leadership training had generalized widely: "I have carried much of what I learned into the workplace and home," a respondent reported; another now regards true leadership as knowing "how important it is to give back to the community."

Respondents generally attested as well to a deeper appreciation of the worth of interrelations, expressed as a valuation of diversity and individuals' uniqueness; more careful listening and bridge-building; and more empathy, patience, and tolerance for divergent viewpoints. In the words of one, "I was fortunate to have been part of a VERY diverse cohort … which replicated a 'real world' environment of different cultures, religions, professions, political views, passions, morals, etc." Many echoed the feelings of one who found the experience "made me … a little more forgiving especially when I encounter 'leaders' who are less than stellar." Another related, "It's made me sympathetic to other people and their needs." Quite a few concluded similarly to the respondent who stated that "self-awareness and understanding … others strengthens individuals as leaders. Leadership does not function in a vacuum, it requires the ability to reach across boundaries to build and develop relationships…. One must understand … behaviors in others to influence and channel those behaviors towards accomplishing a shared vision."

Reflections of the Practitioner

Certainly, such an instrument has limitations. The researcher, as in this case, will likely also be the instructor, so students may well have imbibed some of the teacher's valuation of relational leadership. And as in this case, not every course participant will respond to the survey: While the response level here attained a high level of confidence, those who chose to participate may have felt particularly positive or negative about the experience and its personal or professional value to them.

Still, the surprising outcome of this survey was the near-consensus it revealed not merely on the benefits of a relationally-based facilitative method of studying leadership, but on its absolute necessity for the profound and practical experience of executive behavior—that is, for optimal leadership learning. A second surprise came from the generalization of relational leadership skills practiced in class not just to the workplace, as hoped, but also to alumni's personal circles.

The author enjoyed the additional privilege of interviewing supervisors of many alumni, and of hearing their confirmation of the heightened interpersonal leadership capacities program graduates saw in themselves.

Yet whether such external validation is available or not, the innovative assessment practice described here allowed the researcher to evaluate relational elements of leadership courses, redress their weaknesses, and bolster their power through successful techniques and curricula.

Recommendations

Adult education theory and Relational Leadership Theory together elucidate the relational aspects of facilitative leadership training, and suggest ways to fortify their advantages. Since the instructor's ability to extend a solid teacher-student relationship into lasting student-student connections appears essential to optimal leadership development, enhancing those relations by more relationally-based leadership teaching will enable even greater participant success. Those connections will be furthered as well by an inclusive curriculum that celebrates diversity and integrates individuals' talents and interests.

The importance survey respondents ascribed to interpersonal relations reinforces the near-consensus that engaging in and analyzing group processes in the classroom profoundly favor leadership development and later executive efficacy.

The author proposes that the most successful leadership training depends on teachers' ability to forge relationships not only with, but among, students. To assess and advance the success of a course and instructor in doing so, a survey similar to the one presented here can be of great service.

Though few, alumni complaints regarding teacher involvement and expertise underscore how crucially important it is that instructors have mastered the facilitative teaching approach, or receive mentoring to do so. They especially need to understand group dynamics so they can notice and explicate processes in the student-led classroom, and ensure that students not only grasp the meaning of such events, but continue to feel safe in the learning environment. That is, teachers need to model, and to have students practice, ethical--thus effective--leadership, which is always relational.

References

Brailey, L. W. (August 24, 2012). Building positive relationships with students. *Virginia Department of Education's Training and Technical Assistance Cente*r. Retrieved from http://www.ttacnews.vcu.edu

Brass, D., & Krackhardt, D. (1999). Social capital for twenty-first century leaders. In J. G. Hunt & R. L. Phillips (Eds.), *Out-of-the-box leadership challenges for the twenty-first century army* (pp. 179-194). Amsterdam: Elsevier.

Daft, R. L., & Weick, K. E. (1984). Toward a model of organizations as interpretation systems. *Academy of Management Review, 9*(2), 284-295.

Day, D. V. (2000). Leadership development: A review in context. *Leadership Quarterly, 11*(4), 581-613.

Hellman, Y. (2014). *Learning for leadership: A facilitative approach for training leaders.* AlexandrIa, VA: ASTD Press.

Hunt, J., & Dodge, G. E. (2000). Leadership déjà vu all over again. *Leadership Quarterly Review of Leadership, 11*(4), 435-458.

Kuh, G. D. (2003). What we're learning about student engagement from NSSE. *Change*, *35*(2), 24-32.

Milner, H. R. (March 2011). Culturally relevant pedagogy in a diverse urban classroom. *Urban Review: Issues and Ideas in Public Education, 43*(1), 66-89.

Nahapiet, J., & Ghoshal, S. (1998). Social capital, intellectual capital, and the organizational advantage. *Academy of Management*, *23*(2), 242-266.

Roschelle, J. (1992). Learning by collaborating: Convergent conceptual change. *Journal of the Learning Sciences, 2*(3), 235-276.

Shulman, L. S. (2002). Making differences: A table of learning. *Change, 34*(6), 36-45.

Uhl-Bien, M. (2003). Relationship development as a key ingredient for leadership development. In S. E. Murphy & R. E. Riggio (Eds.). *Future of Leadership Development,* 129-147. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

Uhl-Bien, M. (2006). Relational leadership theory: Exploring the social processes of leadership and organizing. *Leadership Quarterly, 17*(6), 654-676.

Uhl-Bien, M., Graen, G. B., & Scandura, T. A. (2000). Implications of leader-member exchange (LMX) for strategic human resource management systems: Relationships as social capital for competitive advantage. *Research in Personnel and Human Resources Management, 18,* 137-186.

Uhl Bien, M., & Ospina, S. (Eds.). (2012). *Advancing relational leadership theory: A conversation among perspectives.* New Horizons in Leadership Series. Charlotte, NC: Information Age.

Umbach, P. D., & Wawrzynski, M. R. (March 2005). Faculty do matter: The role of college faculty in student learning and engagement. *Research in Higher Education, 46*(2), 153-184.

Van den Bossche, P., Gijselaers, W. H., Segers, M., & Kirschner, P. A. (October, 2006). Team learning beliefs and behaviors. *Small Group Research, 37*(5), 490-521.

Session Hand-Outs: Survey Questions and Results

1. Do you feel that your professors came to know you as an individual? (238 responses.)

Response	Percent	Number
None	7.56%	18
One	19.75%	42
Several	61.76%	147
All	10.92%	26

2. Do you feel that your classmates came to know you as an individual? (238 responses.)

Response	Percent	Number
None	1.26%	3
One	4.62%	11
Several	55.46%	132
All	38.66%	92

3. What let, or would have let, the professors and your classmates know you as an individual? (226 responses, 37 comments.)

Response	Percent	Number
One-on-one time	40.27%	91
Collaborative work	46.90%	106
Less competition for grades and recognition	9.29%	21
Greater openness on their part	29.20%	66
Greater openness on my part	24.78%	56

4. Do you feel the program gave you greater understanding of yourself? (238 responses.)

Response	Percent	Number
A lot	55.88%	133
Somewhat	42.02%	100
Not at all	2.10%	5

5. What aspects of the program gave you, or would have given you, greater understanding of yourself? (156 responses.)

6. Do you feel the program gave you greater understanding of your classmates? (236 responses.)

Response	Percent	Number
A lot	41.10%	97
Somewhat	55.51%	131
Not at all	3.39%	8

7. What aspects of the program gave you, or would have given you, greater understanding of your classmates? (155 responses.)

8. Have you kept in touch with others from your cohort? Check all that apply. (238 responses.)

Mentoring (214 responses)

Response	Percent	Number
Regularly	7.01%	15
Occasionally	28.97%	62
Rarely or never	64.02%	137

Friendship (235 responses)

Response	Percent	Number
Regularly	22.98%	54
Occasionally	48.94%	115
Rarely or never	28.09%	66

Work Support (214 responses)

Response	Percent	Number
Regularly	11.21%	24
Occasionally	39.25%	84
Rarely or never	49.53%	106

9. Has the self-knowledge and knowledge of others you gained in the program impacted your leadership? If so, how? (166 responses.)

Using Project Based Learning and Communities of Practice to Develop Transformative Leadership for Advocate and Activist Social Identities

Kathine McKee & Jackie Bruce
North Carolina State University

Abstract

Project based Learning (PBL) can be a powerful tool in leadership education. In the case of this practice, PBL is used in teaching at the intersection of leadership education and social justice education in order to facilitate the development of advocate and activist identities in students. Further, students are positioned as Legitimate Peripheral Participants in a Community of Practice build around social justice.

Introduction

Jerome Bruner (1996) mused that we humans are the only species that can learn out of context but, "this does not mean that we should convert this evolutionary step into a fetish" (p. 22). Transformative leadership provides the foundational philosophy for this practice. Astin and Astin (2000), describe transformative leadership in this way, "...the value ends of leadership should be to enhance equity, social justice, and the quality of life; to expand access and opportunity; to encourage respect for difference and diversity; to strengthen democracy, civic life, and civic responsibility; and to promote cultural enrichment, creative expression, intellectual honesty, the advancement of knowledge, and personal freedom coupled with responsibility," (p. 11). In order to set students onto trajectories toward becoming advocates and activists, we developed a Community of Practice (CoP) in the tradition of Lave and Wenger (1991) with the students positioned as Legitimate Peripheral Participants, the faculty as Near Peers and Experts, and people who work in the field as Experts. We further strengthen their immersion in the context through Project Based Learning that requires that they attend or participate in cultural, advocacy, and activism events and design one of their own. The development of a CoP that includes the students provides them with access to the Discourse of advocates and activists while a curriculum built around Project Based Learning provides the specific circumstances in which the abstractions, or theories, they learn can be put into practice and therefore made meaningful (Bruner, 1996; Buck Institute, 2007; Lave & Wenger, 1991).

Review of Related Scholarship

The intersectionality of leadership and the work of social justice has long been recognized, if not necessarily always formalized. The very core of leadership is to understand the interconnectedness of people, and inherent to that interconnectedness lies the desire, nay the need, to provide an environment free from artificial barriers that impede individuals from reaching their full potential as human beings. As more and more leaders embrace their role as social justice workers, it becomes incumbent upon those in the role of leadership educators to recognize a paradigm under which this intersectionality can thrive.

Shields (2010) describes transformative leadership as, "begin[ning] with questions of justice and democracy, critiqu[ing] inequitable practices, and address[ing] both individual and public good" (pg. 558). In order to engage in this social justice work, this transformative leadership, leaders must first "develop a heightened and critical awareness of oppression, exclusion, and marginalization" (Brooks & Miles, 2006, p. 5). Transformative leadership challenges individuals to recognize their role in moving society in a more inclusive and just direction (Shields, 2010). Rapp (2002) describes social justice leaders in this way, "Leaders for social justice . . . resist, dissent, rebel, subvert, possess oppositional imaginations and are committed to transforming oppressive and exploitative social relations …" (p. 226). The question then becomes, how do we create educational situations where this type of leader can be developed, where they build the skills to go out into the world to create change?

Furman (2012) creates a conceptual framework that engages learners in developing the kind of capacities discussed above. The three prongs of that framework are:

> "First, leadership for social justice is conceived as a *praxis*, in the Freireian sense, involving both reflection and action. Second, leadership for social justice spans several *dimensions*, which serve as arenas for this praxis. These dimensions include the personal, interpersonal, communal, systemic, and ecological. Third, each dimension within the framework requires the development of *capacities* on the part of the leader, capacities for *both* reflection and action" (pg.191)

However, it is important to note, as Furman does, that social justice as a field is ever evolving as the needs of a society (or more particularly a community) change. And so, what we "know" about frameworks like this one, or any other one for that matter, is that while it may work now, educators must be cognizant of their place and space because it may not be applicable later.

Communities of Practice establish a space for learning that goes beyond receiving information to learning through activity in the world as the learner shapes, and is shaped, through the pursuit of a shared enterprise over time (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998). They position newcomers as Legitimate Peripheral Participants (LPPs) who learn a practice through increasing levels of engagement with it (Lave & Wenger, 1991). Locating the LPPs within the world they intend to learn affords them access to a network of relationships for learning (Lave & Wenger, 1991). A learning network provides opportunities for reflection and action in the dimensions of transformative leadership and the development of capacities within those dimensions. The network includes experts in the community's practice and near-peers who are between LPPs and experts in their experience (Lave & Wenger, 1991). LPPs interact with near-peers more frequently and to a greater depth than with experts; thus, this relationship provides the most support in their quest for shared meaning and belonging (Lave & Wenger, 1991).

Through belonging to a CoP, LPPs build identities around the meanings they shape and the relationships they negotiate (Wenger, 1998). In a CoP surrounding the practice of social justice, LPPs are building their identities around their shared meanings of social justice, allies, advocates, and activists. A CoP supports an LPPs identity development as it facilitates learning how to engage with others in unfamiliar territory thus providing access to a new way to relate to

the world (Wenger, 1998). Thus, a CoP, "changes who we are by changing our ability to participate, to belong, and to negotiate meaning," (Wenger, 1998, p. 226).

Project Based Learning provides a students with a real-world problem to solve and an authentic role to take in developing the solution (Buck Institute, 2007). Students are given a complex problem to solve through sustained inquiry, just-in-time instruction, critical thinking, collaboration with peers and experts, reflection, critique and revision, and the public explanation of a product (Buck Institute, 2007). Students are placed in authentic roles to solve the problem and access communities already at work in the problem area (Buck Institute, 2007). Teachers support the learning through intentional learning activities, lectures, readings, audio, videos, guided research, access to experts, reflection prompts, and questions (Buck Institute, 2007).

In order to facilitate students' access to trajectories toward becoming leaders who engage in advocacy and activism, the authors developed a curriculum for transformative leadership for social justice through the application of Project Based Learning and Communities of Practice.

Description of the Practice

The mission of the program is to help students develop from learner or ally to advocate or activist within a pillar of social justice or across multiple pillars of social justice. For our purposes, we propose the definitions that follow: a learner is someone who is interested in a pillar of social justice and working to learn more; an ally is someone who someone who supports a friend or loved one in their personal struggle within at least one pillar of social justice; an advocate speaks (or writes) publicly about a pillar of social justice and the people who struggle in it in the hope of effecting change; An activist energizes and organizes others to work for change in at least one pillar of social justice. Advocates and activists are involved in teaching others about the pillars of social justice while allies are focused on supporting a specific person or group of people. Individuals who work in advocate and activist roles must continue to learn and often remain as personal allies as well.

The Social Justice Center at Washington University in St. Louis (2016) provides a blueprint for understanding the eight "-isms" of social justice which provide a paradigm for this project:

- Classism: An examination of the relationship between accumulating resources and access to opportunity.
- Heterosexism: An inquiry into assumptions/language used to talk about relationships and what has been made normative in our culture.
- Ethnocentrism: Exploring our national presumptions about what is "right/correct" and a nationalistic view of the world.
- Faithism: Beliefs about beliefs; examining the influence and position of faith/creed in society.
- Ableism: Suppositions about the abilities we can see, and those we cannot and the access, or lack of it that those abilities ascribe.
- Racism: Exploring the role that race and ethnicity places in the fabric of society including access to resources, position, and power.

- Sexism/Genderism: Diving into the differences between men and women, and all that lies between and the privilege that may be afforded because of gender.
- Ageism: Assumptions about chronological age and related maturity or capability.

Project Based Learning establishes a reason to learn through a project description that puts the learners in an authentic role and assigns them a complex, real problem to solve using what they will learn in the course. Using PBL in this way positions the students as members of an organization that advocates for at least one of the eight pillars of social justice and activates others to do so as well (Attachment A). They are tasked with defining a specific problem/disenfranchisement people face and developing a program that would push for change.

In order to complete the project, students must complete readings, view videos, and participate in discussions on the pillars and strategies for advocacy and activism, engage with guest speakers who describe their work as advocates and activists, attend events held by communities that work for social justice, and blog about their learning (Table 1). The project positions students as LPPs to the practice of social justice but gives them access to faculty who serve as near peers on some topics - and experts on others - and to experts from the larger community. These experts will be invited to the presentation of their final projects to provide feedback as well.

Table 1
Learning activities mapped to the theoretical framework

Learning Experience	Project Based Learning Purpose	Formative Leadership Purpose	CoP Engagement
Readings, videos, lectures	Just-in-time instruction, inquiry	Capacities within dimensions	Experts
Discussions	Inquiry, just-in-time instruction, critical thinking, collaboration	Reflection on dimensions Practice in interpersonal dimension	LPPs Near Peer Faculty Expert Faculty
Guest speakers	Inquiry, just-in-time instruction	Capacities within dimensions	Experts
Attending events (cultural events, marches/protests, lobbying, canvassing, phone banking, lectures, workshops, movie nights, art exhibits, strategy sessions, organization meetings)	Critical thinking, just-in-time instruction, inquiry	Action All dimensions Capacities within dimensions	LPPs Near Peers (faculty, other event attendees with some experience) Experts (faculty, event organizers)
Blogs (private bogs shared as student prefers)	Reflection Public explanation	Reflection on action, dimensions and capacities within dimensions	LPPs Near Peers (faculty) Experts (guests, faculty)

Final Projects	Inquiry, critical thinking, collaboration, reflection, critique and revision, public explanation	Action Reflection on action Capacity within dimensions	LPPs Near Peers (faculty, event attendees with some experience) Experts (invited guests, faculty)

Table 1. *Learning activities mapped the theoretical framework*

As the research on apprenticeship models indicate that newcomers learn the most from their near peers, we have designed the program with ongoing, informal access to the faculty members through coffee chats, brown bag lunches, attending events together, and one-on-one sessions (Lave & Wenger, 1991). Students (newcomers) have access to the experts during monthly class meetings and some events. Some students from each year's program will be invited to serve as near-peer mentors in the next year's group. Forming the program as a community of practice for the learning of transformative leadership for social justice and providing structure for the community through the use of Project Based Learning, "[places] students on an outbound trajectory toward a broad field of possible identities," within social justice practice (Wenger, 1998, p. 263).

Discussion of Outcomes/Results

Preliminary results, based on observation of students currently engaged in the program include:
- Students who were previously unaware of, or not involved with, social justice issues are becoming engaged in the subject matter. While this subject matter is (significantly) outside their academic fields of study for these students, they are interested in becoming engaged in larger community/social issues. This is observed with their requesting further reading materials, campus and communities events to attend, and attendance at reflection at group meetings.

- Students are able to delineate among learner, ally, advocate, and activist roles and are able to see themselves, concretely, in roles they may not have considered for themselves before (ally or advocates or activists)as they build their skill set. They are finding arms of social justice about which they are passionate and where those are intersecting with leadership development (of themselves and others). They are stepping into leadership roles within their own circles where they are putting to use these tools.

- Students weave themselves into the larger social justice community because they are pushed outside their normal, defined boundaries as they search out the events they attend as part of the program. Students are becoming aware of people they have previously not noticed and working to learn more about them.

While the main goal of the program is the impact on students, one cannot be engaged in social justice work and leadership without experiencing development themselves. It is important then, to note the observable impacts on the program faculty. Program leaders become more aware of themselves and their beliefs which in turn, helps to crystallize their teaching. Shared time or

space for program leaders to reflect on their roles as near peers and experts allows for their continued development.

Reflections of the Practitioner

Reflection on our practice this semester has revealed some actions we wish we had taken including:

- Providing more time at each step of the process than you think you'll need. Because this work is so "heavy" allowing extra time allows you to account for the unexpected as well as allows for extra processing space. The need for processing space cannot be overstated.
- Being prepared to work with each student where they are in the individual sessions, and be cognizant of being flexible in group sessions in order to meet varying needs. Students progress through the continuum of learner, ally, advocate, and activist at their own pace. This requires a significant amount of individualized attention to each student as they wrestle with their understanding of social justice issues.
- Involving experts from local social justice organizations and efforts so that students can observe their work first hand and engage with them. A community of practice requires that legitimate peripheral participants have access to multiple near peers and experts so that they can see multiple possible identities.

Recommendations

- While the entire process has been positive, it is important to note that our experiences have lead us to the following recommendations:
- Allow time and space for students to explore their interests and discover the issues about which they are passionate. Because social justice is so innately context bound, it is important that space and time is allowed for each participant to develop their interests in ways that make the most sense for them.
- Provide a variety of opportunities to engage in the subject matter (websites, readings, guest speakers, reflection sessions), and be ready to search out more resources as interest from the students emerge.
- Provide resources for students to prepare them for attending events outside of their normal cultural experiences. Students may need support with how to be an appropriate observer or participant at specific events including how to dress, where to sit or stand, what actions or roles are open to all versus those that are reserved for members of the community, and to whom they can speak and when.

References

Astin, A. W., & Astin, H. S. (2000). Leadership Reconsidered: Engaging Higher Education in Social Change.

Brooks, J. S., & Miles, M. (2006). From scientific management to social justice . . . and back again? Pedagogical shifts in the study and practice of educational leadership. International Electronic Journal for Leadership in Learning, 10, Article 21. Retrieved from http://www.ucalgary.ca/iejll

Bruner, J. (1996). *The Culture of Education.* Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Furman, G. (2012). Social justice leadership as praxis: Developing capacities through preparation programs. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, *48*(2), 191-229.

Lave, J. & Wenger, E. (1991). *Situated Learning: Legitimate Peripheral Participation.* Cambridge, MA: Cambridge University Press.

Rapp, D. (2002). Social justice and the importance of rebellious, oppositional imaginations. Journal of School Leadership, 12, 226-245.

Shields, C. M. (2010). Transformative leadership: Working for equity in diverse contexts. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, *46*(4), 558-589.

Wenger, E. (1998). *Communities of Practice: Learning, Meaning, and Identity.* Cambridge, MA: Cambridge University Press.

Attachment A

One of every five children and adolescents has a mental disorder, and one in ten has a serious emotional disturbance that affects daily functioning. Black males have an incarceration rate 6x higher than white males and black students are expelled at 3x the rate of white students. LGBTQ persons are more than twice as likely to be victims of a hate crime than any other underrepresented group. Women are disproportionately represented in low wage occupations and underrepresented in upper management positions. Violence against muslims is up 78% from 2016 and is reaching 9/11 levels. This is but a small snapshot of the world in which we live, where inequality touches all pieces of our lives whether we identify as a member of one of these group mentioned above, or not. Inequality for someone is an open door for inequality for everyone.

Social Justice is the view that everyone deserves equal economic, political and social rights and opportunities. Social Justice Workers aim to open the doors of access and opportunity for everyone, particularly those in greatest need. Those who work in social justice do so as advocates or activists for causes about which they are passionate. You are a new member of the community of social justice. As such, you will progress from a learner and/or ally to an advocate and activist through what you learn from class sessions, independent readings and viewings, conversations with advocates and activists, cultural events, advocacy and activism events, and reflection on these experiences.

As you learn about the eight pillars of social justice and the issues and causes related to them, you will identify an issue about which you are passionate and work toward becoming an advocate or activist. You will develop a local event that addresses at least one pillar of social justice. Your plan must include:

- The specific issue you want to address and its scope,
- What action(s) participants will take (write, call, march, raise funds, tutor, etc),
- How you would publicize/find participants,
- How you will train or prepare participants,
- Where you would hold it,
- How you would fund it,
- How you will obtain permits and permissions, and
- Anticipated outcome(s).

You will present your plan at the final session to your peers, program leaders, and experts from social justice practice.

To achieve this, you will participate in:
- An online orientation via moodle,
- The development of at least two personal goals related to social justice,
- One formal cohort meeting per month,
- A minimum of two external learning experiences per month,
- Written reflection your external learning experiences, readings/viewings, and sessions submitted as personal blog posts shared with program leaders, and

- One reflection meeting with your programmatic mentor per month.

"I am Different, Not Less:" *Temple Grandin* and Strengths-Based Leadership Education

Haley Nicole Rosson & Penny Pennington Weeks
Oklahoma State University

Abstract

The use of film as a teaching methodology in an undergraduate personal leadership development course helped students apply strengths-based leadership concepts. The film *Temple Grandin* was utilized to illustrate key concepts from Buckingham and Clifton's (2001) text, *Now, Discover Your Strengths*. After completing the Gallup Clifton StrengthsFinder® assessment, students viewed the film *Temple Grandin* and identified Dr. Grandin's perceived top five strengths in relation to scenes from the film. Several lessons were devoted to the exploration and development of students' strengths. This practice paper describes the teaching methodologies employed and provides recommendations for leadership educators seeking to implement the use of film in their courses.

Introduction

Numerous definitions abound for the concept of authentic leadership (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Gardner, Avolio, Luthans, May, & Walumbwa, 2005; Northouse, 2010; Shamir & Eilam, 2005), a theory which is considered to be one of the newest areas of leadership research (Northouse, 2010). As the name suggests, the premise for becoming an authentic leader is to achieve authenticity, "through self-awareness, self-acceptance, and authentic actions and relationships" (Gardner et al., 2005, p. 345). Avolio, Luthans, and Walumbwa (2004) (as cited in Avolio, Gardner, Walumbwa, Luthans, & May, 2004) further posit that authentic leaders are individuals "who are deeply aware of how they think and behave and are perceived by others as being aware of their own and others' values/moral perspective, knowledge, and strengths" (p. 802-804).

As part of an undergraduate leadership degree program at a Midwestern university, students have the opportunity to enroll in a personal leadership development course (Pennington & Weeks, 2006; Scott & Weeks, 2016), which focuses on teaching authentic leadership development by "enhancing self-awareness through an exploration of personal values" (Pennington, 2006). One of the main objectives for the course is for students to examine their strengths as they relate to leadership by utilizing the Gallup Clifton StrengthsFinder® assessment and related strengths-based literature. The format of the course is not lecture-based, but rather utilizes multiple learning approaches, such as classroom discussions, group work, and experiential activities (Pennington, 2006). Several films are utilized throughout the semester to illustrate key concepts learned in the course. The film *Temple Grandin* is shown specifically to demonstrate strengths-based concepts.

Temple Grandin was chosen for this activity for a variety of reasons, the first being that in 2010, (the same year the film was released), Dr. Grandin visited the Midwestern university's campus for a seminar presentation on animal welfare and behavior, cattle handling, and autism awareness. The seminar was extremely well-attended and afforded the opportunity to announce the creation of a new endowed professorship within the university's animal science department –

the Temple Grandin Endowed Professorship in Animal Behavior and Well-Being (Gross, 2010). The film is well-suited for use with an agricultural leadership audience as it takes place in an agricultural context, thereby allowing students to effectively relate to the film's setting. Throughout the facilitation of this course over the period of several years, students have expressed a keen interest in and respect for Dr. Grandin and enjoy learning about her agricultural endeavors, as well as her promotion of autism awareness. Additionally, the film does an excellent job of emphasizing how Temple plays to her strengths and is able to manage her weaknesses, rather than focus on them, which is one of the founding tenets of Buckingham and Clifton's (2001) strengths-based philosophy.

Review of Related Scholarship

According to Rath and Conchie (2008), "people perform best when working in their strengths areas" (p. 1). Extensive research on the philosophy of strengths-based leadership has been conducted by the Gallup Organization (Hodges & Clifton, 2004; Rath & Conchie, 2008), who have found from the countless interviews conducted with managers across the world, that more benefit is garnered from focusing on our talents, rather than on becoming more "well-rounded" individuals (Hodges & Clifton, 2004). Within the context of education, it has been found that the identification of talents, coupled with strengths development, leads to "gains in GPA, state hope, and self-confidence, and declines in absenteeism and tardiness" (Clifton & Harder, 2003).

Leadership educators are continuously searching for new and innovative teaching methodologies in order to illustrate abstract concepts and theories (Porter & Wimmer, 2012; Wimmer, Meyers, Porter, & Shaw, 2012; Williams & McClure, 2010; Williams, 2006). In an analysis of signature pedagogies most frequently used by leadership educators in a college setting, Jenkins (2008) proposed that media clips, (in the form of films, television, YouTube videos, etc.) are a viable instructional strategy. Because leadership educators have found that principles of andragogy and experiential education lend themselves well to demonstrating leadership theories, movies have been found to be "a great way to infuse leadership theory with novel teaching methodology" (Williams, 2006, p. 60). When utilized in a classroom environment, movies can be "entertaining, informative, energizing, and educational, if used skillfully" (Graham, Sincoff, Baker, & Ackermann, 2003).

Learning Objective

The focus for this lesson was to have students view the film *Temple Grandin* as a way to reinforce knowledge learned in lecture about strengths theory as defined by Buckingham and Clifton (2001). The learning objective was: after viewing the film *Temple Grandin*, students will identify what they perceive to be Dr. Grandin's top five strengths, as per the Gallup Clifton StrengthsFinder® assessment, and will describe each of her identified strengths in relation to scenes from the film.

Description of Practice

This activity was conducted in the personal leadership development course at a Midwestern University (Pennington & Weeks, 2006). A portion of the course focuses on strengths

development by utilizing the text, *Now, Discover Your Strengths* (Buckingham & Clifton, 2001). Students were asked to complete the Gallup Clifton StrengthsFinder® assessment and utilized their identified top five strengths to complete several course assignments. Prior to viewing the film *Temple Grandin*, the instructor taught two lessons on "the anatomy of a strength" and "discover[ing] the source of your strengths" (Buckingham & Clifton, 2001). Several instructional strategies (Jenkins, 2012) were used to illustrate key course concepts: class discussion regarding chapter readings, a homework worksheet, a strengths debate, a review of each student's "signature themes" report, and a reflective essay on each student's top five strengths and the practical implications of the strengths approach.

Following these initial learning opportunities, students spent two class periods watching the film *Temple Grandin*. While watching the film, students were instructed to identify scenes and direct quotes that they believed revealed Dr. Grandin's top five strengths (per the 34 themes identified in the Gallup Clifton StrengthsFinder® assessment). Students took notes and completed a worksheet where they were asked to provide two relevant examples for each strength and how the scene and/or quote from the film related to the strength as defined by the course textbook.

For the following class meeting, students were divided into groups and were asked to discuss what strengths they had identified for Dr. Grandin. From the group lists, students then had to debate and vote on a collective "top five" list of strengths. Prior to the viewing of the film, the instructor's teaching assistant e-mailed Dr. Grandin to inquire if she had ever completed the StrengthsFinder® assessment and if she would be willing to share her results for the benefit of class discussion. Dr. Grandin responded, stating that she had not had the opportunity to complete the assessment, but based upon a review of the 34 signature themes, provided a list of what she believed to be her top five strengths. After identifying Dr. Grandin's strengths collectively as a class, her "actual" strengths were then revealed.

In addition to the activities completed in class, students also had the opportunity to complete an essay related to Dr. Grandin's strengths as part of a unit exam, as well as an instructor-developed evaluation over the key concepts exhibited in the film regarding strengths theory.

Discussion of Outcomes/Results

Nineteen students were enrolled in the personal leadership development course for the fall semester of 2016. Seventeen students completed the assignment evaluation and agreed to allow their evaluations and exam essays to be used to exemplify how *Temple Grandin* effectively illustrated the concept of strengths theory.

Responses to evaluation surveys
The instructor-developed evaluation survey consisted of nine questions that utilized a five-point Likert-type scale (1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neutral, 4 = Agree, and 5 = Strongly Agree) to assess students' level of agreement with statements regarding the use of the film *Temple Grandin* in class. Additional open-ended questions related to the use of the film, as well as demographic questions, were also utilized.

Students were almost even in gender with eight males and nine females. The class consisted of two freshman, six sophomores, six juniors, and three seniors. Several majors were represented, with the majority being either agricultural education ($n = 5$) or agricultural leadership ($n = 4$), followed by agricultural education/animal science double majors ($n = 3$), agricultural communications ($n = 2$), animal science ($n = 1$), family and consumer sciences education ($n = 1$), and an agricultural communications/pre-law double major ($n = 1$). Seven students had seen the film prior to watching it in class, while 10 students had never seen the film before.

The highest means reported were for the statements, "the movie was enjoyable," and "the movie was a nice change of pace from lecture," ($M = 4.65$, $SD = .493$). Students also agreed that "the movie made the concepts discussed in class seem more 'real world,'" ($M = 4.53$, $SD = .717$), "was relevant to course content," ($M = 4.41$, $SD = .795$), and that "seeing the leadership concepts portrayed in the movie reinforced the information more than if only learned in lecture," ($M = 4.41$, $SD = .712$). In addition, students agreed that they were "clearly able to identify scenes in the movie that best exemplified Temple's top five strengths," ($M = 4.18$, $SD = .728$). All students agreed that they would recommend the use of this film to help emphasize leadership concepts in this class in the future.

When asked to share their thoughts about using the film *Temple Grandin* in class, several students shared very positive opinions. One student also suggested that a recording of Dr. Grandin giving a lecture be shown in class to further help illustrate key concepts and bridge the divide between real-life and film.

- "I loved *Temple Grandin* – it relates to everyone in this class major-wise and was an interesting movie. I also liked the assignment for it; kept me focused and easy to fill out."
- *"Temple Grandin* was a good movie to use because she had clear strengths and maximized them instead of her weaknesses."
- "It caused some deeper thinking because you get to see how the concepts are used."
- "This was a great and relevant movie to use in class. Some movies are not worth it, but this one is."

Class activity: Identifying Dr. Grandin's top five strengths
After viewing the film *Temple Grandin*, an in-class discussion was held where students were divided into four groups and were asked to discuss what strengths they had identified for Dr. Grandin, as per the worksheet completed in class while watching the film. Each group had to collectively identify what they believed to be Dr. Grandin's top five strengths. The list for each group was written on the board and were compared for common strengths. Students then had to create an overall class list of Dr. Grandin's strengths and had to provide justification - specific examples from the film that exemplified her "naturally recurring patterns of thought, feeling, or behavior" (Buckingham & Clifton, 2001, p. 48) – for any tie-breakers.

The following table is the list of strengths identified by the class versus the list of strengths identified by Dr. Grandin herself. It should be noted that the class list was developed based on students' perceptions of Dr. Grandin in the film, whereas Dr. Grandin's list was developed after she reviewed the descriptions for each of the 34 themes identified in the Clifton StrengthsFinder® assessment (Dr. Grandin stated she has not actually completed the assessment before).

Class List of Dr. Grandin's Strengths	Dr. Grandin's Perceived Strengths
Learner	Achiever
Analytical	Focus
Achiever	Input
Strategic	Intellection
Belief	Responsibility

Responses to unit exam essay question

For the unit exam over the Buckingham and Clifton (2001) text, *Now, Discover Your Strengths*, students had the opportunity to respond to one of two essay prompts, the second of which was related to identifying Dr. Grandin's top five strengths. It should be noted that students were asked to identify the five strengths identified collectively as a class, rather than Dr. Grandin's actual perceived strengths.

> *According to the authors, it is important to focus on our strengths rather than to focus on our weaknesses. Why (10 points)? In class, we viewed the story of Temple Grandin and discussed her strengths. Identify five of Dr. Grandin's strengths according to our discussion and identify five specific scenes from the film, one that demonstrates each of her five strengths (20 points). Finally, identify one of the ways to manage our weaknesses (described in Chapter 5) that Dr. Grandin used and give an example from the film (10 points).*

Learner
- "An example of learner is when [the film] showed her photographic memory when she quoted the book after looking at the page. This shows she is a graphic learner."

Analytical
- "An example of analytical is when she was figuring out how the cattle moved in the chutes, she analyzed the movements and every obstacle there was that could affect the cattle."

Achiever
- "An example of achiever is when she watched the cattle go through the chute and it calmed them, so she designed one for herself."

Strategic
- "Strategic was her fourth theme and displayed it as she could see the patterns the cattle took when moving and their behavior. With this information, she found a better way of handling cattle."

Belief
- "An example of belief is when she stood up at the end of the movie with all the kids and parents who are in some way struggling with autism. She stood up with courage and spoke about how she dealt with [autism] and what ways she used it to make her better, and she believes everything has a purpose."

Reflections of the Practitioner

Over the course of the semester, several films are utilized to analyze leaders such as Dan West, Katie Davis, Alice Paul, and Temple Grandin. Movies can provide an effective visual representation of the concepts portrayed during lecture, especially when presented within a context that is relevant to students, thereby generating increased levels of interest and engagement. It is important to note, however, that the film is not used as a stand-alone learning activity. Rather, a foundation of lower-order learning (understanding and remembering) is created through the use of activities related to the strengths philosophy, followed by an analysis of each student's strengths (analyzing), which leads to levels of higher-order learning through evaluation and synthesis of the film (analyzing and evaluating) (Bloom, Engelhart, Furst, Hill, & Krathwohl, 1956).

By reviewing students' evaluation surveys and exam essay responses, it can be concluded that students enjoyed the film *Temple Grandin* and believed that the film helped them to illustrate key course concepts. By identifying specific scenes from the film, students were able to effectively recognize Dr. Grandin's perceived top five strengths and describe how her strengths were best maximized.

Recommendations

While several films are shown throughout the semester, other movies should be explored for their applicability to key leadership concepts in order to provide variability and enthusiasm (Rosenshine & Furst, 1971). Additional movie recommendations made by students to illustrate strengths-based concepts are *Remember the Titans*, *The Blind Side*, *No More Baths*, *Forrest Gump*, *300*, and *Coach Carter*. Additional experiential activities related specifically to strengths-based leadership education should continue to be explored.

References

Anderson, E. C. (2004). *Signature themes in common – similar and dissimilar experiences.* Princeton, NJ: The Gallup Organization.

Anderson, E. C. (2004). *Understanding and respecting talent differences*. Princeton, NJ: The Gallup Organization.

Anderson, E. C. (2004). *My signature themes and how I use the talents in them*. Princeton, NJ: The Gallup Organization.

Avolio, B. J. & Gardner, W. L. (2005). Authentic leadership development: Getting to the root of positive forms of leadership. *The Leadership Quarterly, 16*(3), 315-338. Retrieved from http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S1048984305000263

Avolio, B. J., Gardner, W. L., Walumbwa, F. O., Luthans, F., & May, D. R. (2004). Unlocking the mask: A look at the process by which authentic leaders impact follower attitudes and

behaviors. *The Leadership Quarterly, 15*, 801-823. Retrieved from http://www.ipcrc.net/LDI/pdfs/sdarticle-unlocking-the-mask.pdf

Bloom, B. S., Engelhart, M. D., Furst, E. J., Hill, W. H., & Krathwohl, D. R. (1956). *Taxonomy of educational objectives – handbook 1: Cognitive domain*. New York: David McKay Company, Inc.

Buckingham, M., & Clifton, D. O. (2001). *Now, discover your strengths*. New York, NY: The Free Press.

Clifton, D. O., & Harter, J. K. (2003). Investing in strengths. *Positive organizational scholarship: Foundations of a new discipline*, 111-121. Retrieved from https://www.researchgate.net/profile/James_Harter/publication/242468710_INVESTING_IN_ST RENGTHS/links/53e39aed0cf25d674e91b306.pdf

Gardner, W. L., Avolio, B. J., Luthans, F., May, D. R., & Walumbwa, F. (2005). "Can you see the real me?" A self-based model of authentic leader and follower development. *The Leadership Quarterly, 16*(3), 343-372. Retrieved from http://uwtv.org/files/2013/01/gardneravolioluthansmaywalumbwa2005.pdf

Graham, T. S., Sincoff, M. Z., Baker, B., & Ackermann, J. C. (2003). Reel leadership: Hollywood takes the leadership challenge. *Journal of Leadership Education, 2*(2), 37-45. Retrieved from http://www.journalofleadershiped.org/attachments/article/36/JOLE_2_2_Graham_Sincoff_Baker .pdf

Gross, M. (2010). *Temple Grandin visits Oklahoma State University* [Press Release]. Retrieved from http://fapc.biz/news/templegrandinvisitsosu.html

Hodges, T. D., & Clifton, D. O. (2004). Strengths-based development in practice. *Positive Psychology in Practice,* 256-268. Retrieved from http://strengths-dev2.uark.edu/documents/development-in-practice.pdf

Jenkins, D. M. (2001). Exploring signature pedagogies in undergraduate leadership education. *Journal of Leadership Education, 11*(1), 1-27.

Northouse, P. G. (2010). *Leadership: Theory and Practice* (5th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.

Pennington, P. (2006). Authentic leadership in college classroom. *Academic Exchange Quarterly, 10*(2), 12-16. Retrieved from http://rapidintellect.com/AEQweb/edchoiceold.htm

Pennington, P., & Weeks, W. (2006). Agricultural leadership: Oklahoma State University's new major for undergraduate students. *NACTA Journal, 50*(4), 42-46.

Porter, H. & Wimmer, G. (2012). A winning strategy: Using *Glory Road* to illustrate the stages of group development. *Journal of Leadership Education, 11*(2), 247-256. Retrieved from http://www.journalofleadershiped.org/attachments/article/79/Porter_Wimmer.pdf

Rath, T., & Conchie, B. (2008). *Strengths-based leadership: Great leaders, teams, and why people follow.* Retrieved from http://www.stevegladisleadershippartners.com/wp-content/uploads/2013/05/Strengths-Based-Leadership-FINAL.pdf

Rosenshine, B. & Furst, N. (1971). Research on teacher performance criteria. In B. O. Smith (Ed.), *Research in Teacher Education – A Symposium* (pp. 37-72). Retrieved from https://eric.ed.gov/?id=ED049193

Scott, M., & Weeks, P. P. (2016). Using film to teach authentic leadership. *Journal of Leadership Education, 15*(1), 140-149. Retrieved from http://www.journalofleadershiped.org/attachments/article/419/v15i1scott0423.pdf

Shamir, B. & Eilam, G. (2005). "What's your story?" A life-stories approach to authentic leadership development. *The Leadership Quarterly, 16*, 395-417. Retrieved from https://sites.fas.harvard.edu/~soc186/AssignedReadings/Shamir-Stories.pdf

Williams, J. & McClure, M. (2010). The effects of teaching methods in leadership knowledge retention: An experimental design of lecture, experiential, and public pedagogy. *Journal of Leadership Education, 9*(2), 86-100. Retrieved from http://leadershipeducators.org/Resources/Documents/jole/2010_summer/Williams_and_McClure.pdf

Williams, J. R. (2006). Pirates and power: What Captain Jack Sparrow, his friends, and his foes can teach us about power bases. *Journal of Leadership Education, 5*(2), 60-68. Retrieved from http://www.journalofleadershiped.org/attachments/article/253/Jole_5_2_Williams.pdf

Wimmer, G., Meyers, C., Porter, H., & Shaw, M. (2012). Learning vicariously: Students' reflections of the leadership lessons portrayed in *The Office*. *Journal of Leadership Education, 11*(2), 52-71. Retrieved from http://www.journalofleadershiped.org/attachments/article/91/Wimmer%20Meyers%20Porter%20_%20Shaw.pdf

APPENDIX A

Instructor Notes

Day 1 – The Anatomy of A Strength
In-class activity: Strengths Debate – divide class in half. Assign each group a position and allow 10 minutes to formulate talking points for their position.
1) Each person CAN/CANNOT learn to be competent in almost anything
2) Each person's greatest room for growth is in his/her area of greatest WEAKNESS/STRENGTH

Homework assignment: Complete the *Now, Discover Your Strengths* worksheet [Appendix B] and take the StrengthsFinder® assessment. Print off signature themes report and bring to next lesson.

Day 2 – Discover the Source of Your Strengths
In-class activity:
- Review signature themes reports
- Complete the following StrengthsQuest™ and StrengthsFinder® worksheets: "My signature themes and how I use the talents in them," "Signature themes in common – similar and dissimilar experiences," and "Understanding and respecting talent differences" (Anderson, 2004).
- As a class, discuss results from worksheets.

Days 3 and 4 – *Temple Grandin*
In-class activity:
- View the film *Temple Grandin*
- Complete the corresponding worksheet – Now, Discover Your Strengths*: Temple Grandin* [Appendix C]

Day 5 – *Temple Grandin* film discussion
In-class activity:
- Review key concepts and definitions from Introduction, Chapter 1 – Strong Lives, Chapter 2 – Strength Building, and Chapter 3 – StrengthsFinder
- Identify Temple Grandin's strengths – work in groups to identify Temple's top five strengths, then create a collective class list of top five strengths. Reveal Temple's "actual" strengths.

APPENDIX B

Now, Discover Your Strengths: Review of Chapters 1-3

Instructions: Complete the following questions.

INTRODUCTION
1. What two assumptions guide the world's best managers? Discuss.
2. How many themes of human talent did the strengths research identify?
3. How many dominant themes does the StrengthsFinder identify for each person?

CHAPTER ONE – STRONG LIVES
4. How is strength defined by the authors?
5. What are the three most important principles of living a strong life?
6. Briefly define talents, knowledge, and skills.

CHAPTER TWO – STRENGTH BUILDING
7. What two flaws area associated with skills?
8. Why are your talents enduring and unique?

CHAPTER THREE – STRENGTHS FINDER
9. Why are your talents so important to strengths building?
10. What does it mean to monitor your spontaneous, top-of-mind reactions?
11. What are three more clues to your talents? Discuss.

Take the StrengthsFinder inventory
Bring results to class with your completed worksheet

APPENDIX C

Now, Discover Your Strengths: *Temple Grandin* Worksheet

INSTRUCTIONS: (Homework/Participation Points) At the conclusion of the film, you will identify what you believe to be Temple Grandin's 5 top strengths. During the film, be sure to take notes related to scenes that you believe reveal Dr. Grandin's strengths. If relevant, include direct quotes in support of your position. Include 2 examples for each strength and how the scene and/or quote from the film relates to the strength as defined by your textbook.

Strength 1: _____	

Strength 2: _____	

Strength 3: _____	

Strength 4: _____	

Strength 5: _____	

Promoting Leadership for Sustainability via "Momentum for Change" Awards Project

Barbara Altman
Texas A&M University – Central Texas

Abstract

There is a growing need in leadership education for strategies to teach students global awareness. This innovative practice session will present a tested exercise that can be used to sensitize leadership students to model projects being recognized by the United Nations "Momentum for Change" awards. These awards highlight innovative change initiatives that address the UN Sustainability Development goals. Through researching and reporting on these projects leadership students begin becoming more aware of a global mindset and the breadth of challenges involved with sustainability, a critical leadership skill for responsible management in the 21st century.

Introduction

Leadership students today are challenged to adopt a global mindset and be aware of the global challenges that await them in many organizational contexts (Dyllick, 2015; Muff, 2013). Perhaps no challenge is larger than the one facing our planet, where at the current rate we are using close to one and a half times the earth's resources (Jeanrenaud, Jeanrenaud & Gosling, 2016). Current leadership texts, while they mention a global mindset as a necessary leadership skill, do not go far enough to train or sensitize students to what this challenge encompasses, especially as it relates to sustainability.

The "Principles for Responsible Management Education", a consortium organization whose membership includes 650 academic institutions (primarily Business Schools) worldwide in 85 countries (http://www.unprme.org/participants/index.php) has been formed to increase awareness among higher education institutions of the need for training future leaders for corporate responsibility and sustainability challenges. Among the principles of PRME are the following:

Principle 1/Purpose: We will develop the capabilities of student to be future generators of sustainable value for business and society at large and to work for an inclusive and sustainable global economy; and
Principle 3/Method: We will create educational frameworks, materials, processes and environments that enable effective learning experiences for responsible leadership.
(http://www.unprme.org/about-prme/the-six-principles.php)

PRME uses the United Nations Global Compact as its guiding principles and within that framework are the 17 Sustainable Development goals (United Nations, 2015). The goals included within this agenda are far-reaching and broad, ranging from reducing poverty to gender equality, to energy accessibility to resilient cities, to climate change mitigation (see Exhibit 1). It is a challenge within the context of a leadership course to sensitize students to this complexity. Still, it is incumbent on leadership educators to attempt to design classroom exercises that will expose them to the range of issues, along with ideas for potential solutions.

This paper will outline a practical project that has been tested multiple times within the leadership classroom to sensitize undergraduate and graduate students to what encompasses the United Nations Sustainable Development goals and sample model projects that promote organizational change toward sustainability. Students are challenged to research multiple innovative projects and determine which seem most worthwhile and replicable in other locations. The project attempts to achieve the following learning objectives; students will:

- Recognize the range of activities included in the UN Sustainable Development goals; and
- Identify innovative leadership strategies for global social issues.

Review of Related Scholarship

The literature on leadership skills contains a number of recent studies that attest to the need for leadership education to train up and coming leaders for sustainability challenges (Dyllick, 2015). As articulated by Metcalf and Benn (2013):

> *…… leadership for sustainability requires leaders of extraordinary abilities. These are leaders who can read and predict through complexity, think through complex problems, engage groups in dynamic adaptive organizational change and have the emotional intelligence to adaptively engage with their own emotions associated with complex problem solving.* (p. 369)

Under the purview of "Responsible Leadership", a more recent term coined by the Management Education "50+20" initiative, leaders must be able to work across organizational boundaries to solve large-scale social issues (Muff, et al., 2013).

Drilling down to the course level, leadership texts give short shift to these concepts. There are extensive resources available to leadership educators to train students on issues of sustainability, including case studies, policy papers, TED talks and non-profit organization prepared policy papers (Lawrence, 2014). All of these resources are useful, however, do not provide a succinct overview of the variety of topics that sustainability encompasses. An understanding of this breadth is a necessary first step to grasping the complexity of the challenges.

Other courses, like Business Ethics, do address corporate social responsibility and sustainability management concepts however not all leadership students are required to take these classes. Leadership educators would do well to recognize that sustainability awareness and environmental literacy are needed components to a well prepared future leader.

Description of the Practice

In designing this exercise, research was done to find a practical exercise that would enlighten students to the breadth and complexity of sustainability topics. The United Nations "Momentum for Change" awards meet this description and are described as follows:

The Momentum for Change awards recognize innovative examples of how people around the world are addressing climate change. Organizations, cities, industries, governments and other key players that are taking the lead on tackling climate change can nominate their game-changing projects for an award. (http://newsroom.unfccc.int/unfccc- newsroom/podcast-what-is-momentum-for-change-unfccc-spokesperson-explains/)

The awards are granted in six categories:

Planetary Health: recognizing novel solutions that balance the need for both human health and a healthy planet, implemented with the generous support of the Rockefeller Foundation.
Climate Neutral Now: recognizing efforts by individuals, companies and governments that are achieving real results in transitioning to climate neutrality.
Women for Results: recognizing the critical leadership and participation of women in addressing climate change.
Financing for Climate Friendly Investment: recognizing successful and innovative climate-smart activities.
ICT Solutions: recognizing successful climate change activities in the field of information and communication technology.
Urban Poor: recognizing climate action that improves the lives of impoverished people in urban communities. (http://unfccc.int/secretariat/momentum_for_change/items/6214.php)

The rigorous selection criterion for the awards includes:

- Be scalable and replicable.
- Already be implemented or in the process of implementation.
- Address climate change mitigation or adaptation.
- Be innovative and/or demonstrate potential for long-term transformational change.
- Deliver verifiable social and environmental benefits.

The description of the awards granted each year are available online to review and research. Students are assigned to read about three years of awards; this link is to the 2015 awards for context and information: http://newsroom.unfccc.int/unfccc-newsroom/2015-momentum-for-change-lighthouse-activities/.

Instructions for students for this written assignment include: After reading the descriptions of the 2014, 2015 and 2016 awards, choose two (must be from two different categories) that you think will be the most impactful. It is preferred that the award be to a company, but if you see others as especially impactful you are not restricted to writing about a business for this assignment. In your two write-ups, include the following information about the project (each section should be at least one long paragraph):

I.   Title of Project, location and brief overview description.

II.   Statement of the climate change issue the project is addressing, which of the 6 categories it is in and how the project is addressing that issue.

III.   The results thus far from the project.

IV.   The potential for replication and transformational change as a result of this project.

V.   The leadership challenges involved in replicating this project in other locations.

Discussion of Outcomes/Results

Students engage with and do very well with this assignment. Results from three semesters of assignments show average scores of high B's. While this is a written assignment, students are asked to describe in class, after the assignment is due, one of the two projects they choose and why. Students therefore engage an additional time with the variety of projects by hearing their colleagues' reports of their chosen projects. For an online class, this follow-up work could be done via an online discussion forum.

Reflections of the Practitioner

I have enjoyed assigning this project. I think it is well received and not only teaches students a sensitivity to sustainability topics that they might not have had in the past and innovative leadership strategies, but it also provides them enough internet resources so that if they want to explore further they can. Students have often made comments in class that they had no idea the United Nations defined sustainability so broadly or that so many creative and innovative initiatives were underway world-wide. The leadership challenge of replicating the project in other locations forces students to consider how they would perform in a similar role.

Recommendations

This project will be explained in further depth and a handout with the full project instructions and a grading rubric will be available at the conference presentation. Upon attending the session, leadership educators will come away with the tools and background to be fully able to assign the project in their classes. Adoption of the "Momentum for Change" assignment should add a worthwhile global awareness and "Leadership for Sustainability" component to any undergraduate or graduate leadership class.

References

Dyllick, T. (2015). Responsible management education for a sustainable world: the challenges for business schools. *Journal of Management Development*, 34 (5), 16-33.

Jeanrenaud, S., Jeanrenaud, J.P., & Gosling, J. (2016). Sustainable Business: A One Planet Approach. Oxford, UK: John Wiley & Sons.

Lawrence, J. (2014). Resources for teaching business sustainability. *Case Research Journal*. 34 (3), 155 – 163.

Metcalf, L. & Benn, S. (2013). Leadership for sustainability: an evolution of leadership ability.

Journal of Business Ethics, 11 (2), 369-384.

Muff, K., Dyllick, T., Drewell, M., North, J., Shrivastava, P., and Haertle, J. (2013). Management Education for the World: A Vision for Business Schools Serving People and Planet. Cheltenham, UK: Edward Elgar.

Muff, K. (2013). Developing globally responsible leaders in business schools: A vision and transformational practice for the journey ahead. *Journal of Management Development*, 32(5), 487-507.

United Nations General Assembly (25 September 2015). Resolution: Transforming our world: the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development. Retrieved 3/1/2017 from http://www.un.org/ga/search/view_doc.asp?symbol=A/RES/70/1&Lang=E.

Exhibit One: United Nations 2015 Sustainable Development Goals*

Sustainable   Development Goals

Goal 1.   End poverty in all its forms everywhere

Goal 2. End hunger, achieve food security and improved nutrition and promote sustainable agriculture

Goal 3. Ensure healthy lives and promote well-being for all at all ages

Goal 4. Ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all

Goal 5.   Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls

Goal 6. Ensure availability and sustainable management of water and sanitation for all

Goal 7 Ensure   access   to affordable,   reliable, sustainable   and modern energy for all

Goal 8. Promote sustained, inclusive and sustainable economic growth, full and productive employment and decent work for all

Goal 9. Build resilient infrastructure, promote inclusive and sustainable industrialization and foster innovation

Goal 10.   Reduce inequality within and among countries

Goal 11. Make cities and human settlements inclusive, safe, resilient and sustainable

Goal 12. Ensure   sustainable   consumption   and   production patterns

Goal 13. Take urgent action to combat climate change and its impacts*

Goal 14. Conserve and sustainably use the oceans, seas and marine resources for sustainable development

Goal 15. Protect, restore and promote sustainable use of terrestrial ecosystems, sustainably manage forests, combat desertification, and halt and reverse land degradation and halt biodiversity loss

Goal 16. Promote peaceful and inclusive societies for sustainable development, provide access to justice for all and build effective, accountable and inclusive institutions at all levels

Goal 17. Strengthen the means of implementation and revitalize the Global Partnership for Sustainable Development

*Acknowledging that the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change is the primary international, intergovernmental forum for negotiating the global response to climate change.

*Excerpted from United National General Assembly (25 September 2015). Resolution: Transforming our world: the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development. http://www.un.org/ga/search/view_doc.asp?symbol=A/RES/70/1&Lang=E

Complementing Responsible Conduct of Research Training: Ethical Leadership Development for PhD Students in STEM

John Lubker & Ethan Fridmanski
University of Notre Dame

Abstract

Current research shows that the cultivation of ethical workplace cultures is dependent upon leadership; and Notre Dame's Ethical Leaders in STEM program builds from that foundation. Despite the importance of leadership in fostering ethical cultures, training in responsible conduct of research (the primary training expectation for graduate students) typically conveys content passively rather than explicitly attempting to create ethical leaders through active, experiential learning. Thus, many scientists and engineers who take on leadership positions during their careers master their disciplinary content as graduate students but not the requisite skills in leadership and ethics. More focused, and active, leadership training is needed at the graduate student level in order to create a more ethical culture in STEM disciplines. This paper will highlight the Ethical Leaders in STEM program and discuss the assessment and outcomes of a model that is experiential, active, and focused on creating future ethical leaders in STEM fields.

Introduction

The current climate with its growing skepticism for the value of science, society needs ethical leaders in STEM fields to defend the value of inquiry. Graduate programs must equip the next generation of scientists and engineers with the necessary skills to assume such leadership. Current research shows that the cultivation of ethical workplace cultures is dependent upon leadership and this program builds from that foundation. Despite the importance of leadership in fostering ethical cultures, training in responsible conduct of research (the primary training expectation for graduate students) typically passively conveys content on the core norms, principles, regulations, and rules governing the practice of research rather than explicitly attempting to create ethical leaders through experiential and active learning (CITI, 2017; Rowland, 2016). Thus, many scientists and engineers who take on leadership positions during their careers master their disciplinary content as graduate students but not the requisite skills in leadership and ethics. More focused and active leadership training is needed at the graduate student level in order to create a more ethical culture in STEM disciplines.

The current literature in business and scientific research ethics demonstrates the impact of training programs in research ethics and management that promote ethical leaders and ethical character (Barch, Harris, & Bonsall 2012; Ross, 2014). This work has shown that ethical training is most effective at cultivating ethical cultures when it is delivered as a hybrid in which students learn and then put training to work through role-playing and hands-on experience. One such program is the National Science Foundation-funded Ethical Leaders in STEM (EL-STEM) training program for STEM PhD students at the University of Notre Dame. The year-long program combines workshops, small-group and individual mentorship, and a practicum experience for sixteen 3rd and 4th year PhD students. Throughout the experience students will improve upon four broad sets of skills:

1.) Leadership and decision making: this includes leadership theory and skills, personal values and priorities, personality types and skill sets of self and others, and weighing ethical concerns in decision making.
2.) Values and ethics: basic understanding of ethical theory and virtue ethics; ability to self-reflect on values and priorities; ability to make difficult ethical decisions.
3.) Communications skills: including science communication to laymen; general public speaking and presenting; interviews and speaking to media; interacting with policy makers; and learning to listen.
4.) Knowledge of relevant non-science social contexts: this may include areas such as policy, business, economics, healthcare, politics, media, religion, or culture.

Through improving upon these four skillsets participants will gain a better understanding of themselves, others, and the organizations in which they serve, and then to apply their training in a manner informed by the University's core values of integrity, accountability, teamwork, leadership in mission, and leadership in excellence, in order to impact their community through a self-identified practicum experience. These hybrid classroom and experienced-based opportunities serve as a forum to learn about and gain experience in self-awareness, communication skills, and people and project management (Cleland, 1995; Mumford et al., 2007; Tippins, 2013).

Ethical leadership training is both important and effective at the graduate student level for three reasons: 1) the greater independence and decision-making that is afforded a PhD student as compared to an undergraduate; 2) outcomes of decisions made having lower stakes compared to levels of responsibility of a faculty member or employee; and 3) students having access to multiple mentors in multiple roles. Moreover, due to the rigors of the PhD, a co-curricular leadership training program can be highly effective. However, while this co-curricular model has positive qualities, it also presents some significant challenges, such as accommodating time and commitment concerns of both students and faculty advisors.

Whether it be in industry or academia, students must be equipped with transferrable skills once their tenure as students comes to an end. Multiple assessments measure the impact of the program on its participants, specifically through assessing the four skill sets discussed above. The results of these assessments point to the program having a positive impact on its participants and these outcomes will be discussed in relation to future iterations of ethical leadership co-curricular training for graduate students.

While the empirical cross-comparison is not the focus here it is important to make the final intentions of the NSF funding known. In the Ethical Leaders in STEM program, the focus is on the researcher; a sister program at ND, Socially Responsible Researchers (SRR), focuses on the implications of the research that is being produced (Carlson, 2011; Herkert, 2005; Kline, 2013). The NSF funding is to compare the effectiveness of the training models and foci of the two programs which share the same goals and outcomes, but differ in methods and emphasis. Both programs share some assessments and a trinary cross-comparison will be conducted at the end of the study between the EL-STEM and SSR programs and a control group. The broader project will ultimately include three cohorts with three testing periods per cohort.

Background Literature

Leadership and Ethical Cultures

This research project builds upon the premise that the cultivation of ethical workplace cultures is dependent upon leadership; a position held in current literature. Some experts have demonstrated that organizational culture is the most important determinant of both ethical and unethical employee behavior; others focus on organizational structures and leadership when examining ethical behaviors (Cohen, 1993; Meyers, 2004; Ardichvili, Mitchell & Jondle, 2009; Jedlicka, 2007; Brown & Trevio, 2006; M.D. Mumford, et al. 2007; Kapp & Parboteeah, 2008).

Research in business ethics has shown that employees perform better when they feel respected at work, this respect from leadership is closely related to workplace climate; a lack of such respect creates dissatisfaction and social problems in the workplace (van Quaquebeke & Eckloff, 2009). When safety is valued in the workplace, the result is a more productive worker. Safety is an issue of human dignity and human rights, and therefore a reflection of a workplace's ethical climate (Kapp & Parboteeah, 2008). Furthermore, if leadership places too much emphasis on achieving goals and little to no emphasis on following procedures, then unethical conduct is likely to occur (Cohen, 1993).

Literature on research misconduct comes to similar conclusions about the role of leadership in determining employee conduct. One study suggests a top- down approach to cultivating ethical workplace cultures. Ethical leaders serve as models of proper conduct and police through protocols. Transformational leadership behaviors—being proactive, providing ethics instruction, offering resources, and performing ethics audits—create a culture that promotes responsible conduct of research at academic centers (Gilmore 2011). Anderson and colleagues (1994) investigated the types of misconduct in laboratories, differentiating between research misconduct, employment misconduct, and personal misconduct. They noted that structure and climate do not control the number of incidences of research misconduct. Rather, they concluded that leadership is the primary factor controlling whether a laboratory has an ethical culture—or not: "In other words, our data support arguments that fraud, plagiarism, and related forms of misconduct are due to individual predilections or failures of judgment, which might be controlled through institutional oversight and peer review but cannot easily be prevented by restructuring or reorienting departments" (Anderson et al., 1994, p. 343). When students feel that advisors and others provide useful feedback and evaluation, fewer incidences of research misconduct are observed (Anderson et al., 1994). The current literature in both business and scientific research has shown that—regardless of the type of workplace, whether an office or a laboratory—cultivation of ethical workplace cultures is dependent upon leadership.

Response-Shift Bias

The literature clearly indicates the need to account for and continue to study response-shift bias (Black et al., 2009; Goedhart et al., 1992; Rohs et al., 1999; Rohs, 2001). In addition to structural limitations placed on graduate students, evidence for the explicit need for supplementary leadership and ethics training is important (Barch, Harris, & Bonsall 2012; Ross, 2014).

Graduate training typically does not include explicit leadership cultivation and many students work in isolated environments, further separating them from leadership roles and models (Price, 2012). The phenomenon of response-shift bias supports these claims with more tangible proof. In the past studies on leadership and ethics training overestimation of a student's own skill is common. Previous research on ethical and leadership training programs have found that respondents overestimate their leadership and ethical decision making abilities prior to formal education on the topics (Black et al., 2009; Goedhart et al., 1992; Rohs et al., 1999; Rohs, 2001). Researchers have suggested ways to adjust for this bias through reassessment during specific points in the training program (Rohs et al., 1999). While bias is usually considered a bad thing, in the context of leadership training programs and evaluation it is possible to use this opportunity to measure growth. Part of the reason why response-shift bias is observed is in part due to a lack of self-awareness about leadership abilities. How can one properly assess their own leadership qualities without knowledge about leadership and ethical decision making? One of the goals of the EL-STEM program is to help teach this self-awareness; through response-shift bias assessment methodology the study is able to document this growth in self-awareness.

Description of the Practice

Program Goals and General Timeline for Cohorts

The objective of the Ethical Leaders in STEM program is for graduate PhD students to gain a better understanding of themselves, others, and the organizations in which they serve. As leaders in their fields, they will apply their training in a manner informed by the University's core values of integrity, accountability, teamwork, leadership in mission, and leadership in excellence. The program's purpose is to provide a framework for leadership training for graduate students as a supplement to their academic training. It serves as a forum to practice and develop self-awareness, communication skills, and people and project management through classroom and practical experiences. The goals of this program are threefold: to provide an opportunity to become aware of and further develop one's leadership strengths, to provide an ethical foundation for decision-making, and to positively impact the community.

The EL-STEM program has multiple modes of instruction to train the students in effective leadership and ethical decision making. The empirical component includes both quantitative and qualitative assessments which help the researchers evaluate progress within the program and its effectiveness in relation to another comparable on-campus program. Each assessment and training experience are informed by six core goals:

- **Context** - Context is defined as "the circumstances that form the setting for an event, statement, or idea, and in terms of which it can be fully understood and assessed."
- **Impacts** - Perceived impact is defined as "the ability to perceive the impacts of the decisions you make before they are made."
- **Engage** - Engaging others is defined as "the ability to communicate responsibly and interact more effectively within the organization in which one serves, and within the community which one's leadership will impact."

- **Adapt** - Adapting leadership/research is defined as "the ability to identify ways in which one can enhance the social relevance and impact of the change one is trying to achieve."
- **Self-Awareness** - Self-awareness is defined as, "the ability to become more cognizant of one's own values, motivations and ethical orientation, so one can drive change based on one's values."
- **Model and Mentor** - Model and mentor is defined as "the ability to be a mentor and ethical model."

Training Modules

The core training modules include preparatory reading prior to the start of the program, workshops occurring every three weeks, a self-identified experiential practicum, and a leadership symposium that concludes the program. This multi-dimensional approach helps target each of the specific goals above and provides a diverse range of educational opportunities.

Annual Timeline for EL-STEM program		
Time period	**Activities**	**Details**
January	Program announced	Call for applications is circulated
March 15	Application packets due	Students submit packet
April	Students notified	Students receive acceptance offers and rejection letters
May-July	Preparatory Reading	Students read about leadership frameworks, specific topics to be studied, and ethical decision-making
August-July	Workshops	Guest speakers, participant-led workshops, crucibles, peer mentorship, dynamic leadership activities
August	Leadership Symposium	ND community invited, each participant shares personal outcomes of the program

The timeline is provided in the table above. The practicum experience—such as advising and mentoring the biology club for undergraduates, organizing a professional conference, or carrying out an international summer service-learning project—is proposed by the student during the student's application, refined upon selection for the program, and is engaged in throughout the time in the program. During the practica, each participant will put the skills learned into action (Jiang, et al. 2009). The practicum will culminate with an on-campus leadership symposium where each participant will present about their practicum experience and personal outcomes of

the program. This experience based approach is essential in preparing students to lead in both academic and non-academic contexts and can provide immediate returns in their performance during graduate school.

Assessments and Evaluation Procedures

Assessments are conducted to evaluate student progress with a baseline assessment before the program is started, throughout the program, at completion, and one year after completion. Both the EL-STEM and SSR programs are assessed in the same manner with the overlapping core set of measures. While comparative analysis is not the focus of this paper it is important to note which assessments will be used in the final comparison.

Assessment Modules	
Assessment List	**Description of Assessment**
Defining Issues Test	Multiple choice assessment for moral judgement. It takes the Kohlberg approach to morality, distinguishing between both micro and macro morality.
Engineering and Science Issues Test	Multiple choice assessment for moral judgement but with a focus on moral dilemmas faced in science and engineering, constructed like the Defining Issues Test.
Self-Assessment	Created and validated by the project leaders and explicitly assesses each of the six program goals listed in section 3.1 through multiple choice, with a separate assessment for each goal.
New General Self-Efficacy Scale	Multiple choice assessment that focuses on general self-efficacy or, the ability of the individual to adapt effectively to novel and adverse environments.
Integrity and Character Scale	Multiple choice assessment that measures the level of integrity of an individual and the relationship between an individual's ethical beliefs and behaviors.
Social Networks	Tracks the growth of student's social networks prior, during, and after involvement in the program through relationship mapping.
Case Studies	Qualitative component of the assessment modules. Participants are presented with an ethical dilemma and then asked a series of open ended questions targeting the ethical decision making process. This assessment includes a quantitative component in the form of sentiment analysis, in particular the textual and

	lexical diversity (MTLD) index, which calculates the average length of word strings that maintain a level of lexical variation (McCarthy & Jarvis, 2010).

Discussion of Outcomes

While the researchers have not collected sufficient data to present a thorough longitudinal quantitative analysis, there are qualitative components to student outcomes, which this paper will discuss. Feedback was elicited multiple times throughout the program through the use of surveys. In these surveys, we received feedback about both positive and negative aspects of the program. This not only provides us with useful feedback on ways to improve the program to fit the need of the diverse range of students but it also helps the facilitator assess how the current program has impacted the students.

A variety of answers regarding the most impactful aspect of the program were reported. The most common answer to this question was being surrounded by a diverse community of peers. The participants felt they were able to learn a great amount about being a leader from their fellow peers. One respondent suggested, "the most valuable part of the program was getting to know a diverse group of students, who, despite being very different people, al[l] clearly could be good leaders. It taught me that anyone can be a good leader, not just someone with charisma or magnetism." Similarly, another student responded, "Getting to know and learn from peers. My main "community"/friend group is for the most part outside the graduate school and so I didn't interact with other graduate students outside of my lab…"

The exposure to other peers was not the only beneficial factor of the program according to the respondents. The workshops and guest speakers also proved to be useful to their development as ethical leaders: "I really enjoyed having outside speakers come and speak about their experiences in leadership. It informed of a lot of different career tracks that were possible, and also that people career trajectories aren't always straight and narrow." In addition to peer influences, it seems that the students also benefited from hearing the experiences of professionals in the field. This suggests that providing a wide variety of sources is beneficial to students (from their perspective). A few also mentioned assessments, such as the DISCstyles and EQ-i as being the most valuable aspect of the program because these assessments increased the participants' self-awareness around personality types (DISCstyles) and emotional intelligence (EQ-i).

In addition to direct feedback regarding the benefits of the program participants shared how they felt they have grown as a direct result of the program. By far the most common response was that the program created a sense of self-awareness, specifically about their level of leadership ability and personal values that the participants did not believe they previously had. This reinforces the necessary focus on avoiding response-shift bias. Response-shift bias stems from a lack of true self-awareness about leadership skills in general, and how leadership is manifested in the individual participant. It would make sense that self-awareness would be so prominently mentioned among the respondents.

Participants were also asked how EL-STEM has helped change the direction of the student's career and research paths. Similar to the last question, many of the answers were related to the

growth of self-awareness. One student responded "I think that I am now more aware of ethical decisions in the lab that were not obvious before."

Other qualitative feedback about the student's practicum projects is also useful in evaluating not only the success of the program, but how it has helped individual students grow and develop as future leaders and ethical decision makers in their fields. One student mentions that while her practicum was only a single event it has helped prepare them in future leadership positions: "My practicum was a single event, but now I can mentor and aid future coordinators in conducting the same event. I can also use those skills on a larger scale to further my presence in the field." Other students felt that the practicum component itself was responsible for their understanding of leadership and ethical decision making while also helping them reaffirm their core values:

"Before this program, I didn't know what I want to do after, now that I understand what I value I think I have decided on a future in academia. Working with undergraduate students and watching them become more independent and confident made me so happy and proud. I also learned that freedom, creativity, and integrity are some of the things I value most. These are some of the reasons I think I have been able to grow and invasion a future career path."

While some students have used the practicum to help inform their views and future careers, others are continuing their practicum past the length of the program and establish itself as a future workshop in this student's department: "My practicum will naturally flow into this year as I am able to implement what I have planned. I think my practicum has the chance to be the start of effectively eliminating barriers in STEM education. If I go the route of educating in the STEM field, the effective elimination of such barriers will continue to be a passion of mine. I think that even after I complete the practicum, the workshop I lead can continue after I am gone."

Reflections of the Practitioner

Through participant feedback and assessments, while there are not "significant" quantitative results (because of the small sample size at this point in the study), there are results worth discussing that show that this program has impact. Rowland (2016) highlights the importance of an experiential component to leadership training and this program furthers to confirm this. The practicum experience has been identified as a cornerstone to this training program and integral to the participants' development, specifically in self-confidence in communication and taking on other leadership opportunities. Also, as part of the application, students had to submit a letter of support from their advisor. This proved beneficial a few times when advisors assigned meetings/work/etc. for a participant during the EL-STEM meeting times. Being able to remind an advisor about the letter of support was a beneficial way for participants to self-advocate. Another positive outcome of the program has been the social support and bonding that the group has experienced in being part of this program. While an increased level of social support was expected, it was not expected to be such a central part of the participants' experience. This is promising because graduate students often report feeling unconnected to, and unsupported by the university. Affiliation with this program however had a strong effect on the satisfaction levels of the participants in both the EL-STEM program and their academic program as well. Developing a heightened sense of self-awareness was another part of the program that was very important to the participants that had an influential effect on the participants' development.

Recommendations

While traditional sources of data, such as the assessments employed in this study, are useful it is also important to incorporate actual experiences into training curriculum. One of the strongest aspects of the EL-STEM project is the inclusion of the guided experience based practicum. How can someone be expected to take charge and be a leader with no tangible experiences throughout their academic careers? Students, both undergraduate and graduate, spend a lot of time in the classroom or their labs but with little training in how to lead in these environments. Also, this type of ethical leadership development is active learning in a way that most RCR training is not. The implementation of this experience helps bring students out of these sometimes restrictive environments and apply their knowledge to their future careers in both academia and industry. Future leadership and ethics training programs should consider building upon this model so that their students are properly equipped to deal with leadership and ethics not only in theory, but in *practice*.

References

Anderson, M. S., Louis, K. S., & Earle, J. (1994). Disciplinary and departmental effects on observations of faculty and graduate student misconduct. *The Journal of Higher Education*, *65*(3), 331-350.

Barch, J. C., Harris, R., & Bonsall, D. L. (2012). Leadership education as character development: Best practices from 21 years of helping graduates live purposeful lives. *Journal of College and Character*, *13*(4).

Black, A. M., & Earnest, G. W. (2009). Measuring the outcomes of leadership development programs. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, *16*(2), 184-196.

Brown, M. E., & Treviño, L. K. (2006). Ethical leadership: A review and future directions. *The leadership quarterly*, *17*(6), 595-616.

Carlson, R., & Frankel, M. S. (2011). Reshaping responsible conduct of research education. *Professional Ethics Report*, *24*(1).

Collaborative Institutional Training Initiative - CITI (n.d.). Responsible Conduct of Research. Retrieved from https://www.citiprogram.org/index.cfm?pageID=265.

Cleland, D. I. (1995). Leadership and the project-management body of knowledge. *International Journal of Project Management*, *13*(2), 83-88.

Cohen, D. V. (1993). Creating and maintaining ethical work climates: Anomie in the workplace and implications for managing change. *Business Ethics Quarterly*, 343-358.

Gilmore, R. M. (2011). Transformational Leadership in Research Universities. *Online Submission*.

Goedhart, H., & Hoogstraten, J. (1992). The retrospective pretest and the role of pretest information in evaluative studies. *Psychological Reports*, *70*(3), 699-704.

Herkert, J. R. (2005). Ways of thinking about and teaching ethical problem solving: Microethics and macroethics in engineering. *Science and Engineering Ethics*, *11*(3), 373-385.

Jedlicka, Alan. (2007). "Leadership and Good Work-Life Balance Promote Ethical Behavior." *Federal Ethics Report* 14, no. 8 (Aug 2007): 7.

Jiang, B., Patterson, J., Chandler, M., & Chan, T. C. (2009). Practicum experience in educational leadership program: Perspectives of supervisors, mentors and candidates. *Kuram ve Uygulamada Egitim Yönetimi Dergisi*, *15*(1), 77-108.

Jondle, D., Ardichvili, A., & Mitchell, J. (2014). Modeling ethical business culture: Development of the ethical business culture survey and its use to validate the CEBC model of ethical business culture. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *119*(1), 29-43.

Kline, R. (2013). Teaching social responsibility for the conduct of research. *IEEE Technology and Society Magazine*, *32*(2), 52-58.

Meyers, C. (2004). Institutional culture and individual behavior: Creating an ethical environment. *Science and Engineering Ethics*, *10*(2), 269-276.

Mumford, M. D., Murphy, S. T., Connelly, S., Hill, J. H., Antes, A. L., Brown, R. P., & Devenport, L. D. (2007). Environmental influences on ethical decision making: Climate and environmental predictors of research integrity. *Ethics & Behavior*, *17*(4), 337-366.

Mumford, T. V., Campion, M. A., & Morgeson, F. P. (2007). The leadership skills strataplex: Leadership skill requirements across organizational levels. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *18*(2), 154-166.

Parboteeah, K. P., & Kapp, E. A. (2008). Ethical climates and workplace safety behaviors: An empirical investigation. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *80*(3), 515-529.

Price, Michael (2012). Gauging Graduates' Gloom. *Science Magazine,* retrieved from http://www.sciencemag.org/careers/2012/10/gauging-graduates-gloom.

Rohs, F. R. (1999). Response shift bias: A problem in evaluating leadership development with self-report pretest-posttest measures. *Journal of Agricultural Education*, *40*, 28-37.

Rohs, F. R., Langone, C. A., & Coleman, R. K. (2001). Response shift bias: a problem in evaluating nutrition training using self-report measures. *Journal of nutrition education*, *33*(3), 165-170.

Ross, S. (2014). A conceptual model for understanding the process of self-leadership development and action-steps to promote personal leadership development. *Journal of Management Development*, *33*(4), 299-323.

Rowland, D., (2016, October 14). Why leadership development isn't developing leaders. *Harvard Business Review.* Retrieved from https://hbr.org/2016/10/why-leadership-development-isnt-developing-leaders.

Tippins, N. T. (2013). Assessment of leadership. In *APA Handbook of Testing and Assessment in Psychology, Vol. 1: Test Theory and Testing and Assessment in Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, by Steven P. Reise, and Michael C. Rodriguez Nathan R. Kuncel. Washington, DC: 457-478.

Van Quaquebeke, N., & Eckloff, T. (2010). Defining respectful leadership: What it is, how it can be measured, and another glimpse at what it is related to. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *91*(3), 343-358.

A Unique Approach to the Standard Teaching Assistant Program

Anna Capeder & Grace M. LaPrairie
University of Minnesota

Abstract

Although teaching assistants are found in higher education classrooms across the world, they usually fulfill the role of a true assistant to the instructor. This session highlights a unique approach to building and sustaining a development-focused teaching assistant program, and highlights ten takeaways of a program participant.

Introduction

Teaching assistants are rather commonplace in the higher-education classroom, however, many teaching assistants fulfill the role of a true *assistant*, completing administrative duties on behalf of the lead instructor. This session presents an alternative approach to teaching assistant programs, and shares the non-traditional learnings of a program participant. By the end of this session, participants will understand how teaching assistant programs can evolve to the next level and offer a life-long development for all involved.

Review of Related Scholarship

The teaching assistant program is a relatively new program, first launching in academic year 2009-2010, and serves an academic program grounded in Adaptive Leadership (Heifetz, 1998), The Social Change Model of Leadership Development (Astin & Astin, 1996), and Intentional Emergence (Werner, et al, 2016). To complement the academic program, the teaching assistant program closely aligns with the three previously mentioned leadership models.

As the academic program experienced rapid growth, class sizes grew quickly. Thus, instructors' workload began to increase. Additionally, the number of students searching for an alternative leadership development opportunity also increased. From these two needs, the teaching assistant program was born. Throughout the last seven academic years, the program has evolved to meet the needs of all stakeholders involved, including: the expanding academic program, instructors, students, and teaching assistants alike. As the teaching assistant program continuously evolves, the Adaptive Leadership model is used heavily, navigating extreme change multiple times throughout the process. Through direct involvement, teaching assistants are also learning and internalizing Adaptive Leadership, the Social Change Model, and Intentional Emergence

Description of the Practice

As said in Leadership, "context matters". Therefore, before diving into the learnings and development of a program participant, context around the teaching assistant program will be provided.

Who are the Teaching Assistants?

Teaching assistants are upper-level undergraduate students who have completed at least 75% of the academic program and thus, embody a peer-to-peer teaching assistant model. Comprising roughly one-third of program graduates, teaching assistants are ready to explore the dimensions of authority, positional power, and facilitation in a familiar setting. The teaching assistant program is beginning to represent a diverse student body, as teaching assistants represent various backgrounds, experiences, colleges, etc. Demographics can be found in Handout #1.

How are Teaching Assistants Trained?
The program believes all teaching assistants should "come in right", and therefore, the teaching assistant program utilizes a three-pronged training approach, combining the following: program-provided trainings, instructor-provided trainings, and knowledge learned from previous academic and non-academic experiences. Please refer to Handout #2 for visual representation of this model.

Once a teaching assistant has been placed in the program, training begins. Prior to appointment, teaching assistants create an individualized Learning Plan, identifying which skills they hope to develop as a result of the experience. In addition, teaching assistants attend an orientation training; here, teaching assistants are provided basic technical information to reduce the high level of ambiguity, and are encouraged to discuss their concerns, excitement, and questions surrounding the teaching assistant experience.

The majority of teaching assistant training happens on-the-job. For many teaching assistants, this is their first opportunity to be on the "other side" of the classroom. While spending the majority of their time at the macro/balcony level, opportunities for teaching assistant development emerge throughout the semester. As a result, rich conversation topics emerge and the instructor and teaching assistant have the opportunity to identify and develop additional skills as the semester progresses.

Lastly, teaching assistants are encouraged to bring their previous experience into the classroom. As teaching assistants are students in the program, they are familiar with the classroom model and teachings of the class. This means teaching assistants are able to challenge and support students as students explore the course content. Additionally, teaching assistants are encouraged to incorporate learnings they've received from other areas of their lives, as this enriches the classroom environment and deepens students' connections.

What Role do Teaching Assistants Play?
Although teaching assistants still complete technical administrative duties in this model (such as tracking attendance/participation, editing the class LMS, inputting grades, etc.), they also serve many adaptive roles. All teaching assistants are asked to be the bridge of authority between students and the instructor(s). As a classroom peer, teaching assistants are placed in an unusual position of understanding the student perspective, while holding a position of authority and power. Therefore, teaching assistants are expected to serve as the student advocate within the teaching team, which manifests in various ways. Teaching assistants' voice comes from a place of informal authority, but is heard as powerful as the instructor's and therefore, provides students with a peer model of what leadership can look like. Additionally, teaching assistants are asked to observe the classroom from a macro/balcony perspective, and step-in courageously when an

opportunity presents itself. Although this is not an extensive list, another major responsibility of the teaching assistant is to offer students and instructors alike challenge and support - both educationally/professionally, and personally.

This Model Sounds Great, but what is Asked of Instructors?
With this model, all instructors are expected to share authority and power with their teaching assistant(s). Additionally, instructors are asked to offer support, mentoring, and training on an on-going basis for their teaching assistants. Instructors must also trust teaching assistants' competence and capability, and be able to relinquish control when needed.

With context laid, now is the time to explore the open-letter a student in the program authored, "What Being a Leadership Minor Teaching Assistant *Really* Teaches You". The letter consists of ten statements, all of which relate to "real world life lessons" that can be applied to various situations. For reference, the word "you" is used throughout, and is equivalent to "teaching assistant".

To process the depth of development found in this letter, we will take the teaching assistant's letter bullet-by-bullet, starting with #1:

#1: "Your instructor is human; sometimes it is as hard for them to come to class as it is for you." Throughout the experience, teaching assistants are encouraged to practice empathy, and to listen to/for "the song beneath the words". This statement points towards the Social Change Model's Consciousness of Self (and others), and can easily be transferred to countless scenarios throughout life. The words "instructor" and "class" can be replaced with various combinations, such as "manager" and "work", which will serve the teaching assistant well as they navigate through their personal and professional life.

#2: "When someone needs you to re-send something, it is not them saying it is your fault. Things get lost in the chaos of emails."
Again pointing towards the Social Change Model's Consciousness of Self (and others), this statement reminds one to redirect the default responses of defensiveness and shame to empathy and support. This is another statement that can be widely applied to various situations in life. Truly understanding this statement will serve teaching assistants in their future life, as it will eliminate unneeded tension and shame.

#3: "If you focus on the *process*, the *rest* will come. If you forget the process and focus on the outcome, you will lose out on the experience completely."
This statement resembles T. S. Elliot's famous quote, "The journey, Not the destination matters...", sending a reminder to fully engage in the moment, and let the rest follow. Generally, teaching assistants are in their early twenties, meaning this experience comes at an opportune time in life, in order to take this learning forward to other experiences.

#4: "Students cannot talk about something amongst each other and expect the instructor to know what is going on".
Another nod to the Social Change Model, this statement focuses on Collaboration, and this learning is usually processed by teaching assistants while observing class from a macro/balcony

level. Once processed and understood, teaching assistants guide students towards realizing this learning, too. Understanding this concept can then be applied to numerous contexts, both personally and professionally.

#5: "*You* know what a community is capable of creating, but the point is for *them* to learn and to grow, so just focus on being a catalyst."
As any mentor knows, the mentee must learn for themselves; giving the answer does not usually involve the mentee in a meaningful learning experience. Program teaching assistants have previously experienced the class and thus, have their own answers and ideas. However, it is the teaching assistant's responsibility to guide students to their own conclusions (via challenge and support) versus giving easy answers. As teaching assistants progress through life, this skill will become important in managing, parenting, and mentoring.

#6: "You will inevitably miss out on a few connections. You will have a few students you do not know as well, and that's okay. Think about all the individuals you *have* connected with, and the resulting positive outcomes."
Life is full, and as humans, we generally hope to do more, connect more, learn more, etc. We must understand we are doing our best, and that is important. Sure, some pages will be left unturned, but look at all the positive that has resulted. This is a key learning for rock-star students, and can be applied to any social situation.

#7: "Most people don't readily talk about what is going on in their life. You are going to have to check-in on people. Some really hide how much they are struggling. *Side note:* if someone is missing often, it's indicative something is off. You don't have to be direct—go grab coffee or just let them know you are there, if needed."
As teaching assistants move through adulthood, this take-away becomes ever-important. Offering a point of connection and empathy to others is crucial to leadership, and becomes increasingly important given our complex political landscape. Connecting does not require an intervention; it can be as simple as letting another know you are available to listen.

#8: "How you *think* you show up and what others *see* is often completely different viewpoints. People remember things you have done that you forgot about; people appreciate traits you might not even know you have."
In life, we must often rely on others to complete the story and perceptions of ourselves. And on the other hand, we also serve this role for others. The program encourages teaching assistants to discuss personal presence and impact among others. This is a useful skill individuals can continue practicing throughout life to shed light on strengths and opportunities for development.

#9: "Communities are going to push back. When you challenge someone, they are almost always going to push back. Make sure that you come in with every good intention, with the focus on possibility, to let them know that what you do is out of love."
Rooted in Adaptive Leadership Competency #3, leaders must be prepared when challenging others. Teaching assistants are encouraged to challenge instructors and students alike, but they are asked to do so out of care, kindness, and consideration. Practicing this skill early in adulthood will lend itself to further leadership development.

#10: "The struggle to build community is completely worth it. Because even if *you* don't see the magic, it is because the magic happened outside of the classroom and that might be even better." Building community is challenging, and it requires well-intentioned effort. As someone who may be on the peripheral of a community, the creation of the community may not be readily apparent. Keeping this in mind is crucial, and understanding that community can manifest itself in a variety of ways is important to the adaptive leader.

Discussion of Outcomes/Results

The teaching assistant program has proved successful by a variety of stakeholders, including students, instructors, and teaching assistants alike. One of the most obvious forms of success is the open letter found above, authored by a teaching assistant in the program. Alternatively, student, teaching assistant, and instructor feedback is regularly collected each semester through a variety of evaluation methods. It is important to note feedback does not always indicate our teaching assistants are operating at 100%. Rather, feeback focuses on teaching assistants' progress and opportunity for further development. For a collection of sample instructor, teaching assistant, and student feedback, please see Handout #3.

Additionally, another sign of success is the rate at which instructors request teaching assistants. In the 2009-2010 academic year, the program served only 6 teaching assistants. Fast forward to the 2016-2017 academic year, and the program has increased 11x, serving 66 teaching assistants. Additionally, 100% of sections are requesting teaching assistants, proving the value teaching assistants serve inside, and outside, the classroom.

The academic program also participates in a university-wide evaluation, of which, includes questions relating to the section's teaching assistant. The most recent data available is from Spring semester 2016, and proves that 94% of students agreed their teaching assistant positively enhanced their experience of the course, while 94% felt supported by their teaching assistant, and 89% felt challenged by their teaching assistant. With 267 respondents in this data sample, the program is pleased with the results, and looks to increase the percentages across the board.

Reflections of the Practitioner

So, how does an educational department build, scale, and sustain a teaching assistant program that allows for deeper development and learning? Before an academic unit can begin recruiting teaching assistants, they must identify the foundational pieces of the teaching assistant program, including: the programmatic strategy and vision, student Learning and Development Outcomes, and stakeholder roles and responsibilities.

Creating a programmatic strategy and vision are key to building a successful teaching assistant program. Such statements allow academic units the opportunity to identify the foundation of their growing program by focusing on intention and long-term goals. The programmatic strategy and vision will guide the teaching assistant program not only through day-to-day operations, but also through program growth, influencing each step along the way.

The teaching assistant position is an academic opportunity for student development and growth. As such, it is important to identify student Learning and Development Outcomes. Identifying such outcomes will bring academic "worth" to the program, while offering transparent expectations for stakeholders.

Lastly, defining stakeholders' roles and responsibilities ahead of time is crucial in eliminating many technical questions that prevent programmatic growth. The academic unit, coordinators, instructors, and teaching assistants must all know what is expected of them, in addition to what they can expect of others. Clarifying expectations will allow for a highly collaborative and positive environment, eliminating unnecessary ambiguity. After identifying the foundational aspects of the teaching assistant program, academic units can execute their daily operations, beginning with recruiting top-tier teaching assistants.

Similar to most academic programs, building trust among all stakeholders of the teaching assistant program is crucial for success. During the building process, stakeholder responsibilities must be identified and shared among the entire team. The most important role of the teaching assistant should be as a co-creator of the course, serving as a bridge of authority between students and the instructor(s).

It is also important to note limitations of this model. Although this model can be translated to various contexts and academic programs, it is important to note it was home-grown in a program that traditionally experiences 15% growth each year, at a Research 1/Division 1 institution. In terms of barriers, the teaching assistant program has faced many challenges through the growth process, including: money, legalities, and university policy. Because of this, the program has worked closely with Human Resources and Finance to make adjustments that continue to serve the program and its stakeholders.

Recommendations

Looking forward, the next steps of this program is to build on the existing evaluation and data collection methods, and use that information to inform necessary changes and updates. For instance, the program has potential to increase the diversity of teaching assistants, but first, the program must uncover any potential barriers that stand in the way of this goal. Partnering with an evaluation specialist is crucial, and is something the program is currently executing.

Additionally, given the steep growth of both the academic department and teaching assistant programs, another next step is to create a more holistic training program for new and on-boarding instructors, to ensure instructors are utilizing teaching assistants as the program intends and thus, advertises.

A method to explore future development includes partnering with another academic organization to explore opportunities for implementation into another context, and possibilities for further programmatic development and improvement.

References

Astin, H., & Astin, A. (1996). *A social change model of leadership development: Guidebook.* Los Angeles: University of California Education Research Institute.

Heifetz, R. (1998). Leadership without easy answers (1st ed.). Boston: Harvard University Press.

T. S. Eliot. (n.d.). AZQuotes.com. Retrieved March 04, 2017, from AZQuotes.com Web site: http://www.azquotes.com/quote/491404

Werner, L., Ph.D, Hellstrom, D., Chung, J., Kessenich, K., Taylor, L., Jr., & Capeder, A. (n.d.). Bridging Theory and Practice in the Leadership Classroom: Intentional Emergence as a Modern Pedagogy. Retrieved March 3, 2017, from http://www.journalofleadershiped.org/attachments/article/456/Capeder_0582.pdf

Handout #1: Teaching Assistant Demographics

Colleges Enrolled

- Biological Sciences
- Education and Human Development
- Liberal Arts
- Science and Engineering
- Individualized Studies

34.5%

51.7%
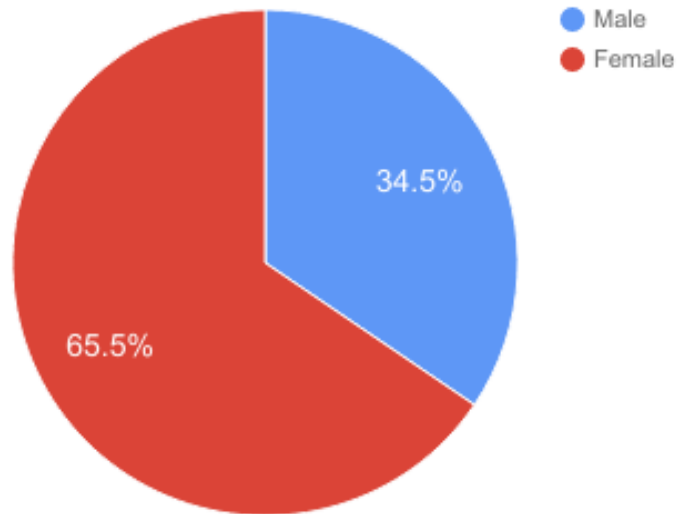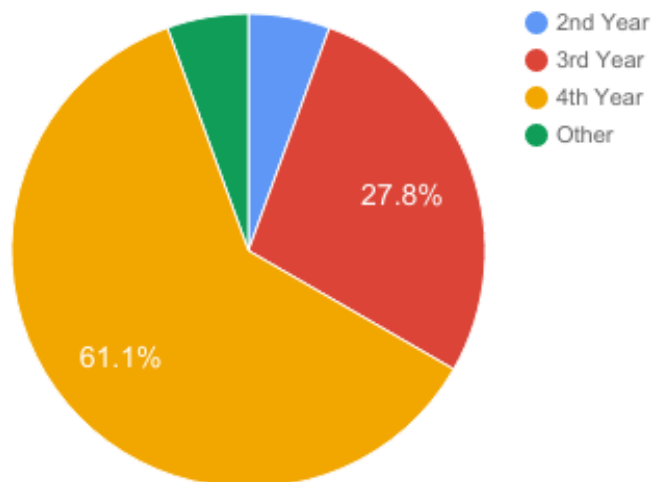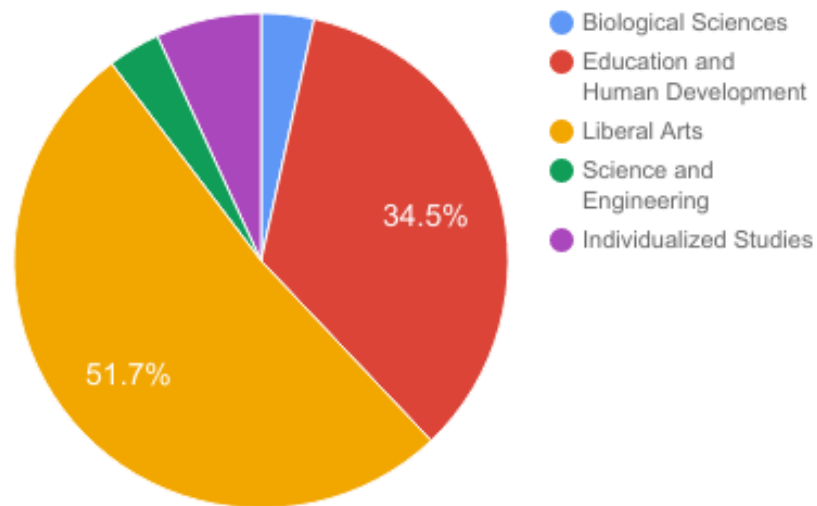
Previous Experience as a TA

- Yes
- No

41.4%

58.6%
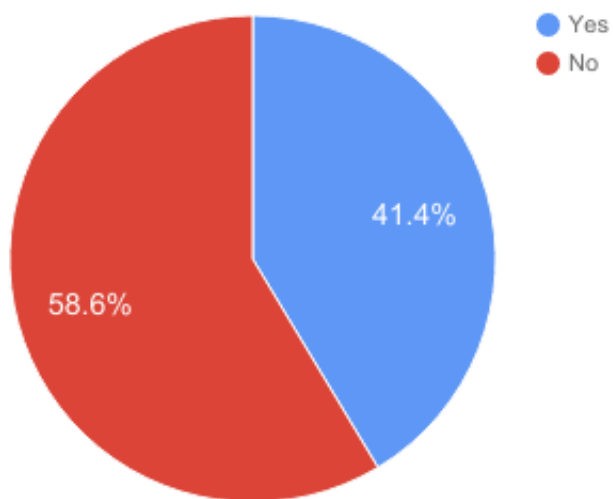
Handout #2: Teaching Assistant 3-Pronged Training Approach

PREVIOUS
EXPERIENCES
(ACADEMIC AND NON-ACADEMIC)

INSTRUCTOR
TRAINING

PROGRAM
PROVIDED
TRAINING
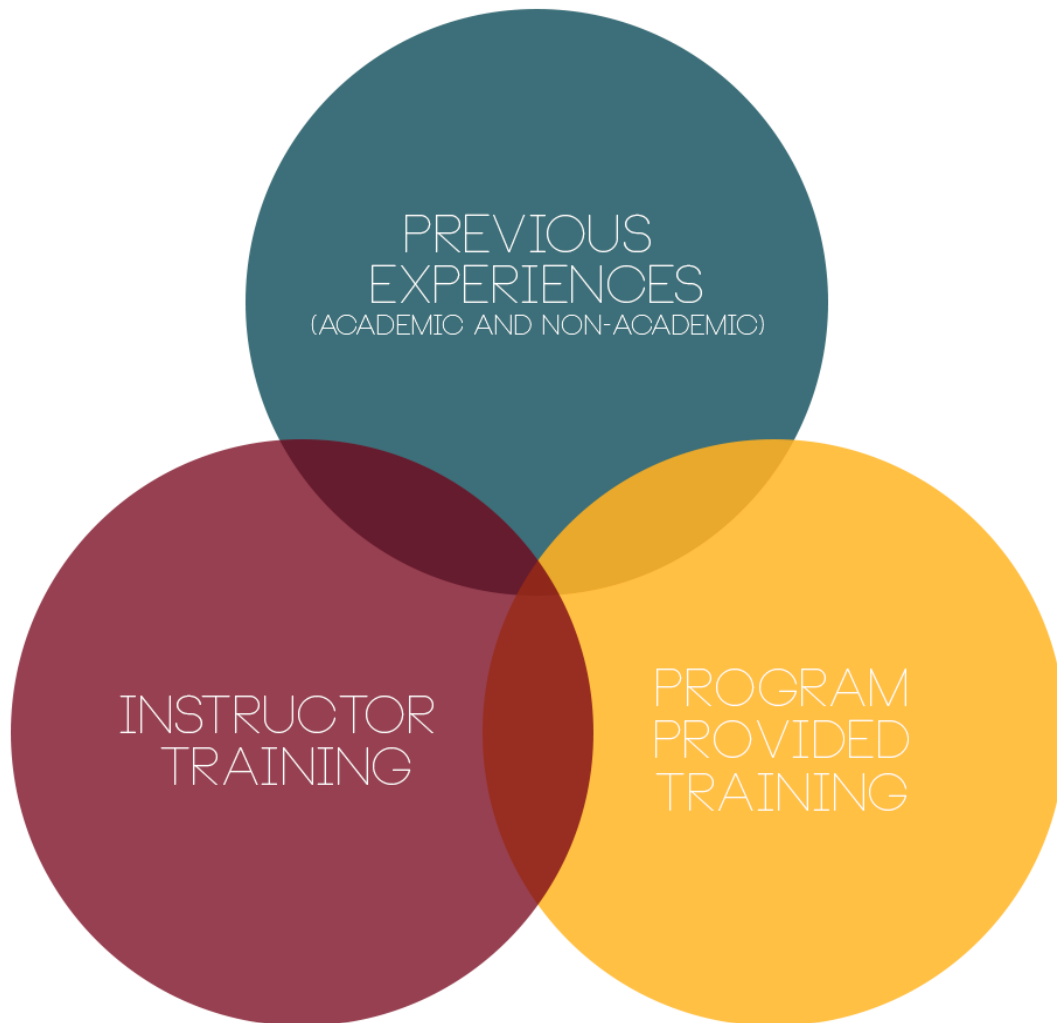
Handout #3: Feedback on Teaching Assistants

Feedback on TA 1 from Instructor 1:
One area of growth, I believe, is the ability/comfort level in "jumping in" during class, sharing thoughts in a large group, and "calling out" things he may be noticing in class.
X regularly contributes during class and isn't afraid to ask me questions or challenge me, where appropriate. X is a great compliment to my strengths and personality and often notices or calls out specifics that I passed by. X is very organized and task oriented.

Feedback on TA 2 from Instructor 2:
I am blessed to be teaching with X. Firstly, because we should never teach these classes alone, and secondly, because I think we bring out the best in one another and gel as a dynamic and flowing team, which ultimately makes the students feel more at ease in the class. Sometimes I wonder if people are intimidated by it, but others have affirmed that it adds comfort and relaxed nature to what can be a v serious class.

X loves the curriculum of this class, and most importantly embodies it, which makes him a stronger facilitator and co-teacher. Now knowing the purpose of each lesson (and knowing to anchor in the deep purpose), X more easily interrupts me to offer his thoughts, stories, questions, and clarity to drive us all toward the same place. X offers a different perspective and voice that hopefully lands with different people than I do. It also helps students to see someone who is technically a peer be able to apply these "fluffy" concepts in their life.

X has offered me important feedback about not only the class, but how I show up as a teacher. X notices different things than I do and helps me better understand how I come off to different students in order to be more effective. It also helps give nuance to our lesson plans given his feedback.

X is also doing a lot of work around his identity as a white male, and understanding how his presence impacts a space and in specific interactions with people of color (including me). He is aware of who he might bowl over and is mindful to give voice to people who don't normally have one. This might be connecting with them directly, intentionally paying attention to them, or shining a light on their voice when they have something to say in discussion. X is also a model for other white students to show how he's working through owning and using his privilege to have important conversations with other white folks, and embrace having emotions as a model to other men.

Feedback on TA 3 from Instructor 3:
X and I have a relationship that allows for open communication when we need to have a deep debrief about class or a feedback session for each other. I do feel X is almost too busy to dedicate adequate attention to our community and we have talked about splitting work and being transparent and honest about time and energy. Some things are coming to light that we will be working on.

One thing that came to light in class this week was that X doesn't know everyone's names. The community caught onto this and asked X to go around the circle. This is a simple expectation and

now a few community members have expressed lack of trust in X because X forgot their names publicly.

Another skill to work on is reading the room and the energy of the community when debriefing occurs. While we are always striving to dig deeper, reflect harder, and create heat in the container, we need to know when to do that to make it the most effective learning environment. X is still working on this skill. If you push too hard, the container can crack and you lose community member's voices. X asks good questions and brings heat into the container. X is slowly building a relationship with a clique in the room to help them understand that they are isolating themselves and not showing up authentically. X has done a nice job of challenging them. We have open conversation and I provide feedback. I think X is taking it in, processing, and improving.

TA 4 Feedback on Experience:
As a "experienced" TA, I have really come a long way in finding the balance between serving on the balcony and on the dance floor. I find it fairly easy to remove myself from within the students in the classroom. There are a lot of technical aspects to the course that they focus on and stress about that I can easily say don't pertain to me. Because of this distance between us, I think they see me more as an "other", than an equal. But my presence and voice in the room carries quite a bit and is often taken as statements/facts, even when it is more of a question or suggestion.

On the other hand, I am within less than 5 years of age range with all the students in the course. I attend the courses and complete assignments, same as them. This, unlike my Professor makes me more approachable, I believe, and can sometimes make my one-on-one feedback be taken skeptically. I can better understand the student's circumstances and struggles during the time they are in this course and the challenges they face in completing projects for the course as well. I think my past experiences have really helped prepare me to better balance in this course as a TA than my past classes. I have seen myself grow and embrace my ability to speak with confidence and certainty about my observations and belief in a community. I have also become a much better listener and advocate for the students I'm serving. I had been on the defensive about a lot of things in the Leadership Minor courses when I was going through them, but now I have found perspective to balance the challenges it is presenting the students, but also to better identify when they need care more than challenge."

TA 5 Feedback on Experience:
As a TA, my job is to bridge the gap between the students and the instructor. This is what my instructor and I decided upon. Often times there are questions that students have on how to begin an assignment or what to write about. Instead of turning to the instructor for ideas, students can ask me for ideas because I have taken the class before and can provide insight on what I wrote about/how I approached a particular assignment. This is different than an instructor's role because I feel like their role is much more technical. They are able to answer questions as to the requirements of the assignment and what they expect from the students. Also, by being the bridge between the instructor and students in class, I show up differently than the students because I am there for them. I am a resource for them to use and turn to; not their friend or classmate.

Student 1 Feedback on TA 6:
Our teaching assistant engaged us by challenging us to be outside our comfort zone, and push[ed] us to places we have never been, whether it be opening up and talking deeply about a topic at hand, or doing classroom activities that require you to step outside your comfort zone. X also engaged us with his bubbly personality and his ability to make us feel safe and not judged!

Student 2 Feedback on TA 7:
X was very informative and engaging. X was able to give his opinion and experiences throughout the semester on topics we discussed as well as challenge our discussions with questions he had of the students. Also, having someone that is still a student help teach the class, gives us an idea of where a student and their view may be coming from with experience and knowledge.

RESEARCH PAPERS

Trajectories of Student Leadership Development through Training: An Analysis by Gender, Race, and Prior Experience
David M. Rosch, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign
Clinton Stephens, Emporia State University
Vernon Wall, LeaderShape, Inc.

Who Participates? Who leads? What are the outcomes for college students in co-curricular activities?
Nicole Alonso, Valerie Sessa, & Jennifer Bragger
Montclair State University

The Motivation and Intent toward Leadership and Entrepreneurship of Undergraduate Students Enrolled in Leadership Majors or Minors
Allison L. Dunn, Summer F. Odom, & Brad Borges,
Texas A&M University

Eco-Leadership in Practice: A Mixed Methods Study of County 4-H Programs
D. Adam Cletzer, University of Missouri
Eric K. Kaufman, Virginia Tech

A Youth Perspective: The 4-H Teen's Leadership Identity Development Journey
Sarah A. Bush, Jeremy Elliott-Engel, Shannon Wiley, & Tonya Price, Ph.D.
Virginia Tech

The Current State of Youth Leadership Development Programs in Nebraska, and its Implications for Pedagogies and Assessments in Youth Leadership Education
L.J. McElravy, Katie Brock, Jessica Bartak, & Lindsay J. Hastings,
University of Nebraska – Lincoln

Leading School Change through Innovation
Dr. Aneta Walker & Dr. Ellen Reames
Auburn University

An Examination of Exemplary Leaders in Higher Education: A Focus on Academic Deans
Comfort Okpala, North Carolina A&T State University
Dr. Kimberly Young Walker, South Carolina Commission on Higher Education

The Relationship between Culture and Leader-Member Exchanges (LMX)
Mark Villanueva, Southwest Research Institute
Carol A. Wheeler, Our Lady of the Lake University

An Assessment of Volunteer Leaders' Competencies and Skills Following Leadership Training
Carley C. Morrison & Laura L. Greenhaw

Mississippi State University

Effect of Instructor Transformational Leadership on Student Learning Behavior
Alaba Apesin, Saint Michael's College

Exploring the Lived Experiences of Becoming and Being a Leadership Educator: A Phenomenological Inquiry
Daniel Jenkins, University of Southern Maine

The Quest of Legitimacy: The Future of Leadership in a Complex World
Katherine Friesen, Iowa State University

A 15-Year Perspective of the Journal of Leadership Education
Katelyn Mize, Barry Boyd, & Jennifer Strong
Texas A&M University

What Skills do Volunteer Leaders Need? A Delphi Study
Carley C. Morrison & Laura L. Greenhaw
Mississippi State University

Emotional Intelligence: Performance matters – or does it?
Justin C. Matus, Wilkes University

Personality Types, Generations, and Gender: A Closer Look at the Graduates of an Agricultural and Natural Resource Leadership Development Program
Valerie McKee, Hannah Carter, & Kayla Waldorff,
University of Florida

Longitudinal Effects of Session Racial Diversity within a Student Leadership Immersion Program
David M. Rosch & Jasmine Collins, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign
Vernon Walls, LeaderShape, Inc.

A Narrative Inquiry of the Perceptions Leading to the Under-Representation of Women's Political Leadership: A Study Measuring the Intensity of Perception
Vincent Drew Jemison, University of Phoenix

U.S. College Students Thriving Through a Global Leadership Education
Cameron Beatty, Assistant Professor, Salem State University
Amber Manning-Ouellette, Iowa State University

Are Undergraduate Millennials Open to Feedback? The Impact of Peer Feedback on Undergraduate Leadership Development
Brian Griffith & Allie Love
Vanderbilt University

Trajectories of Student Leadership Development through Training: An Analysis by Gender, Race, and Prior Experience

David M. Rosch
University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign

Clinton Stephens
Emporia State University

Vernon Wall
Leadership, Inc.

Abstract

This study examined the developmental trajectories of a national sample of students who participated in a formal leadership program, the LeaderShape Institute, regarding their leadership-related skill, motivation to lead, and leader self-efficacy. Results indicated increases in all areas immediately after participation with tapering occurring over time. A significant gender effect emerged, as women reported greater initial gains and more loss over time. Students' trajectories with regard to their racial identification were similar; however, results indicated differences in pre-existing motivation to lead and leader self-efficacy. In addition, participation in prior formal programs resulted in decreased benefit within this program.

Introduction

University students face unprecedented pressure to graduate ready to confront an employment and management environment churned by consistent advances in globalization, technology, and diversity in the workforce (Altbach, 2013). In response, postsecondary education accrediting agencies, especially in technical disciplines, have responded by adding "soft skills" such as communication, leadership, and team management within their criteria for a quality education (Colbeck, Campbell, & Bjorklund, 2000; Smith, Sheppard, Johnson, & Johnson, 2005). The largest employers of university graduates list "leadership," "problem-solving skills," and "ability to work in a team" as skills more necessary than technical training to develop in college (National Association of Colleges and Employers [NACE], 2013). Yet national surveys in the United States reveal that approximately three of every four Americans believe a "crisis in leadership" exists in public and private organizations (Rosenthal, 2012). Although the role of postsecondary educational institutions has long been, in part, to train the professional and community leaders of tomorrow (Astin & Astin, 2000), the substantial gap between leadership skills that university graduates should possess upon degree completion and what they currently possess (NACE, 2013) places exceptional pressure on universities to attend to the leadership development of their students.

The increased call for leader development programming has not gone unanswered. Over 1,000 formal leader development programs for students had been created by 2003 (Riggio, Ciulla, & Sorensen, 2003), while the number of opportunities available continued to rise in more recent years (Dugan & Komives, 2007, 2010). However, such growth has not necessarily led to stable

outcomes or measured benefits. A recent national examination of the state of leadership education revealed that fewer than 75% of programs possessed a theoretical basis for their curriculum, and 64% of those that do relied on tools such as personality inventories to provide such basis (Owen, 2012). The same study showed that over half described themselves as "new" or "building critical mass" in the development of their curriculum, participation patterns, and assessment outcomes (Owen, 2012). Unsurprisingly, recent research on the effects of these programs revealed mixed results (Dugan, 2011; Dugan et al., 2011; Rosch & Caza, 2011). Particularly concerning are findings that reveal differences in the experiences of students as a function of their gender and race (Dugan, Komives, & Segar, 2009; Dugan & Komives, 2010; Kezar & Moriarty, 2000).

Recent longitudinal research within the theoretical framework of the Social Change Model of Leadership Development (Higher Education Research Institute, 1996) revealed that half of the students sampled made small gains or even declines in their leadership capacity (Parker & Pascarella, 2013). However, participation in formal leader development programs or courses was not assessed. The bulk of research on university student leader development that relies on large data sets, such as the Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership (Dugan & Komives, 2007), utilizes cross-sectional survey data collected at one point in time, and is therefore limited in power to examine unfolding development. A critical need exists for longitudinal studies of student leader development (Posner, 2009) in the context of participation in programs where the trajectories of individual student growth can be mapped and focused, in part, on the similarities and differences of students in regard to their gender, race, and participation in past leadership experiences. This study utilized longitudinal data collected in partnership with LeaderShape, a not-for-profit leadership education organization that collaborates with over 100 universities, mostly in the United States, to provide "LeaderShape Institutes" – one-time leadership retreats where 40-70 students participate over the course of a week. Leadership retreats and other one-time co-curricular initiatives remain a dominant form of leadership education in higher education, and therefore worthy of further study on how these experiences shape the ongoing development of student who participate within them.

A Conceptual Impact Model for Leadership Education

Studies related to the state of post-secondary leadership education (e.g. Owen, 2012) reveal a lack of clarity regarding the goals and outcomes of such education. Here, we summarize a conceptual model of preferred leadership outcomes as a result of university education and training, founded in current research describing contemporary leadership capacity. We adopt the "Ready, Willing, and Able" Model of Leadership Education that was first developed by Keating, Rosch, and Burgoon (2014), which encompasses three requisite outcomes regarding the development of leadership capacity in students – leader self-efficacy ("Ready"), motivation to lead ("Willing"), and leadership skills ("Skill"). We first describe leadership skills, as skills-based leadership education currently represents the dominant focus of contemporary leadership education (Dugan, 2011).

Leadership skills. Whereas traditional models of leader effectiveness describe individuals who sit at the apex of organizations and command followers through detailed instructions designed to control followers' thoughts and actions (Faris & Outcalt, 2001), shifts in the organization of

work and emphasis on flatter managerial relationships for achieving goals has led to changes in how effective leaders are described (Astin & Astin, 2000; Rost, 1993). Transformational leadership theory (Bass & Avolio, 1994; Bass, 1998), the dominant philosophy of leadership in organizations today (Dinh et al., 2014), describes leader effectiveness as not only being able to engender goal achievement through follower compliance – labeled as "transactional leadership" within the theory – but to also create authentic relationships between the leader and followers through ethical behaviors, sincere relationship-building, and a motivation to achieve positive ends within the broader community affected by the leader's actions – labeled as "transformational leadership" (Bass, 1998). Therefore, to achieve success within the modern leadership landscape, individuals must not only be able to mobilize followers to achieve organizational ends ("transactional" leadership), but to do so in ways that help develop their followers and indirectly attend to and benefit the broader community ("transformational" leadership), and act in ethical ways to achieve these goals ("ethical" leadership). Our decision to include conceptual aspects of transformational leadership theory was based on framing our work in the broader research literature, which has focused for two decades on the transformational leadership model (Dinh et al., 2014).

Leader Self-Efficacy and Motivation to Lead. Somewhat neglected in the emphasis on skill development in leadership education, have been the related concepts of leader self-efficacy (LSE) and motivation to lead (MTL). Within the context of leadership development, LSE refers to an individual's assessment of potential for success in his or her capacity to lead (Hoyt, Murphy, Halverson, & Watson, 2003; Murphy & Fiedler, 1992). LSE has been linked to the success of leaders in groups in a variety of contexts (Avolio, Reichard, Hannah, Walumbwa, & Chan, 2009; Hannah, Avolio, Luthans, & Harms, 2008; Machida & Schaubroeck, 2011). Without a sense that effort will be rewarded by the achievement of one's leadership goals, research evidence suggests that individuals may not enact leadership behaviors (Leithwood & Jantzi, 2008; McCormick, Tanguma, & Lopez-Forment, 2002). Similarly, an individual's motivation to lead, defined as the psychological press to enact leadership actions (Chan & Drasgow, 2001), may also be a key in unlocking individual leader effectiveness. MTL can stem from three separate drives to serve as a leader to others: 1) An "affective-identity" motivation, where individuals possess a self-image as a leader of their peers; 2) A "social-normative" motivation, where individuals feel the need to lead from a sense of responsibility to their groups and a sense of confidence from others; and 3) A "non-calculative" motivation owing to an avoidance of conducting a self-centered calculation of how leading will result primarily in personal benefit (Chan & Drasgow, 2001). Studies in professional organizations suggest MTL as a key determinant of leader behavior (Derue & Ashford, 2010) and organizational effectiveness (Van Iddekinge, Ferris, & Heffner, 2009), and within postsecondary education, a key correlate to positive engagement within the institution (Rosch, Collier, & Thompson, 2015).

A model of leader education effectiveness resting upon the development of a combination of skills, self-efficacy, and motivation could be particularly relevant for students from backgrounds underrepresented within the context of leadership. Substantial evidence exists that women in the workplace face negative stereotypes, not faced by men, regarding their leadership behaviors that challenge their efforts to act as leaders in a traditional sense (Carli & Eagly, 2001; Eagly & Carli, 2007). Facing such stereotypes could result in a lack of leader self-efficacy among women (Hoyt, 2005) while presumably one's motivation to engage in leadership behaviors may also

suffer. Recent evidence in postsecondary education confirms that female students often lack leader self-efficacy compared to their male peers (Dugan et al., 2009), despite reporting generally higher levels of skill in enacting socially responsible leadership behaviors (Dugan & Komives, 2010). Research evidence exists that students' race may also play a key role in the developmental pathways emerging leaders travel to unlock their leadership behaviors (Dugan, Kodama, & Gebhardt, 2012; Ospina & Foldy, 2009). A seminal study of the experiences of students of color revealed ambivalence with being labeled as "a leader" since actions associated with traditional (and often positional) leadership behaviors were also attributed to "acting white" (Arminio et al., 2000). This may explain why Caucasian students score higher on measures of "affective-identity" and "social-normative" motivation to lead compared to students of color (Rosch et al., 2015), even when controlling for level of self-reported leadership skill and leader self-efficacy. While these studies describe differences across groups of students, they fail to investigate how underrepresented students may differ from majority students in the effects that broad-based leader development programs have on their longitudinal development, including their sense of leader self-efficacy and motivation to lead. They also often fail to disaggregate racial groups, thus reducing the ability to draw as many noteworthy conclusions from them.

Effects of Training on Student Leader Development

Evidence that participation in leader training supports the development of student leader capacity is, at best, mixed. A recent meta-analysis of leadership interventions conducted over the past 100 years revealed considerable variance in their success (Avolio et al., 2009), owing at least in part to individual differences in those who participate within them (Hannah & Avolio, 2010). Although a number of studies in postsecondary education that define leadership programs broadly (Cress, Astin, Zimmerman-Oster, & Burkhardt, 2001; Dugan & Komives, 2010; Kezar & Moriarty, 2000; Rosch & Caza, 2011; Kathleen Zimmerman-Oster & Burkhardt, 1999) suggest that participation in those programs is tied to increased skill, other efforts that attempt to investigate specific variations across educational interventions suggest a more nuanced story. A recent national study focused specifically on the effects of leadership interventions on student leader development within the context of the Social Change Model of Leadership Development (Dugan et al., 2011) suggested that training program participation generally predicted small but measurable gains in leadership capacity, but with large variation in outcomes. The authors called for increased effort in studying the effects of leadership interventions over time, while also focusing more specifically on the diversity of students who participate within them. In response, initial research tracking students over the course a semester suggests many students *decrease* in their leader identity and peers' assessment of their effectiveness as a leader when confronted with challenge (Day & Sin, 2011), and that those lacking a foundation of leader self-efficacy and motivation to lead made no measurable gain in skill when participating in a formal leader development course (Keating, Rosch, & Burgoon, 2014), using a framework similar to what we have employed within this study. Although these results help to delineate the developmental trajectories of students, they also fail to examine group-level differences among students, especially in regards to gender and racial identity differences.

Research Questions

The purpose of this study was to investigate the trajectories of student leader development within the context of participation in a popular and exemplar formal leadership program, the LeaderShape Institute, especially with regard to changes in students' leadership skills, leader self-efficacy, and motivation to lead. The following research questions guided the design and implementation of the study:

1. What is the durable effects of training on student leader development (i.e. leadership skill, leader self-efficacy, and motivation to lead) within participants?
2. To what extent do differences emerge related to students' gender and/or race?
3. To what extent do differences emerge related to holding a position of leadership or participating in prior leadership training events?

Methodology

Data Source and Sample

Our research study consisted of data collection from 2013-2014 at 20 institutions hosting a LeaderShape Institute (the "Program"). Curriculum within the Program was broadly designed to focus on individual student leader development though ethical leadership skill-building, creating an inclusive community amongst participants, and helping students create long-term leadership goals that, at least in part, benefit the broader society in which students live. An open call to participating institutions in Fall 2013 yielded 20 hosting colleges and universities, representing approximately 25% of the total number of institutions hosting Programs. The 20 institutions possessed diversity in regards to size, selectivity, control, location, and geographic setting (urban, suburban, rural). In addition to these 20 campus-based sessions, we gathered data at four national sessions open to participants from any university and hosted directly by LeaderShape, Inc.

We collected data at three separate times from students consenting to participate within the study – a pre-test before the Program began; a post-test at the immediate conclusion of the Program; and a follow-up survey three to four months after the conclusion of the Program. Data collection in the first two phases typically took place in person as participants responded on paper; we collected data online via Qualtrics for the last phase. Our initial pre-test yielded 1,333 participants, representing over 90% of all registered students at these sessions. Of those, 1,279 (96%) also completed post-test surveys. When contacted by email several months later, 343 (26%) responded to the invitation to complete a follow-up survey. These 343 students represent our analytic sample included within this study.

On the pre-test, we invited students to identify a number of their demographic characteristics. Approximately 58% of the sample identified as a woman, 32% as a man, 1% as a member of the transgender population, and 9% did not report or were not categorized within the scope of this research project. To meet appropriate standards of statistical power, we only included those who identified as a man or woman. With regard to race, 48% identified as Caucasian, 17% as African-American, 12% as Asian-American, 6% as Latino/a, 5% as multi-racial, 1% as Middle-Eastern, and 11% did not report or were not categorized. To attain appropriate statistical power, we left out the sample of Middle-Eastern participants. First-year undergraduate students

comprised 27% of the sample, sophomores (29%), juniors (25%), seniors (8%) and graduate students (2%) comprised the rest, while 9% did not report their academic class standing.

Instrumentation

We designed this study to measure the durable development of leadership skill, leader self-efficacy, and motivation to lead within students over time. To assess these constructs, we employed five different psychometric scales that included a total of eight sub-scales, all of which used a 5-point Likert-type scale, ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree."

Leadership Skill. We measured leadership skill with the Leader Behavior Scale (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990), a popular and non-copyrighted 28-item instrument that includes a sub-scale focused on transformational leadership skill, and another on transactional skill. The LBS has been in use for over 20 years as measure of leadership development (Yukl, 1999, 2010) in both business and education settings, with Cronbach Alphas ranging from .71 to .89 (Yukl, 2010). Within this study, alpha reliability scores ranged from .73 to .87. We also used the Ethical Leadership Scale (ELS), a 10-item instrument that employs the response scale mentioned above, and created to measure the degree to which leaders enact ethical means to achieve goals (Brown, Treviño, & Harrison, 2005). Alpha reliability scores in the past have been high (>.90) (Brown, et al., 2005), and in this study were so as well (>.91). Scores across the three scales were summed for analysis due to the high correlation between them ($r = .70$).

Leader Self-Efficacy. We used the Self-Efficacy for Leadership (SEL) scale, an 8-item instrument measuring a person's degree of expected success when engaging in leadership behaviors that employs the response scale mentioned above (Murphy & Fiedler, 1992). The SEL has been employed for 20 years in professional organizations and postsecondary institutions (Hoyt et al., 2003; Hoyt, 2005). Past research indicated internal reliability of .86 (Murphy & Ensher, 1999), while also demonstrating discriminant validity when used with measures of generalized self-esteem and past leadership experiences (Hoyt, 2005). Within this study, alpha reliability levels ranged from .71 on the pre-test to .84 on the follow-up survey.

Motivation to Lead. We utilized two scales to assess students' motivation to lead: the Motivation to Lead (MTL) scale (Chan & Drasgow, 2001) and an adapted version of the Social Issues Advocacy Scale (SIAS; Nilsson, Marszalek, Linnemeyer, Bahner, & Misialek, 2011). The MTL consists of a 27-item measure divided equally across sub-scales measuring affective-identity (AI), non-calculative (NC), and social normative (SN) motivations to lead (Chan & Drasgow, 2001), employing the same response scale as the other instruments. Most past research employing the MTL has been for business applications, but it has recently been extended to the field of higher education as a tool for student leadership assessment (Rosch et al., 2015). In the seminal research describing its creation, (Chan & Drasgow, 2001), Cronbach's alphas for sub-scales ranged from .65 to .91. Within this study, most alpha reliabilities ranged from .77 to .82, while the follow-up SN motivation to lead Cronbach's alpha represented a potential outlying result at .64, falling just above a minimum level of reliability for analysis.

Given that the curriculum of the Program focuses explicitly on a leader's responsibility to build inclusive communities based on social justice behaviors, we also employed an adapted version of

the Social Issues Advocacy Scale (SIAS). Created to assess a person's motivation to publicly advocate for social issues considered just and important (Nilsson et al., 2011), we deleted items explicitly connected to political advocacy (i.e. motivation to vote, lobby, or campaign) that we felt were not related closely enough to the curriculum and learning outcomes of the Program. Seminal research on the larger scale suggested appropriate scale reliability (.93) and discriminant validity with constructs such as self-esteem and life satisfaction (Nilsson et al., 2011). Within this study using the adapted scale, alpha reliabilities ranged from .80 on the pre-test to .86 on the post-test. Items were summed prior to analysis.

Prior Leadership Experience. As part of the pre-test, we asked students, "Since starting college, how often have you been involved in leadership-focused training programs?" Approximately 26% had "never" received prior leadership training; 13% had "once;" 27% had "sometimes;" 17% had "often;" 8% had "almost always;" and 9% did not respond. We also included an item related to their past practice of leadership, asking, "Since starting college, how often have you held a leadership role in an organization (ex. student group, religious organization, etc.)?" Approximately 13% reported having "never" held a leadership role, 14% had "once," 26% had "sometimes," 26% had done so "often," 15% had "almost always," and 6% did not report their past experience in a leadership role.

Data Analysis

The goal of our study was to examine how leadership training affects leader capacity over time and whether these changes differ by gender, race, and prior leadership training and experience. We used growth curve analysis with hierarchical linear modeling software for all analyses (HLM; Randenbush, Bryk, Cheong, Fai, Congdon, & du Toit, 2011). HLM accounts for the nested structure of the data by estimating the correlated error that is inherent in multiple waves of data (Level 1) collected across the same individuals (Level 2). The first step of the analysis involved a test of unconditional models for each of the three outcomes (i.e., leadership skill, motivation to lead, and leader self-efficacy) in order to determine the suitability of multilevel modeling. In the second step of the analysis, we tested Research Questions 1, 2, and 3 with a series of three growth models, one for each of our skill, efficacy, and motivation-related outcomes. We adopted a quadratic growth curve model based on past research showing that initial gains in leadership outcomes are likely to slow over time (Day & Sin, 2011). In each model we entered Time ($0 =$ pretest) and Time^2 as Level 1 predictors, and added race, gender, number of leadership positions, and number of leadership trainings as Level 2 predictors.

Empirical Results

We present our descriptive results in Table 1. On average, scores increased from pre-test to post-test, then tapered over time. The intraclass correlations (ICC) for leadership skill (.46), motivation to lead (.52), and leader self-efficacy (.29) indicated that there was sufficient upper-level variance to proceed with multilevel modeling (e.g., ICC greater than .10; Bryk & Raudenbush, 1992).

Table 1. *Aggregated Leadership Capacity Means*

	Pre-Test $\bar{x}$ (*sd*)	Post-Test $\bar{x}$ (*sd*)	Follow-up $\bar{x}$ (*sd*)
LEADERSHIP SKILL	12.32 (0.98)	13.07 (15.80)	12.74 (1.16)
Transformational Leadership	3.98 (0.36)	4.29 (0.38)	4.13 (0.42)
Transactional Leadership	4.20 (0.50)	4.40 (0.54)	4.28 (0.55)
Ethical Leadership	4.12 (0.38)	4.35 (0.40)	4.34 (0.41)
MOTIVATION TO LEAD	14.99 (1.29)	15.80 (1.43)	15.02 (1.39)
Affective-Identity Motivation to Lead	3.55 (0.51)	3.58 (0.62)	3.47 (0.64)
Social-Normative Motivation to Lead	3.71 (0.43)	3.78 (0.49)	3.57 (0.46)
Non-Calculative Motivation to Lead	3.71 (0.43)	4.24 (0.55)	3.99 (0.64)
Social Issues Advocacy	3.98 (0.51)	4.15 (0.52)	4.00 (0.54)
LEADER SELF-EFFICACY	3.89 (0.50)	4.27 (0.45)	4.04 (0.61)

Table 2 shows the results of the three models testing change in leadership skill, motivation to lead, and leader self-efficacy over time as a function of gender, race, and leadership training and experience. On average, skill increased after the program and tapered over time. Women, on average, showed a larger increase in leadership skill than men after the program but decreased more than men by the assessment at Time 2. The model testing motivation to lead showed a similar pattern. On average, participants showed a significant increase after the program that tapered over time. At the pre-test assessment, Asian-Americans reported lower levels of motivation to lead than Caucasians. Asian-Americans showed a trajectory similar to Caucasian participants, but due to their lower Time 0 scores, ended the measurement period with lower scores as well. Participants with more leadership trainings showed less improvement over time in motivation to lead. The model testing leader self-efficacy also revealed a similar pattern of change. On average, leader self-efficacy improved after the program and tapered over time. Female participants reported lower levels of leader self-efficacy at the pretest but showed larger increases with sustainable gains after the program compared to male participants. In addition, African-Americans reported lower levels of leader self-efficacy than Caucasians at pretest. Due to these depressed entering scores, African-Americans reported lower leader self-efficacy after the program despite a trajectory of growth similar to Caucasian peers. Participants who entered the training program with more past experience in leadership roles in organizations reported higher levels of leader self-efficacy at pretest but a similar trajectory of development over time. Participants who reported attending more leadership trainings, however, showed less improvement in leader self-efficacy over time.

Table 2. *Multilevel Models of the Effects of Gender, Race, and Leadership Experience on Leadership Capacity over Time*

Model Variables	Leadership Skill		Leadership Motivation		Leadership Self-Efficacy	
	Coefficient (SE)	r	Coefficient (SE)	r	Coefficient (SE)	r
Fixed effects						
Intercept	12.19 (0.14)***	0.97	14.72 (0.19)***	0.97	3.83 (0.07)***	0.94
Female	-0.07 (0.12)	0.29	0.20 (0.17)	0.06	-0.14 (0.06)*	0.12
Asian	0.06 (0.14)	0.02	-0.34 (0.17)*	0.10	-0.04 (0.07)	0.03
AA	-0.04 (0.16)	0.01	-0.06 (0.24)	0.01	-0.15 (0.07)*	0.11
Latino	0.02 (0.19)	0.01	0.08 (0.24)	0.02	0.02 (0.08)	0.01
Leadership positions	0.03 (0.03)	0.05	0.04 (0.04)	0.05	0.05 (0.01)***	0.25
Leadership trainings	0.04 (0.03)	0.07	0.02 (0.03)	0.03	0.02 (0.01)	0.10
Time slope						
	1.12 (0.24)***	0.23	1.84 (0.32)***	0.28	0.81 (0.11)***	0.35
Female	0.73 (0.21)***	0.18	0.28 (0.27)	0.05	0.18 (0.08)*	0.11
Asian	-0.41 (0.24)	0.09	-0.14 (0.06)	0.12	-0.19 (0.12)	0.08
AA	-0.55 (0.31)	0.09	-0.70 (0.43)	0.08	-0.18 (0.14)	0.07
Latino	0.33 (0.27)	0.06	-0.10 (0.36)	0.01	-0.07 (0.14)	0.03
Leadership positions	-0.03 (0.05)	0.03	-0.03 (0.06)	0.03	-0.03 (0.02)	0.08
Leadership trainings	-0.08 (0.05)	0.08	-0.14 (0.06)*	0.12	-0.05 (0.03)*	0.09
Quadratic slope	-0.44 (0.13)***	0.17	-0.85 (0.16)***	0.26	-0.32 (0.05)***	0.31
Female	-0.37 (0.11)***	0.17	-0.15 (0.14)	0.05	-0.07 (0.05)	0.07
Asian	0.15 (0.13)	0.06	0.01 (0.14)	0.00	0.08 (0.06)	0.07
AA	0.19 (0.17)	0.06	0.29 (0.22)	0.07	0.07 (0.06)	0.06
Latino	-0.15 (0.15)	0.06	0.09 (0.18)	0.03	0.06 (0.08)	0.04
Leadership positions	0.02 (0.02)	0.05	0.01 (0.03)	0.02	0.01 (0.01)	0.05
Leadership trainings	0.03 (0.02)	0.08	0.05 (0.02)	0.13	0.02 (0.01)	0.10
Random Effects						
Intercept variance	0.56 (0.75)***		0.97 (0.99)***		0.12 (0.35)***	
Time slope variance	0.36 (0.60)		0.51 (0.71)		0.06 (0.24)	
Quadratic slope variance	0.16 (0.40)**		0.16 (0.40)		0.04 (0.19)**	
Residual variance	0.34 (0.59)		0.56 (0.78)		0.09 (0.29)	
Model Fit						
-2 log likelihood	2312.84		2668.65		1120.58	

Note. All coefficients are unstandardized. AA=African-American. * $p<.05$, ** $p<.01$, *** $p<.001$

Significant Findings and Discussion

Our study was designed to examine the durable effects of postsecondary leadership trainings on the students who participate in them, particularly in regard to the differences in developmental trajectory related to gender, race, and prior leadership-related experience. Several noteworthy results emerged from our results.

Overall Findings

On average, our results indicate that students in postsecondary institutions who participate in formal leadership training events demonstrate measurable and durable gains in their leadership capacity, lending support to prior findings that show a correlation between past self-reported training participation and leadership capacity (Cress et al., 2001; Dugan & Komives, 2010; Dugan et al., 2011; Rosch & Caza, 2011). Using identical response scales across all measures of leadership capacity, participants reported leadership skill scores that were, on average, higher than their leader self-efficacy and motivation to lead scores. These results may not be surprising, given the current focus in leadership programs on skill-development, and suggest the need for such initiatives to also include curricula based on changing students' perceptions of themselves and their potential for success within the arena of leadership practice (Dugan, 2011). Our findings may also serve to paint a more nuanced picture of the trajectory of growth, as participants reported gains much larger at the immediate conclusion of the program than when assessed months later. They also indicate the non-linear process of leader development within postsecondary students, marked by immediate gains and subsequent setbacks, in some cases as large as the initial gains. Moreover, these data imply the existence of a "honeymoon" period affecting the self-assessment of gains in capacity within leader development programs (Rosch & Schwartz, 2009), as well as a potential indication that, once newly learned capacities are applied outside of the program environment, participants may re-evaluate the impact of the program on the trajectory of their growth.

Gender

Our results show that for students who identified their gender as either a woman or a man, women enter leader training programs reporting lower levels of leadership skill and leader self-efficacy compared to men and make greater self-reported gains in both capacities when assessed immediately at the conclusion of the training program. When assessed months later, however, only their leader self-efficacy gains relative to men remained. These results lend support to prior findings that suggest women in professional organizations (Carli & Eagly, 2001; Eagly & Carli, 2003) and in postsecondary education (Cress et al., 2001; Dugan et al., 2009; Kezar & Moriarty, 2000) often face challenges not faced by men in acting like a leader using traditional conceptions of leadership behavior. Even when controlling for other factors, such as prior leadership experience, women reported a larger decrease in their leadership skills months later. However, the only demographic examined within the scope of this study whose scores did not taper after program participation, however, were women reporting their leader self-efficacy levels.

Race

The size of the participant sample allowed us to disaggregate racial demographic groups and explore differences in the developmental trajectories of students by their self-identified racial background. The results of the study suggest few measurable differences between students of dissimilar races regarding the trajectories of their leadership skill development, either in where they enter leadership training programs or in the gains that they report over time after participating, which somewhat contradicts past findings indicating differences in leadership capacity when focusing on racial identity (Dugan et al., 2009; Dugan & Komives, 2007; Kezar & Moriarty, 2000). However, a more nuanced picture emerges in our results with regard to

students' motivation to lead and leader self-efficacy. Asian-American students reported less incoming motivation to lead compared to Caucasian students, a gap that persisted over time, despite controlling for other factors such as prior leadership experience. This group also showed trajectories of growth comparable to Caucasian peers, as well as similar initial capacity level and growth related to their leadership skills and leader self-efficacy. African-American students reported lower levels of leader self-efficacy related to Caucasian students prior to participating in leadership programs, a gap that also persisted over time after participation, despite similarities in their developmental trajectories related to leadership skill and motivation to lead. These findings may lend evidence to past research that suggested that many students of color possess different perspectives of what it means to lead and may not attribute the label "leader" to themselves (Arminio et al., 2000).

The decision to lead one's peers often results in creating psychological distance between oneself and one's group while drawing attention to oneself – a motivation that may not be as strong in Asian cultures (Balon, 2003). Our results, however, suggest that participating in a leadership development program can result in gains in Asian-American students' motivation to lead even so, while also supporting growth in their leadership skill and leader self-efficacy comparable to Caucasian peers. Similar results exist in regards to African-American students compared to Caucasian peers within the context of leader self-efficacy. Although African-American students enter a developmental program reporting a lower capacity in this area, they make similar gains over time, suggesting that participation resulted in durable gains in all three areas of leadership capacity measured within the study.

Prior Leadership Experience and Training

Clear differences emerged in our results related to students who have attended leadership education and training events in the past and those who reported occupying positions of leadership in teams and organizations, compared to peers who have not had such experiences. Students who have already participated in leadership-oriented educational initiatives reported less of an increase in their motivation to lead and leader self-efficacy, despite reporting similar initial levels of capacity across all three areas measured. These students displayed similar gains in leadership skill compared to peers. These findings may lend support for the idea that students may be better served over the course of their postsecondary experiences with structured programs that allow for them to build on past training and education (Dugan, 2011), whereas the program that served as the setting for this study did not take such differences in background into its curriculum or how it unfolded.

Students who enter having already exercised roles of leadership in organizations unsurprisingly report higher levels of motivation to lead prior to participating; in general, the more often they have practiced such roles, the more motivation to lead they report. However, even with such experiences in their past, they entered the program reporting levels of leadership skill and leader self-efficacy similar to their peers without such experiences. Moreover, the trajectory of their overall development emerged as similar to students who possessed no such experiences prior to participating in the program.

These results suggest noteworthy differences between students who have occupied roles of leadership and those who have participated in formal leadership education and training. Students who serve as leaders of student organizations may be more motivated to lead than their peers, but may not possess more skill.

Implications for Practice

The results from this study, overall, provide evidence that one-time, immersion-based leadership initiatives can be beneficial for undergraduate students in postsecondary education, with measurable gains that last beyond an immediate window of time after participating. On average, students showed advancements in their leadership skills, leader self-efficacy, and motivation to lead even when measured several months later; the trajectories of their leadership growth in regards to gender, racial identity, and prior leadership experience showed many similarities. These results provide evidence that the sustained focus on leader development as a desirable outcome in postsecondary education has been met with some success, and that measurable lasting returns exist for the substantial investments that have been made. However, our findings may also indicate several more nuanced implications for those engaged in leadership development work.

Perhaps the most striking differences in trajectories of leader development were seen between men and women who participated within the Program. Even when controlling for other factors, while women reported lower initial capacities compared to men, they made greater immediate gains related to skills and self-efficacy, and sustained such gains in regards to their leader self-efficacy. Taken as a whole, these results suggest that leadership curriculum focused on community-building within the Program, and resulting in leadership goals related to positive community-wide impact, may serve as an effective way to support the lasting development of leader self-efficacy in women. At the same time, they provide support to past research that suggests that the challenges women face in demonstrating leadership skill and thinking about themselves as leaders has not lessened in many postsecondary environments.

Whereas differences emerged in the developmental trajectories of students in regard to their racial identity, such differences related to the intercepts of these trajectories rather than their slopes. Regardless of racial identification, the trajectory of students' durable gains was similar. Students' initial starting points served as predictors of their capacity to lead months later. Seen from one perspective, this suggests that participating in leadership initiatives focused on building a strong community of participants with a goal of creating positive impact in society at large can provide lasting benefit for a diverse group of students regardless of their racial backgrounds. From another perspective, participating did nothing measurable to reduce the initial disparities in students self-report of their leadership skill, leader self-efficacy, and motivation to lead that existed across the racial identities of participants. These results imply that more attention should be paid to the role of racial identity in developing leadership curricula that serves all students and backgrounds.

Possessing a background in leadership experiences also affected students' trajectories of leadership capacity. Our results indicate that students who have already attended programs designed for their leadership development reported fewer gains, isolated to the area of skill

development, rather than in their leader self-efficacy or their motivation to lead. These findings provide evidence that the motivation or self-efficacy gains students make in their development may be limited to their initial exposure to structured leadership education, with decreasing benefit in subsequent participation.

Implications for Future Research

Substantive prior research (e.g., Dugan et al., 2009; Kezar & Moriarty, 2000) suggests that gender and racial identity play a significant role in the students' beliefs regarding the practice of leadership. Our results may shed light on how such beliefs affect the trajectories of their leadership development through participating in leadership development initiatives. Our research was limited, however, by our focus on a single educational initiative that, while national in scope, may fail to paint a comprehensive picture of the longitudinal trajectories of student leadership development. Future research should broaden the focus to programs with durations that are both shorter (e.g. weekend retreats or one-day program) and longer (e.g. certificate programs and academic programs of study). Although it is presumable that students who participate in short-term programs derive less benefit from them than students who participate longer over time, initial evidence is mixed (Dugan et al., 2011).

Lastly, our study provided empirical evidence for a "honeymoon" effect in leadership gains when measured immediately after participation in structured programs. These results call into question the validity of assessing student leadership capacity gained through program participation when limited to a pre-test/post-test design. Future research examining the impact of structured programmatic interventions on student leadership development should focus on examining the effects of research design on results. In addition, researchers and analysts should use caution in implementing a traditional pre-test/post-test repeated measures design without other data collection methods to account for such limitations.

<div align="center">References</div>

Altbach, P. G. (2013). Globalization and forces for change in higher education. In *The International Imperative in Higher Education* (pp. 7–10). Rotterdam: SensePublishers. doi.org/10.1007/978-94-6209-338-6_2.

Arminio, J. L., Carter, S., Jones, S. E., Kruger, K., Lucas, N., Washington, J., & al, et. (2000). Leadership experiences of students of color. *NASPA Journal*, *37*(3), 496–510.

Astin, A. W., & Astin, H. S. (2000). *Leadership reconsidered: Engaging higher education in social change*. Battle Creek, MI: W.E. Kellogg Foundation.

Avolio, B. J., Reichard, R. J., Hannah, S. T., Walumbwa, F. O., & Chan, A. (2009). A meta-analytic review of leadership impact research: Experimental and quasi-experimental studies. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *20*(5), 764–784. http://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2009.06.006

Balon, D. G. (2003). *Asian Pacific American leadership development*. *Leadership insights and applications #14*. College Park, MD: National Clearinghouse for Leadership Programs.

Bass, B. M. (1998). *Transformational leadership*. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Bass, B. M., & Avolio, B. J. (1994). *Improving organizational effectiveness through transformative leadership*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Brown, M. E., Treviño, L. K., & Harrison, D. A. (2005). Ethical leadership: A social learning perspective for construct development and testing. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, *97*(2), 117–134.

Bryk, A., & Raudenbush, S. (1992). *Hierarchical linear models: Applications and data analysis methods*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Carli, L., & Eagly, A. (2001). Gender, hierarchy, and leadership: An introduction. *Journal of Social Issues*, *57*(4), 629–636. http://doi.org/10.1111/0022-4537.00232

Chan, K.-Y., & Drasgow, F. (2001). Toward a theory of individual differences and leadership: Understanding the motivation to lead. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *86*(3), 481–498.

Colbeck, C. L., Campbell, S. E., & Bjorklund, S. A. (2000). Grouping in the dark: What college students learn from group projects. *The Journal of Higher Education*, *71*(1), 60–83. http://doi.org/10.2307/2649282

Cress, C. M., Astin, H., Zimmerman-Oster, K., & Burkhardt, J. C. (2001). Developmental outcomes of college students' involvement in leadership activities. *Journal of College Student Development*, *42*(1), 15–27.

Day, D. V., & Sin, H.-P. (2011). Longitudinal tests of an integrative model of leader development: Charting and understanding developmental trajectories. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *22*(3), 545–560. http://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2011.04.011

Derue, D., & Ashford, S. (2010). Who will lead and who will follow? A social process of leadership identity construction in organizations. *Academy of Management Review*, *35*(4), 627–647. http://doi.org/10.5465/AMR.2010.53503267

Dinh, J. E., Lord, R. G., Gardner, W. L., Meuser, J. D., Liden, R. C., & Hu, J. (2014). Leadership theory and research in the new millennium: Current theoretical trends and changing perspectives. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *25*(1), 36–62. http://doi.org/http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2013.11.005

Dugan, J. P. (2011). Pervasive myths in leadership development: Unpacking constraints on leadership learning. *Journal of Leadership Studies*, *5*(2), 79–84. http://doi.org/10.1002/jls.20223

Dugan, J. P., Bohle, C. W., Gebhardt, M., Hofert, M., Wilk, E., & Cooney, M. a. (2011). Influences of leadership program participation on students' capacities for socially responsible

leadership. *Journal of Student Affairs Research and Practice*, *48*(1), 65–84.
http://doi.org/10.2202/1949-6605.6206

Dugan, J. P., Kodama, C. M., & Gebhardt, M. C. (2012). Race and leadership development
among college students: The additive value of collective racial esteem. *Journal of Diversity in
Higher Education*, *5*(3), 174–189. http://doi.org/10.1037/a0029133

Dugan, J. P., & Komives, S. R. (2007). *Developing leadership capacity in college students:
Findings from a national study. A report from the Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership.*
College Park, MD: National Clearinghouse for Leadership Programs.

Dugan, J. P., & Komives, S. R. (2010). Influences on college students' capacities for socially
responsible leadership. *Journal of College Student Development*, *51*(5), 525–549.

Dugan, J. P., Komives, S. R., & Segar, T. C. (2009). College student capacity for socially
responsible leadership: Understanding norms and influences of race, gender, and sexual
orientation. *NASPA Journal*, *45*(4), 475–500.

Eagly, A. H., & Carli, L. L. (2003). The female leadership advantage: An evaluation of the
evidence. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *14*(6), 807–834.
http://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2003.09.004

Eagly, A. H., & Carli, L. L. (2007). *Through the labyrinth: The truth about how women become
leaders*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard Business Press.

Faris, S. K., & Outcalt L., C. (2001). The emergence of inclusive, process-oriented leadership.
In C. L. Outcalt (Ed.), *Developing non-hierarchical leadership on campus: Case studies and best
practices in higher education* (pp. 9–18). Westport, CT: Greenwood Press.

Hannah, S. T., & Avolio, B. J. (2010). Ready or not: How do we accelerate the developmental
readiness of leaders? *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *31*(8), 1181–1187.
http://doi.org/10.1002/job.675

Hannah, S. T., Avolio, B. J., Luthans, F., & Harms, P. D. (2008). Leadership efficacy: Review
and future directions. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *19*(6), 669–692.

Higher Education Research Institute. (1996). *A social change model of leadership development
(Version III)*. Los Angeles: University of California Higher Education Research Institute.

Howard, G. S., & Dailey, P. R. (1979). Response-shift bias: A source of contamination of self-
report measures. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *64*(2), 144–150.

Hoyt, C. L. (2005). The role of leadership efficacy and stereotype activation in women's
identification with leadership. *Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies*, *11*(4), 2–14.

Hoyt, C. L., Murphy, S. E., Halverson, S. K., & Watson, C. B. (2003). Group leadership: Efficacy and effectiveness. *Group Dynamics: Theory, Research, and Practice*, *7*(4), 259–274.

Keating, K., Rosch, D. M., & Burgoon, L. (2014). Developmental readiness for leadership: The differential effects of leadership courses on creating "ready, willing, and able" leaders. *Journal of Leadership Education*, *13*(3), 1–16. http://doi.org/1012806/V13/I3/R1

Kezar, A. J., Carducci, R., & Contreras-McGavin, M. (2006). *Rethinking the "L" word in higher education: The revolution in research in higher education*. *ASHE Higher Education Report* (Vol. 31). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Kezar, A. J., & Moriarty, D. (2000). Expanding our understanding of student leadership development: A study exploring gender and ethnic identity. *Journal of College Student Development*, *41*(1), 55–69.

Komives, S. R., Lucas, N., & McMahon, T. (2007). *Exploring leadership: For college students who want to make a difference, 2nd Edition*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Leithwood, K., & Jantzi, D. (2008). Linking leadership to student learning: The contributions of leader efficacy. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, *44*(4), 496–528.

Machida, M., & Schaubroeck, J. (2011). The role of self-efficacy beliefs in leader development. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, *18*(4), 459–468. http://doi.org/10.1177/1548051811404419

McCormick, M. J., Tanguma, J., & Lopez-Forment, A. S. (2002). Extending self-efficacy theory to leadership: A review and empirical test. *Journal of Leadership Education*, *1*(2), 34–49.

Miles, J., & Shevlin, M. (2004). *Applying regression and correlation: A guide for students and researchers*. London: Sage Publications.

Murphy, S. E., & Ensher, E. A. (1999). The effects of leader and subordinate characteristics in the development of leader–member exchange quality. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, *29*(7), 1371–1394. http://doi.org/10.1111/j.1559-1816.1999.tb00144.x

Murphy, S. E., & Fiedler, F. E. (1992). *The contribution of leadership experience and self-efficacy to group performance under evaluation apprehension*. University of Washington, United States -- Washington. Retrieved from http://search.proquest.com/docview/304005264?accountid=14553

National Association of Colleges and Employers. (2013). *Job outlook 2013*. Bethlehem, PA: National Association of Colleges and Employers.

Nilsson, J. E., Marszalek, J. M., Linnemeyer, R. M., Bahner, A. D., & Misialek, L. H. (2011). Development and assessment of the social issues advocacy scale. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, *71*(1), 258–275. http://doi.org/10.1177/0013164410391581

Owen, J. (2012). *Examining the design and delivery of collegiate student leadership development programs: Findings from the Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership (MSL-IS), a national report*. Washington, DC: Council for the Advancement of Standards in Higher Education.

Parker, E.T., & Pascarella, E. T. (2013). Effects of diversity experiences on socially responsible leadership over four years of college. *Journal of Diversity in Higher Education, 6*(4), 219-230. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/a0035130

Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Moorman, R. H., & Fetter, R. (1990). Transformational leader behaviors and their effects on followers' trust in leader, satisfaction, and organizational citizenship behaviors. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *1*(2), 107–142. http://doi.org/10.1016/1048-9843(90)90009-7

Posner, B. Z. (2009). A longitudinal study examining changes in students leadership behavior. *Journal of College Student Development*, *50*(5), 551–563.

Raudenbush, S. W., Bryk, A. S., Cheong, A. S., Fai, Y. F., Congdon, R. T., & du Toit, M. (2011). *HLM 7: Hierarchical linear and nonlinear modeling*. Lincolnwood, IL: Scientific Software International.

Riggio, R. E., Ciulla, J. B., & Sorensen, G. J. (2003). Leadership education at the undergraduate level: A liberal arts approach to leadership development. In S. E. Murphy & R. E. Riggio (Eds.), *The future of leadership development* (pp. 223–236). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

Rohs, F. R. (2002). Improving the evaluation of leadership programs: Control response-shift bias. Journal of Leadership Education, 1(2), 50–61.

Rosch, D. M., & Caza, A. (2011). The durable effects of short-term programs on student leadership development. *Journal of Leadership Education*, *12*(1), 28–48.

Rosch, D. M., Collier, D., & Thompson, S. E. (2015). An exploration of students' motivation to lead: An analysis by race, gender, and student leadership behaviors. *Journal of College Student Development*, *56*(3), 286–291.

Rosch, D. M., & Schwartz, L. M. (2009). Potential issues and pitfalls in outcomes assessment in leadership education. *Journal of Leadership Education*, *8*(1), 177-193.

Rosenthal, S. A. (2012). *National leadership index 2012: A national study of confidence in leadership*. Cambridge, MA: Center for Public Leadership, Harvard Kennedy School.

Rost, J. C. (1993). *Leadership for the 21st century*. Westport, CT.: Praeger Publishers.

Smith, K. A., Sheppard, S. D., Johnson, D. W., & Johnson, R. T. (2005). Pedagogies of engagement: Classroom-based practices. *Journal of Engineering Education*, *94*(1), 87–101. http://doi.org/10.1002/j.2168-9830.2005.tb00831.x

Van Iddekinge, C. H., Ferris, G. R., & Heffner, T. S. (2009). Test of a multistage model of distal and proximal antecedents of leader performance. *Personnel Psychology*, *62*(3), 463–495. http://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-6570.2009.01145.x

Yukl, G. (1999). An evaluation of conceptual weaknesses in transformational and charismatic leadership theories. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *10*(2), 285–305.

Yukl, G. (2010). *Leadership in organizations* (7th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Zimmerman-Oster, K., & Burkhardt, J. C. (1999). *Leadership in the Making: Impact and Insights from Leadership Development Programs in U.S. Colleges and Universities*. Battle Creek, MI: Kellogg Foundation.

Who Participates? Who leads?
What are the outcomes for college students in co-curricular activities?

Nicole Alonso, Valerie Sessa, & Jennifer Bragger
Montclair State University

Abstract

While employers demand that recent college graduates have leadership skills, there are a limited number of leadership positions on campus. We looked at differences between student leaders, students who participate in extra-curricular activities and students who do not participate in any extra-curricular activities, to determine whether holding a leadership position in college better prepares students for life after graduation beyond participation in extra-curricular activities and classroom learning. Career-readiness, psycho-social development, engagement and institutional satisfaction were measured via surveys to determine reported differences between the three groups. Our study demonstrates that students who hold leadership positions during college report higher psycho-social development and career readiness than students who participate (but do not hold leadership positions) and those who do not participate in extra-curricular activities.

Introduction

Organizations want skills and competencies beyond academic knowledge in entry level workers (NACE, 2015). Skills and competencies include leadership, critical thinking, and teamwork. Employers, organizations, and universities themselves view it as part of the university's responsibility to develop these skills and competencies (Trowler, 2010). There is one body of research that suggests student participation in extra-curricular activities is a predictor of developing the needed skills (including leadership) that employers look for in entry level employees. Interestingly, there is another body of research that suggests holding a leadership position during college is also a good predictor of developing the needed skills (including leadership). In response to both bodies of research, universities have increased the resources allotted to extra-curricular activities and leadership opportunities available to students (Trowler, 2010). But there is no research that compares student participation with student leadership. This is especially important to consider as any student can participate in co-curricular and extra-curricular activities but there are only a limited number of leadership positions available on campus. Additionally, universities want to ensure that their resources are leading to positive outcomes such as higher engagement and satisfaction. This leads to a number of questions such as: are there different benefits to be gained by participating versus by taking on leadership roles; if and what added benefits do students gain by holding leadership positions on campus beyond participating; what is the process through which students gain these benefits; how do students get into leadership positions; do universities see greater levels of engagement and satisfaction in student leaders as opposed to participants? The purpose of this manuscript is to begin to answer these questions. We compare student leaders of clubs, organizations, and sports teams to students who participate (but who do not take on leader roles) in those activities, to students who do not participate beyond the classroom on their college engagement, their psycho-social development, their career readiness, and their overall satisfaction with their education.

Literature Review

The difference between non-participants, participants in co-curricular and extra-curricular activities, and leadership roles in those activities. Although co-curricular and extra-curricular activities exist to complement the university's academic curriculum and to augment student educational experiences, close to one half of students do not participate in co-curricular or extra-curricular activities while in college (Buckley & Kinzie, 2005). This may be in part because many of today's students are juggling some combination of families, jobs, and school. Many students are only able to attend part time (Complete College America, 2011). In addition, only 40% of full time students at public universities live on campus, while over 60% of full time students at private universities do (Tellefsen, 2017). As co- or extra- curricular involvement requires additional time commitments and often costs over and above academics these may be detriments to participation by working students, those who attend part time, or those who attend full time but commute to campus.

Students who participate in co-curricular and extra-curricular activities may vary in their amount and type of participation, which would have an impact on whether they fully receive benefits in participation. For example, for some students, participation may be passively attending meetings. They are present which may have some benefits over non-participation as they are being exposed to experiences, ideas, or others that they might not had access to if they did not attend. For other students, participation may be involvement and hard work which pushes them out of their comfort zones. Evidence suggests that for students to actually learn from participation in co-curricular and extra-curricular experiences, they need to be involved in novel, uncertain, or meaningful activities (DeRue & Wellman, 2009).

Students who take on leadership positions may not only be the students who are involved and working hard, but they also are exercising agency (Bandura, 1989; Bandura, 2006). That is, they are intentionally influencing their own functioning and their life circumstances, as well as the events of the club or association that they are leading. Research demonstrates that while students do learn from participation, they learn more participating in leadership activities (see Sessa, 2017). Therefore, we make the argument that although participation in co-curricular and extra-curricular activities is beneficial over no participation, those taking on leadership roles will show the most benefits.

Student Engagement. Student engagement has become a popular buzzword in higher education over the last several years; especially with the growing evidence of its role in learning and development (Kahu, 2013). Student engagement can be defined from both an individual perspective as well as an institutional perspective. Kuh (2009) defines engagement as "the time and effort students devote to activities that are empirically linked to desired outcomes of college *and* what institutions do to induce students to participate in these activities" (Kuh, 2009). Students who participate in extra- and co-curricular activities devote varying portions of their time and effort to their chosen activity while leaders of these extra- and co-curricular activities are typically required to devote more time and effort with the increased responsibility of their position. In return for their time and effort, students with higher engagement are reported to have increased academic performance, persistence and satisfaction. Other benefits of student engagement include: general abilities, critical thinking, cognitive development, productive racial

and gender identity formation, more and ethical development as well as accrual of social capital (Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005; Carini, Kuh & Klein, 2006; Kuh, 2009; Trowler, 2010). Many of the outcomes of student engagement are not only important for the students, but they are important for the institution for several reasons. First, student engagement data can provide reputational benefits to a university. Because engagement is a reliable substitute for learning, and actual learning is a reliable indicator of quality, engagement data can be used to determine quality and subsequently affect a college's reputation (Trowler, 2010). Secondly, student engagement can provide financial benefits to colleges and universities. Students who are more engaged during their time at school are more likely to feel connected and supportive of the institution after graduation which can equate to more donations to the institutions from alumni (Markwell, 2007). As stated above universities are allocating additional resources to extra-curricular and co-curricular activities to further engage students, but some are engaging more than others. For this reason, we suggest the following hypotheses:

H1a. Students who hold (or have held) a leadership position during their college career will report higher college engagement than students who have 1) not held a leadership position during their college career but have participated in clubs, organizations or sports teams on campus or 2) not participated in any clubs, organizations or sports teams on campus.

H1b. Students who have participated in clubs, organizations or sports on campus will report higher college engagement than students who have not participated in any clubs, organizations or sports teams on campus.

Psycho-Social Development. Out of classroom experiences (i.e. clubs, organizations and sports teams) influence student learning and personal development during college (Kuh, 1995; Goodman, 2001). This personal development could range from social maturation to autonomy to tolerance of diversity (Winston, Miller & Cooper, 1999). Students develop in these areas through the challenging experiences afforded by the consistent interaction with others in groups or teams. A challenging experience is any experiences that challenge a person to work outside his/her comfort zone (Sessa, 2017). In working outside of their comfort zone, students may need to learn new knowledge, skills, behaviors, and feelings while also learning how to work with others and juggle multiple tasks at once. Most extra-curricular activities provide challenging experiences through tasks unfamiliar to the students. Another way these extra-curricular activities push students out of their comfort zone is through the participation of students who may differ in any given way, such as: religion, ethnicity, cultural background, gender and socio-economic status. Students who participate in extra-curricular activities are expected to work with others, who may or may not be different from them, in order to accomplish some task or goal. This action requires students to learn communication and teamwork skills, tolerance for one another and interdependence with others. Leaders of clubs, organizations and sports teams are often faced with challenging experiences more often than those who do not hold leadership positions by having higher levels of responsibility. Often, student leaders are faced with juggling multiple initiatives in their organization along with the numerous projects and teams accomplishing those initiatives while also leading students who are different from them (see Sessa, 2017). Student leaders must develop psycho-socially to successfully navigate their responsibilities. For this reason, we propose the following hypotheses:

H2a: Students who hold (or have held) a leadership position during their college career will report higher psycho-social development than students who have 1) not held a leadership position during their college career but have participated in clubs, organizations or sports teams on campus or 2) not participated in any clubs, organizations or sports teams on campus.

H2b. Students who have participated in clubs, organizations or sports on campus will report higher psycho-social development than students who have not participated in any clubs, organizations or sports teams on campus.

Career Readiness. Career readiness is defined as the "attainment and demonstration of requisite competencies that broadly prepare college graduates for a successful transition into the workplace" (NACE, 2015). These competencies include, but are not limited to: critical thinking/problem solving (exercising sound reasoning to analyze issues, make decisions and overcome problems), oral/written communication, teamwork/collaboration, leadership (leverage the strength of others to achieve common goals) and career management (identify and articulate one's skills, strengths, and knowledge related to one's career). While not exactly jobs, extra-curricular activities provide students with an environment that mimics the work environment. Students, like employees, must work together to achieve a common goal through critical thinking, problem solving, teamwork and collaboration. Additionally, universities often have clubs and organizations that relate to the majors and degrees offered, which allow students to interact with professionals in their field or industry. This in turn gives them insight into the emotional and educational demands of their chosen career. Along with the above competencies, leaders of clubs, organizations and sports teams learn how to leverage the strengths of others, as well as how to use interpersonal skills to coach and develop others. Furthermore, leaders in organizations tend to get a tremendous amount of feedback on their performance; whether it be formally from the faculty adviser and peers, or informally through the success of the group. This feedback gives an in-depth look into their abilities and limitations as a leader, which is an important characteristic that employers want in entry level employers. Lastly, studies have shown that those who are more engaged will achieve higher learning and development, which has been linked to career readiness (Sung, Turner & Kaewchina, 2011). This leads to the following hypotheses:

H3a. Students who hold (or have held) a leadership position during their college career will report higher career readiness than students who have 1) not held a leadership position during their college career but have participated in clubs, organizations or sports teams on campus or 2) not participated in any clubs, organizations or sports teams on campus.

H3b. Students who have participated in clubs, organizations or sports on campus will report higher career readiness than students who have not participated in any clubs, organizations or sports teams on campus.

Satisfaction with Institution. Satisfaction is defined as "a person's attitude toward an object. It represents a complex assemblage of cognitions (beliefs or knowledge), emotions (feelings, sentiments or evaluations) and behavioral tendencies" (Hamner and Organ, 1978, p. 216). In this case, the object of interest is the student's educational institution. Typically, administration is interested in a student's satisfaction with their experience at the college or university insofar as

they are willing to recommend said college or university to other students (Aldemir & Gülcan, 2004; Douglas, McClelland & Davies, 2007). Student satisfaction is typically predicated by the responsiveness of teachers, communication between students and faculty/staff and access to resources (Douglas, McClelland & Davies, 2007) as well as participation in extra-curricular activities (Kuh, 2005). Student organizations, clubs and sports teams are environments rich with opportunities to interact closely with faculty and staff providing needed communication and responsiveness above and beyond that which is offered in the classroom. By working closely with faculty and staff, students are often made aware of, and provided access to, additional resources they may not have been aware of previously (Sessa, 2017). Those in leadership positions of these clubs, organizations and sports teams are recognized as the principal liaison between the rest of the student participates and the faculty of the institution (included as a responsibility in various leadership role descriptions). Student leaders are therefore expected to interact closely with faculty and staff, necessitating communication between the two parties and responsiveness on the part of the faculty. Student leaders, therefore, have more access to resources which can benefit the club, organization and sports team as well as the student individually. For these reasons, we suggest the following hypotheses:

H4a. Students who hold (or have held) a leadership position during their college career will report higher satisfaction with institution than students who have 1) not held a leadership position during their college career but have participated in clubs, organizations or sports teams on campus or 2) not participated in any clubs, organizations or sports teams on campus.
H4b. Students who have participated in clubs, organizations or sports on campus will report higher satisfaction with institution than students who have not participated in any clubs, organizations or sports teams on campus.

Method

Participants. Participants were recruited in three ways for this study from a large, research university in the northeast. First, students in their third and fourth year of college were recruited through subject pool recruitment systems as a requirement for certain psychology courses (N=91). Second, students were recruited through the co-curricular leadership development office on campus (N=56). Lastly, resident assistants (RAs) were invited to participate through the RA director (N=21). 72% of all participants are female, 51% Caucasian, 27% Hispanic, 9% Asian, and 7% Black. All students in this study were under the age of 24, with a large majority being 20-21 (76%). 35% of these students live on campus and 52% live off campus with family, family friends or relatives.

Procedure. Students filled out the survey online either at home or in a computer lab. All students received class credit or leadership credit for their participation in this study.

Measures. Demographics collected included age, gender, race/ethnicity, current residence, current CGPA, SATs, and SES.

Leadership Experience. In order to compare students who hold leadership positions to those that participate in extra-curricular activities (but have not held leadership positions) and to those that have not participated in any extra-curricular activities, students were asked a number of

questions pertaining to their involvement in various clubs, organizations and sports teams during their college career. Students were asked to indicate what leadership positions they have held during college and what clubs, organizations and sports teams they've participated in during college. Students were then divided into three groups based on their responses. Students who currently hold, or have previously held, a leadership position were placed into the leadership group. Leadership positions included elected roles in organizations such as president and vice president, along with the other roles that the university defines as leadership such as resident assistant, student ambassador, and office manager. Students who participated in any clubs, organizations or sports team during their college career but did not indicate holding a leadership position were placed into a participant group.

Engagement. Student engagement was developed using a modified version of Leithwood & Jantzi (2000) "Student Engagement and Family Culture Survey." The measure consisted of 33 questions measuring 5 facets of college engagement: class-related initiative ("I put a lot of energy into my work" =.79), respond to requirements ("I always finish my schoolwork on time" =.82), extracurricular activities ("participating in school events e.g. plays, athletics, musicals, is a very important part of my life" =.86), sense of belonging ("I feel that I 'belong' at this school" = .91), and valuing ("the most important things that happen to me usually happen at school" =.84).

Student Developmental Task and Lifestyle Assessment. This assessment is concerned with measuring the changes produced in individuals as a result of accomplishing a developmental task or having addressed important life events or issues within the context of higher education (Winston, Miller & Cooper, 1999). The SDTLA is composed of developmental tasks defined as an "interrelated set of behaviors and attitudes that the culture specifies should be exhibited at approximately the same time by a given age cohort" within the context of higher education. These developmental tasks are divided into more specific subtasks.

Emotional Autonomy. Measures the extent to which students are free from the need for continuous reassurance and approval from others, trusting their own ideas and feelings. Sample item includes "It bothers me if my friends don't share the same leisure interests as I have." Reliability for this subtask is sufficient (Cronbach's alpha = .71).

Interdependence. Students who have high scores on this subtask recognize the reciprocal nature of the relationship between the individual and his/her community. They fulfill their citizenship responsibilities and are actively involved in activities that promote improvement of the institution and the larger community. Concern for others is reflected in their awareness of how their behavior affects the community. Sample item is "As a citizen, I have the responsibility to keep myself well-informed about current issues." Reliability is sufficient (Cronbach's alpha = .76).

Instrumental Autonomy. Students who have completed this subtask demonstrate an ability to structure their lives and to manipulate their environment in ways that allow them to satisfy daily needs and meet responsibilities without extensive direction or support from others. They are able to manage their time and other aspects of their lives in ways that allow them to meet daily demands, satisfy personal needs, and fulfill community and family responsibilities; to establish and follow through on realistic plans; to solve most problems as they arise. They are

independent, goal-directed, resourceful, and self-sufficient. Sample item is "I have arranged my living quarters in a way that makes it easy for me to study, sleep, and relax." Reported reliability for this subtask is low (Cronbach's alpha = .62), however previous studies have shown sufficient reliability (Winston, Miller & Cooper, 1999).

Peer Relationships. Students who score highly in this subtask describe their relationships with peers as shifting toward greater trust, independence, frankness, and individuality and as feeling less need to conform to the standards of friends or to conceal shortcomings or disagreements. Students can distinguish between friends and acquaintances and have both kinds of relationships. Friendships survive the development of differences in activities, beliefs, and value, and reflect an appreciation for individual differences. Relationships with peers are open and honest; disagreements are resolved or simply accepted. Sample item includes "I find it difficult to accept some of the ways my close friends have changed over the past year." Reported reliability for this subtask is low (Cronbach's alpha = .65), however previous studies have shown sufficient reliability (Winston, Miller & Cooper, 1999).

Tolerance. Respect for and acceptance of those of different backgrounds, beliefs, cultures, races, lifestyles and appearances describe students who have high achievement on this subtask. They respond to people as individuals; do no employ racial, sexual, or cultural stereotypes; have an openness to new or unconventional ideas and beliefs; and are appreciative of individual differences. Students high in tolerance do not shy away from or reject contact with those with different ethnic, racial or cultural heritage or with different religious beliefs, political views, or lifestyles. A sample item is "Within the past 12 months, I have undertaken an activity intended to improve my understanding of culturally/racially different people." Reported reliability is sufficient (Cronbach's alpha = .74).

Career Readiness. An awareness of the world of work, an accurate understanding of one's abilities and limitations, a knowledge of requirements for various occupations, and an understanding of the emotional and educational demands of different kinds of jobs are evidence of accomplishment of this subtask. Students who have achieved this subtask have synthesized knowledge about themselves and the world of work into a rational order which enables them to make a commitment to a chosen career field and formulate specific vocational plans. They have taken the initial steps necessary to prepare themselves through both educational and practical experiences for eventual employment, and have taken steps necessary for beginning a job search or enrollment in graduate school. A sample item is "Thinking about employment after college… A. I do not know how to find out about the prospects for employment in a variety of fields, B. I have a vague idea about how to find out about future employment prospects in a variety of fields, C. I know one source that could provide information about future employment prospects in a variety of fields, D. I know several sources that can provide information about future employment prospects in a variety of fields." Reliability for this subtask scale is sufficient (Cronbach's alpha = .84).

Satisfaction. For the purpose of this study, a scale was created to measure student satisfaction. Answers were rated on a five-point scale from 'very dissatisfied' to 'very satisfied,' or 'strongly disagree' to 'strongly agree.' Items include: "Level of satisfaction with the academic program at your college;" "Level of satisfaction with your teachers in college;" "Level of satisfaction with

student advisement;" "Level of satisfaction with co-curricular activities/opportunities in college;" "Overall satisfaction with your college;" "In most ways, my college experience has been ideal;" and "The conditions of my college were excellent." Reliability was sufficient (Cronbach's alpha=.88).

Results

We used analysis of variance to analyze results with group (leadership position, participation only, and no participation) as the independent variable. To analyze Hypothesis 1a and b concerning engagement levels between groups, five analyses of variance were conducted (see table 1). In the first one, we tested college engagement: class-related initiative (M=3.38, M=3.34, M=3.21, $F_{(2, 165)}$=.47, ns). In the second one we test college engagement: respond to requirements (M=3.84, M=3.98, M= 3.81, $F_{(2, 165)}$=.47, ns). In the third we tested college engagement: extracurricular activities (M=3.60, M=3.08, M=2.61, $F_{(2, 165)}$=6.73, p=.002). In the fourth ANOVA, we tested college engagement: sense of belonging (M=3.69, M=3.83, M=3.59, $F_{(2, 165)}$=.59, ns). In the fifth ANOVA, we tested college engagement: valuing (M=3.88, M=3.93, M=3.65, $F_{(2, 165)}$=1.06, ns).

To further test hypothesis 1a, that leaders will report higher levels of college engagement than both participants and non-participants, two independent samples t-tests were conducted to compare college engagement: extracurricular activities in leaders and participants, leaders and non-participants. There was a significant difference in college engagement: extracurricular activities for leaders (M=3.60, SD=1.25) and non-participants (M=2.61, SD=1.68) $t(132)$=3.48, $p<.01$. There was no significant difference in college engagement: extracurricular activities for leaders and participants providing partial support for hypothesis 1a. Students leaders report higher levels of college engagement in extracurricular activities than non-participants. To further test hypothesis 1b, that participants will report higher college engagement levels than non-participants, one independent samples t-test was conducted. No support was found for hypothesis 1b that participants will report higher levels of engagement than non-participants.

Table 1
One-Way ANOVA of College Engagement by Participatory Category

Variable	Source	Df	SS	MS	F	p
Class-related Initiative	Between groups	2	.72	.36	.47	.62
	Within groups	165	125.10	.76		
	Total	167	125.82			
Respond to Requirements	Between groups	2	.62	.31	.47	.63
	Within groups	165	109.59	.66		
	Total	167	110.21			
Extracurricular Activities	Between groups	2	24.73	12.36	6.73	.002
	Within groups	165	303.16	1.84		
	Total	167	327.89			
Sense of Belonging	Between groups	2	.92	.46	.594	.55

	Within groups	165	128.19	.78		
	Total	167	129.11			
Valuing	Between groups	2	1.40	.70	1.06	.35
	Within groups	165	109.22	.66		
	Total	167	110.62			

N=168

To test hypotheses 2a and 2b concerning psycho-social development between groups, five one-way analyses of variance were conducted. The first tested emotional autonomy between the leaders, participants and non-participants (M=3.72, M= 3.46, M=3.31 F(2, 165) = 6.86, p<.01), the second tested interdependence (M=3.21, M=2.74, M=2.50, F(2, 165) = 18.21, p<.001), the third tested instrumental autonomy (M=3.29, M=3.15, M=2.92, F(2,165) = 3.66, p<.05), the fourth tested peer relationships (M=3.76, M=3.52, M=3.44, F(2, 165) = 3.80, p<.05) and the fifth tested tolerance (M=3.91, M=3.66, M=3.69, F(2,165) = 3.35, p<.05).

To further test hypothesis 2a, that leaders will report higher psycho-social development than both participants and non-participants, two independent samples t-tests were conducted for each aspect of psycho-social development (see table 2). There was significant difference in emotional autonomy between leaders (M=3.72, SD=.58) and participants ((M=3.47, SD=.59), t(138)=2.21, p<.05). There was significant difference between leaders ((M=3.72, SD=.58) and non-participants (M=, SD=), t(132)=3.39, p<.01). There was significant difference in interdependence between leaders (M=3.21, SD=.63) and participants ((M=2.74, SD=.65), t(138)=3.71, p<.001). There was also significant difference between leaders (M=3.21, SD=.63) and non-participants ((M=2.50, SD=.51), t(132)=5.48, p<.001). There was significant difference in instrumental autonomy between leaders (M=3.29, SD=.68) and non-participants ((M=2.92, SD=.61), t(132)=2.64, p=.009), but no difference between leaders and participants. There was significant difference in peer relationships between leaders (M=3.76, SD=.58) and non-participants ((M=3.44, SD=.65), t(132)=2.50, p=.014), but no difference between leaders and participants. There was significant difference in tolerance between leaders (M=3.91, SD=.56) and participants ((M=3.66, SD=.57), t(138)=2.25, p=.03). There was no significant difference between leaders and non-participants. The above partially supports hypothesis 2a. In some developmental subtasks (emotional autonomy, interdependence and tolerance, but not instrumental autonomy and peer relationships) leaders report higher development than participants. In most developmental subtasks (all but tolerance) leaders report higher development than non-participants.

To further test hypothesis 2b, that participants will report higher psycho-social development than non-participants, one t-test was conducted for each developmental subtask to compare participants to non-participants. We found no support for hypothesis 2b, participants do not report higher psycho-social development than non-participants.

Table 2
One-Way ANOVA of Psycho-Social Development by Participatory Category

	Source	df	SS	MS	F	p
Emotional Autonomy	Between groups	2	4.51	2.26	6.86	.001
	Within groups	165	54.31	.33		
	Total	167	58.82			
Interdependence	Between groups	2	13.90	6.95	18.21	.000
	Within groups	165	62.98	.38		
	Total	167	76.88			
Instrumental Autonomy	Between groups	2	3.20	1.60	3.66	.03
	Within groups	165	72.23	.44		
	Total	167	75.44			
Peer Relationships	Between groups	2	2.99	1.50	3.80	.02
	Within groups	165	64.89	.39		
	Total	167	67.88			
Tolerance	Between groups	2	2.15	1.07	3.35	.04
	Within groups	165	52.99	.32		
	Total	167	55.13			

N=168

To test hypotheses 3a and 3b concerning career readiness between groups, a one-way analysis of variance was conducted (see table 3). There was a significant difference between groups (M=2.89, M=2.53, M=2.28, F(2, 165) = 7.98, p=.000). To further test hypothesis 3a, that leaders will report higher career readiness than participants and non-participants, two independent samples t-tests were conducted. There was significant difference in career readiness between leaders (M=2.89, SD=.81) and participants ((M=2.53, SD=.74), t(138)=2.30, p=.023). There was also significant difference between leaders (M=2.89, SD=.81) and non-participants ((M=2.28, SD=.72), t(132)=3.65, p=.000). This provides support for hypothesis 3a that leaders report higher career readiness levels than both participants and non-participants. To further test hypothesis 3b, that participants will report higher career readiness than non-participants, one independent samples t-test was conducted. We found no support for hypothesis 3b; participants do not report higher career readiness than non-participants.

Table 3
One-Way ANOVA of Career Readiness by Participatory Category

Source	df	SS	MS	F	p
Between groups	2	9.76	4.88	7.98	.000
Within groups	165	100.88	.611		
Total	167	110.64			

N=168

To test hypotheses 4a and 4b, concerning student satisfaction with institution, a one-way analysis of variance was conducted (see table 4) to compare satisfaction with college between the three groups of students (M=3.62, M=3.59, M=3.44, F(2, 165)=.63, ns). We found no support for hypothesis 4a that leaders would report higher levels of satisfaction with institution than participants and non-participants. We also found no support for hypothesis 4b that participants would report higher satisfaction with institution than non-participants.

Table 4
One-Way ANOVA of College Satisfaction by Participatory Category

Source	*df*	SS	MS	F	p
Between groups	2	.66	.33	.63	.53
Within groups	165	86.31	.52		
Total	167	86.97			

N=168

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to begin answering questions about the differences in development between students who hold leadership positions in college, those who participate in clubs, organizations and sports team in college (but do not hold a leadership position), and those who do not participate in extra-curricular activities. Not surprisingly, the leaders in this study indicated that they were more engaged in extra-curricular activities than those who do not participate (although there were no differences between leaders and participants or participants and non-participants). Although previous research (Kuh, Cruce, Shoup, Kinzie & Gonyea, 2008) demonstrated that students who participated in activities (either as a leader or a participant) were more engaged, participants in our sample were equally engaged in the classroom, their sense of belonging at the institution and the value placed on college life. Differences may be due in part to the differences in operational definitions between our study and the NSSE items used by Kuh, et al., 2008).

In support of previous studies (Kuh, 1995; Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005; Kuh, 2009, Carini, Kuh & Klein, 2006; Trowler, 2010), we found evidence that students in leadership positions report higher psycho-social development than students who participate in co- and extra-curricular activities as well as students who do not participate. Evidence suggests that for students to develop from participation in co-curricular and extra-curricular experiences, they need to be challenged by novel, uncertain, or meaningful activities (DeRue & Wellman, 2009). According to Sessa (2017), students in leadership positions are more likely to encounter these challenges than students who participate but do not hold leadership positions, which should result in higher development. Support for this idea was found in the lack of significant difference in psycho-social development between participants and non-participants. However, we did not measure student's participation level within their co- and extra-curricular activity which could have affected our results.

This study provides evidence that student leaders feel more ready for a career after graduation than participants and non-participants. This in line with research suggesting that those who actively participate in novel/uncertain experiences, meaningful activities and challenging events

will be more psycho-socially developed (Kuh, Cruce, Shoup, Kinzie & Gonyea, 2008; DeRue & Wellman, 2009; Trowler, 2010; Sessa, 2017), which has been linked to higher career readiness (Sung, Turner & Kaewchina, 2011). Students in leadership positions during college are more likely to encounter these novel/uncertain experiences, meaningful activities and challenging events than participants and non-participants. Again, level of participation may affect these results, such that students who are actively participating within the co- or extra-curricular activity but not in a leadership position, may face many of the same experiences that leaders do by coordinating projects/events and working with teams.

Contrary to previous research (Kuh, 2005) demonstrating that students who participate in extra-curricular activities (either as a leader or participant) report high satisfaction with their institution than those who do not participate, participants in our sample reported no difference in satisfaction levels. These findings suggest that students who are not interested in participating in extra-curricular activities are just as satisfied with the portion of the university they are involved in (i.e. the classroom and academic portions of the institution) as the students who participate in various activities.

Limitations

One limitation of this study is its cross-sectional nature. At this time, we cannot determine whether students develop more by holding leadership positions or whether students who are already more developed than their peers are the ones to hold the leadership positions. In order to determine causation, a longitudinal study is needed. Future studies may also want to differentiate levels of engagement among those who participate in co- and extra-curricular activities. Those students who are more actively involved in their club, organization or sport may follow trends similar to those in leadership positions, while those who are passively involved may follow trends similar to non-participants.

The variables presented in this paper are a sample of the variables tested in this study. Other variables such as goal orientation, self-regulation, flourishing and leadership intentionality were measured and found to be significant between participatory groups; which will be discussed during the presentation.

Practical Applications

This study demonstrates the importance of holding a leadership position during college. There are few differences in learning and development between those who participate and those who don't. The largest gains in desired outcomes is realized through holding a leadership position. Unfortunately, there are only so many leadership positions available in a college or university, which calls for creativity from the faculty and staff to determine how to ensure more students take on a leadership role. Possible solutions include encouraging students to lead a project in their club or organization, taking on leadership roles outside of the university, etc.

References

Aldemir, C. & Gulcan, Y. (2004). Student Satisfaction in Higher Education: a Turkish Case. *Journal of the Programme on Institutional Management in Higher Education.* 16(2). pp. 109-122.

Bandura, A. (1989). Human agency in social cognitive theory. *American psychologist*, *44*(9), 1175.

Bandura, A. (2006). Toward a psychology of human agency. *Perspectives on psychological science*, *1*(2), 164-180.

Carini, R.M., Kuh, G.D. and Klein, S.P. (2006) Student Engagement and Student Learning: Testing the Linkages. Research in Higher Education. 47 (1), pp. 1–24.
Complete College America. (2011). *Time is the Enemy.* Retrieved from http://www.completecollege.org/docs/Time_Is_the_Enemy_Summary.pdf on February 28, 2017.

Cress, C.M., Astin, H.S., Zimmerman, B., Oster, K. and Burkhardt, J.C. (2001) Developmental Outcomes of College Students' Involvement in Leadership Activities. Journal of College Student Development. 42 (1), pp. 15–29.

DeRue, D. S., & Wellman, N. (2009). Developing Leaders via Experience: The Role of Developmental Challenge, Learning Orientation, and Feedback Availability. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *94*(4), 859-875. DOI: 10.1037/a0015317.

Douglas, J., McClelland, R., & Davies, J. (2008). The development of a conceptual model of student satisfaction with their experience in higher education. *Quality Assurance in Education.* 16(1). pp. 19-35.

Goodman, K.M. (2001). The Impact of Out of Classroom Experiences on College Student Development. (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). University of Iowa, Iowa City, IA.

Hamner, W.C. & Organ, D.W. (1978). Organizational Behavior: An Applied Psychological Approach. Business Publications: Texas.

Kahu, E.R. (2013) Framing student engagement in higher education. *Studies in Higher Education.* (38)5, pp. 758-773, DOI: 10.1080/03075079.2011.598505

Krause, K. and Coates, H. (2008) Students' Engagement in First-Year University. Assessment and Evaluation in Higher Education. 33 (5), pp. 493–505

Kuh, G.D. (1995) The Other Curriculum: Out-of-class Experiences Associated with Student Learning and Personal Development. Journal of Higher Education. 66 (2), pp. 123–155.

Kuh, G.D. (2005) Putting Student Engagement Results to Use: Lessons from the Field. Assessment Update. 17 (1), pp. 12–13.

Kuh, G.D. (2009) What Student Affairs Professionals Need to Know about Student Engagement. Journal of College Student Development. 50 (6), pp. 683–706

Kuh, G.D., Cruce, T.M., Shoup, R., Kinzie, J. and Gonyea, R.M. (2008) Unmasking the Effects of Student Engagement on First-Year College Grades and Persistence. Journal of Higher Education. 79 (5), pp. 540–563.

Leithwood, K. & Jantzi, D. (2000). The effects of transformational leadership on organizational conditions and student engagement with school. Journal of Educational Administration, 38(2), 112-129.

Markwell, D. (2007) The Challenge of Student Engagement. Keynote address at the Teaching and Learning Forum. University of Western Australia, 30–31 January.

NACE. (2015). Career Readiness Competencies: Employer survey results. Retrieved from http://www.naceweb.org/knowledge/career-readiness-employer-survey-results.aspx on February 28, 2017.

NACE. (2015). Job outlook 2016: Attributes employers want to see on new college graduates' resumes. *Job Outlook 2016.* Retrieved from http://www.naceweb.org/s11182015/employers-look-for-in-new-hires.aspx?terms=what%20employers%20want on February 28, 2017.

Pascarella, E.T. and Terenzini, P.T. (2005) How College Affects Students: A Third Decade of Research (Vol. 2). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Sung, Y., Turner, S.L., & Kaewchina, M. (2011). Career Development Skills, Outcomes and Hope Among College Students. *Journal of Career Development.* 40(2), pp. 127-145. DOI: 10.1177/0894845311431939

Tellefsen, R. 30 Things you need to know about Dorm Life. *Collegebound Networks.* Retrieved from http://www.collegebound.net/content/article/30-things-you-need-to-know-about-dorm-life/19715/ on February 28, 2017.

Trowler, V. (2010). *Student engagement literature review.* The Higher Education Review. Retrieved from https://www.heacademy.ac.uk/system/files/studentengagementliteraturereview_1.pdf on February 28, 2017.

Winston, R., Miller, T., & Cooper, D. (1999). Preliminary technical manual for the Student Development Task and Lifestyle Assessment. Athens, GA: Student Development Associates.

The Motivation and Intent towards Leadership and Entrepreneurship of Undergraduate Students Enrolled in Leadership Majors or Minors

Allison L. Dunn, Summer F. Odom, & Brad Borges
Texas A&M University

Abstract

This study examined the motivation and intent towards leadership and entrepreneurship of students enrolled in academic leadership majors or minors. The Entrepreneurship Professional Leadership (ELP) Career Aspiration Survey was completed by undergraduate students (N = 143) enrolled in leadership courses at a large land-grant university. The enrolled students had supportive views of both motivation and intent to lead, with a more supportive view of their intent to lead, but had a more neutral stance on their motivation and intent for entrepreneurship. Overall, scores were higher for motivation and intent to lead than for entrepreneurship. While some students in leadership majors have a desire towards entrepreneurship, it seems most are more interested in leadership roles and intend to participate in leadership in other capacities after graduation.

Introduction

Career preparation through education and training is a core purpose of college. Historically, college students aspired to a specific job and selected the associated major to provide the needed specialized education and training. However, as the economy has shifted to a post-industrial information focus, "the entire workplace ecosystem has become more fluid, requiring individuals to move beyond the limitations of the traditional, single-track career mindset" (Chan, et al., 2012, p. 84), to a multi-track mindset full of options and possibilities. Similarly, higher education institutions are also focused on developing the next generation of society's leaders (Rosch, Collier, & Thompson, 2015); yet, as the problems of our post-industrial world become more complex, preparing leaders who can solve these problems in innovative ways becomes more important. Consequently, higher education institutions continue to invest significant resources to provide opportunities for students to develop their leadership competency and capacity (Astin & Astin, 2000; Haber, 2012; Riggio, Ciulla, & Sorenson, 2003; Shertzer et al., 2005).

The general applicability of the knowledge, skills, and abilities taught within a leadership major expands a student's options for employment and/or additional education after graduation; i.e. there is no traditional career path for leadership majors. This lack of specialization fits well in today's more fluid workplace (Chan, et al., 2012) where employees assume managerial and/or entrepreneurial duties along with their professional roles (Cho, Harrist, Steele, & Murn, 2015).

Even though college students typically are at the beginning of their leadership development journey, many college students are at a developmental stage where they, "may form key motives, values, and aspects of identity that could shape their future actions and behaviors as leaders" (Waldman, Galvin, & Walumbwa, 2012, p. 158). Thus, college students engaged in formal leadership education activities are an ideal population to study when it comes to leadership or entrepreneurial career aspirations.

While the growth of collegiate leadership programs has been documented, the focus of much of the research has been on knowledge acquisition rather than an individual's development as a leader (Keating, Rosch, & Burgoon, 2014), or the path they choose to reach that development (Rosch, Collier, & Thompson, 2015). In efforts to fill this gap, researchers have begun to focus on the key personal antecedents needed for effective leader development to occur. Through this research, antecedent variables such as motivation to lead, leader self-efficacy, developmental capacity, learning focus, and cognitive ability have been noted as influencing if leader development occurs, and the depth of the development (Avolio & Hannah, 2008; Chan & Drasgow, 2001; Murphy & Johnson, 2011; Priest & Middleton, 2016).

Since leader development is an entirely individual endeavor influenced by a variety of variables including, but not limited to one's personality, individual capacities, and life experiences, there is no single way or path to become an effective leader. However, developing as a leader is a self-reinforcing process. Murphy and Johnson (2011) stated that as one exerts more effort towards leader development, the better leader one becomes; the better leader one becomes, the more likely others are to expect them to lead; and the more people expect someone to lead, the more likely that person is to step up and take a leadership role. Subsequently, early or previous leadership experiences lay a foundation upon which future leader and leadership development is built (Murphy & Johnson, 2011).

This study is a response to the call for additional research in the area of the role of the individual learner as noted in Priority I of the Association of Leadership Educator's *National Leadership Education Research Agenda* (Andenoro et al., 2013). To better understand the impact of leadership education as a developmental experience, it is vital for leadership educators to better understand how the role of individual differences impacts the individual learner and leadership education (Andenoro et al., 2013, p. 5).

Literature Review

While the years a student spends in college are traditionally a significant time of growth and development, the experience of college, in and of itself, does not have the same impact on every student. Thus, a student's racial identity, gender, previous familial collegiate experience, and choice of curricular and co-curricular activities are all significant predictors of participation in collegiate leadership programming (Stephens & Rosch, 2015). As expected, researchers have found that students who choose to participate in formal leadership development and education programs have greater changes in leadership understanding, ability and skills, and commitment towards being a leader than students who did not participate in a formal leadership program (Cress, Astin, Zimmerman-Oster, & Burkhardt, 2001).

The focus and objective of most leadership education programs is preparing students for future leadership endeavors, since the typical student enrolled in these programs does not currently serve in a professional or formal leadership capacity (Riggio, Ciulla, & Sorenson, 2003). By encouraging engagement in formal and informal interactions, leadership educators can cultivate an environment conducive to students' cognitive development towards leadership (Thompson, 2013). Yet, if institutions of higher education are to develop the next generation of leaders,

"teaching not only leadership theory but also strategies for development may help college students gain the intrapersonal skills necessary to plan, regulate, and evaluate their own growth as leaders over time" (Reichard & Walker, 2016, p. 21). Or in other words, leadership educators must generate developmental experiences where leaders can be created (Sternberg, 2011). Thus, as Cho, Harrist, Steele, and Murn (2015) stated, "educators must do more than simply teach quality leadership-related course content: they must also address student enthusiasm, passion, and desire to lead—in other words, student motivation for leadership" (p. 32), if they are to stimulate student leadership development.

Addressing one's passion for leadership is the initial step in cultivating leadership developmental readiness. Passion for leadership is needed, as effective leaders must have the drive and stamina to see their actions or vision to completion. As a result, Bronk and McLean (2016) found that those with a solid understanding of their passion for leadership were more likely to actively search for and engage in occasions to develop their own leadership capacity and competencies; such as finding a mentor, taking on challenging work assignments, or engaging in formal leadership developmental opportunities. For this reason, those who demonstrate a passion for leadership are better positioned to develop as leaders (Bronk & McLean, 2016). Nevertheless, just as one's leadership competency can change depending on the situation, developmental readiness is also context-specific (Avolio, & Hannah, 2009; Cho, et al., 2015; Hannah, Avolio, Luthans, & Harms, 2008; Murphy & Johnson, 2011; Waldman, Galvin, & Walumbwa, 2012).

In addition to purpose and passion, researchers also found that one's personal leadership identity, or how that individual saw themselves as a leader, influenced their developmental readiness and their motivation to lead. As Keating, Rosch, and Burgoon (2014) reported, if a student did not think of or see themselves as a leader, they were not ready for developmental activities. Therefore, if leader development is to occur, the person must see themselves, at least to some extent, as a leader; i.e. being a leader must be part of their self-concept (Day & Harrison, 2007). Likewise, when being a leader (having a strong leader identity) is important to someone, they are more likely to seek out and engage in leadership development opportunities – to develop their leadership capacity and self-efficacy (Day & Harrison, 2007; Priest & Middleton, 2016).

But simply being self-aware of one's leadership identity is not enough to proclaim one is developmentally ready or is motivated to become a leader. Rather, one must have a clear and accurate self-concept of their leadership identity (Avolio & Hannah, 2009; Hannah & Avolio, 2010), as leadership self-efficacy is the most powerful predictor of leadership behavior (Rosch, Collier, & Thompson, 2015). Understanding leadership self-efficacy is central to the discussion of motivation and intent towards leadership or entrepreneurship, because most motivation is cognitively generated, in that one must think something through in their mind first before they become motivated to achieve it (Bandura, 1993). Motivation then influences the goals one sets for themselves, how much effort they expend, how long they persevere in the face of difficulties, and their resilience to failures (Bandura, 1993). Moreover, motivation to lead may influence a student's desire to engage in formal leadership education or development, as well as the intensity of effort and persistence shown throughout the leadership course or training (Cho et al., 2015).

The challenge is that students enter college with varying degrees of leadership self-efficacy and motivation to lead. Students who entered with low leadership self-efficacy showed no significant

gains in leadership skill development while in college (Keating, Rosch, & Burgoon, 2014). Yet, research has shown that academic leadership coursework can have an impact on a student's motivation to lead (Waldman, Galvin, & Walumbwa, 2012). Consequently, there is a need to vary leadership interventions to meet the needs of students from various backgrounds, leadership self-efficacy levels, and motivation levels before focusing on specific skill development, in order to provide more individualized and relevant instruction, as one-size-fits-all programs only result in gains for some in the class/program/etc. (Keating, Rosch, & Burgoon, 2014). Additionally, leadership interventions "grounded in strong leadership theory" and requiring a longer time-span to complete, are more likely to be successful (Reichard & Walker, 2016, p. 15).

Gender also significantly impacts the development of one's leader identity and leadership self-efficacy, especially in societies where gender expectations in regards to leadership differ for men and women (Murphy & Johnson, 2011). Furthermore, an increasing body of research shows that gender influences one's perception of leadership (Fischer, Overland, & Adams, 2010; Haber, 2012; Ho & Odom, 2015; Wielkiewicz, Fischer, Stelzner, Overland, & Sinner, 2012). But, research also shows that gender does not make a difference in reported increases in leadership skills and capabilities (Cress, Astin, Zimmerman-Oster, & Burkhardt, 2001), nor does it serve as a prediction of who will step-up to lead (Rosch, Collier, & Thompson, 2015). Yet, as gender does influence self-efficacy and self-efficacy influences entrepreneurial career choices (McCormick, Tanguam, & Lopez-Forment, 2002), it can be inferred that women will not choose entrepreneurial activities as often as men, or those with higher self-efficacy scores.

But, a student's motivation and intent to lead may serve as a predictor of who will accept the responsibility of leadership in the future. Murphy and Johnson (2011) found that without a desire to lead, without the motivation to assume the role of leader, it was unlikely that anyone in the organization would agree to shoulder the responsibility to lead the organization. However, being motivated to lead is not enough. Cho, et al. (2015) found that motivation also impacts a student's resolution, or intent, to take on leadership responsibilities. Thus, understanding a student's motivation and intent to lead may be an important part of understanding how to develop those who will accept leadership roles in the future (Waldman, Galvin, & Walumbwa, 2012).

Conceptual Framework

When discussing future employment, it is important to note the distinction between selecting a vocation or occupation and the shaping of a career over a life time. Typically, selecting a vocation or occupation occurs as one selects their college major or chooses a vocational training program, whereas careers unfold as a combination of opportunities, abilities, personal aspirations, and experiences over time (Chan, et al., 2012). Also, the shift to a knowledge-based economy enables individuals to view their careers in more boundaryless ways, i.e. careers can move within and between the traditional work-role domains of leadership/management, professional, and entrepreneurial (Chan, Uy, Chernyshenko, Ho, & Sam, 2015).

As one purpose of higher education is the development of knowledge and skills that lead to specific professions or vocations, clear frameworks for understanding vocational interest exist. Yet, "there is no well-accepted framework for representing the subjective space in which careers unfold over time" (Chan, et al., 2012, p. 74); there is no framework to guide an individual's

movement through this new boundaryless environment. Subsequently, Chan, et al. (2012) proposed a framework where leadership, professionalism, and entrepreneurship are no longer mutually exclusive work types or categorizations, but rather represent the three independent dimensions upon which any career can be plotted in a three-dimensional model. Thus, this model exposes the complexities of the current work environment and sees "individuals as having motivations and capacities across multiple career/work-role domains (e.g. I want to be a professional-leader or entrepreneurial professional or entrepreneurial leader) rather than limiting them to one particular career track" (Chan, et al., 2015, p. 162).

One way to determine if an individual has a single-track or multi-track career mindset is to measure their motivation for and intent towards entrepreneurship (Chan, et al., 2012). As entrepreneurs are found in every discipline and there is not a single career path towards entrepreneurship, it would be expected that those with the more fluid multi-track mindset would be inclined to have higher entrepreneurship scores. Thus, utilizing this framework enables researchers to categorize students' career aspirations, or career mindsets, towards leadership and entrepreneurship regardless of specific academic major or program.

Purpose and Objectives

The goal of this study was to describe the motivation and intent towards leadership and entrepreneurship of students enrolled in academic leadership majors or minors. Various aspects of motivation and intent towards leadership and entrepreneurship are incorporated into all course offerings within the leadership degree programs. Table 1 illustrates the courses selected to participate in this study and the leadership concepts taught within these classes with potential to influence a student's motivation or intent towards leadership or entrepreneurship.

Table 1
Leadership Courses at [University] linked to Motivation and Intent towards Leadership and Entrepreneurship

Course Number	Title	Leadership Concepts
200 level	Introduction to the Department Intro to Leadership	Leadership Career Paths Relational Leadership Model Leadership Education vs. Leadership Development
300 level	Personal Leadership Leadership of Volunteers	Personal Vision/ Life Purpose Practices of Exemplary Leaders Non-profit Leadership
400 level	Senior Seminar	Professional Development and Synthesis of Degree Program

As research on the career aspirations of college students enrolled in an academic leadership courses is still emerging, this study provided an opportunity to add to the body of knowledge. By focusing on college students actively enrolled in academic leadership courses, this study

examined students who have an identified interest in the study of leadership as well as the development of their individual leadership competency and capacity. Specifically, this study addressed the following objectives:

1. Describe the motivation and intent to lead of undergraduate students enrolled in academic one of two leadership majors or minor.
2. Describe the motivation and intent towards entrepreneurship of undergraduate students enrolled in academic one of two leadership majors or minor.

Methodology

Population and Sample

The approach of this slice-in-time study was survey research, as the purpose of the study was to describe the motivation and intent towards leadership and entrepreneurship of a large group of people (Fraenkel, Wallen, & Huyn, 2012). The population for this study was undergraduate students currently enrolled in leadership courses at a large land-grant institution in the southern United States during the fall 2016 semester. Five core courses and one elective course in leadership with a total enrollment of 411 students were selected to participate in this study. After excluding the students who were concurrently enrolled in courses selected for the sample, the accessible population for this study was 343 students (N=343). The final sample size of 143 students (n=143), represents a response rate of 42%. The survey was administered by researchers other than the course instructors to control for social desirability bias (Nederhof, 1985). Participation in the study was voluntary and anonymous.

Measures and Variables

The instrument used was an electronic version of the Entrepreneurship Professional Leadership (ELP) Career Aspiration Survey (Chan et al., 2012), with twelve additional demographic questions added. The EPL Career Aspiration Survey is a 57-item instrument used to examine motivation, intent, and self-efficacy along three scales: leadership, professional status, and entrepreneurship. As the sample population was undergraduate students who were interested in leadership enough to enroll in formal leadership courses, focusing the study on the leadership and entrepreneurial scales seemed most relevant and contributed to ease of data analysis.

The survey section dedicated to motivation consisted of 18 items, 9 each for leadership and entrepreneurial endeavors, and the survey section dedicated to intent consisted of 7 items, 4 and 3 questions for entrepreneurship and leadership, respectively. All of these items were measured on a five-point summated scale: *1(Strongly Disagree), 2(Disagree), 3(Neither Disagree nor Agree), 4(Agree), and 5(Strongly Agree).* Construct validity has been established for the instrument, with internal reliability of motivation to lead, 0.72, intent to lead, 0.74, motivation towards entrepreneurship, 0.82, and intent towards entrepreneurship, 0.78 (Chan et al., 2012).

Research has shown the usefulness of the EPL instrument to gauge Singaporean college students' motivation and intent towards leadership, professional status, and entrepreneurship regardless of major. However, this instrument has not been administered to undergraduate

college of agriculture students in the United States who are formally studying leadership. The twelve demographic questions were included for data analysis purposes. Incorporated in the demographic questions were those asking gender, number of leadership courses completed, and academic leadership program affiliation, i.e. agricultural [leadership major], [leadership major], or [leadership minor].

Data Analysis

To address objective 1, descriptive statistics were utilized to detail the motivation and intent towards leadership of undergraduate students enrolled in an academic leadership course. Descriptive statistics reveal characteristics of distinctive factors of groups who may be dissimilar (Agresti & Finlay, 2009). The descriptive data included percentages, frequencies, mean scores, and standard deviations. Table 2 lists descriptive statistics for each of the 9 questions tied to the motivation to lead scale, ordered from highest to lowest question mean score. A majority of students indicated support, for 8 of the 9 questions on this scale. The residual question had a majority of students indicate lack of support, with 43% of students scoring just below neutrality. The mean question score for the 8 questions to which students responded favorably ranged from 3.45 to 4.19, out of a 5-point scale.

The three questions connected to intent to lead are detailed in Table 3, and are ordered as Table 2. Over 70 percent of all students responded in support of, either agree or strongly agree, to every question on this scale. The mean question score for these 3 questions ranged from 3.83 to 4.23. Overall, students who are enrolled in leadership courses have supportive views of both motivation and intent to lead, with a more supportive view of their intent to lead, as the grand mean score was higher for intent to lead than motivation to lead, 3.75 and 4.01, respectively.

Table 4 details descriptive statistics for both the motivation and intent to lead scales based on the personal characteristics of gender and progression through an agricultural leadership program. The range for the motivation to lead scale was 21 to 45, with an overall mean score of 33.77, which is only slightly less than the supportive threshold of 36. The range for the intent to lead scale was 7 to 15, with an overall mean score of 12.00 - equal to the supportive threshold.

While research shows that gender influences a student's leadership self-efficacy (Murphy & Johnson, 2011), gender does not serve as a prediction of who will choose to shoulder the responsibility of leadership (Rosch, Collier, & Thompson, 2015). As Table 4 shows, the sample was fairly evenly split between male and female participants in this study, with female students constituting the majority at 55.2 percent (n=79), and male students at 43.4 percent (n=62). The mean score for female students was slightly less than for male students for both motivation and intent to lead, 33.57 to 34.10 (motivation to lead) and 11.76 to 12.31 (intent to lead).

For purposes of this study, progression through an academic leadership program was divided into two categories: 1 to 2 courses taken, and 3+ courses taken. This variable replaced year in college, as it is common for students at [institution] to enroll in leadership courses later in their collegiate career. Additionally, it is common for students new to either the leadership major or minor to take the first two core courses simultaneously. A majority of students reported being relatively new to leadership courses as 78 students (54.5%) had only completed 1 or 2 leadership

courses, including the one in which they were currently enrolled at the time of the study. These students had a lower motivation to lead mean score than the students who have completed more leadership courses, 33.57 to 34.10, respectively. Yet, the students who have completed 3+ leadership courses have a lower intent to lead mean score than those who have only completed 1 or 2 leadership courses, 11.74 to 12.22, correspondingly.

Table 2
Descriptive Statistics for Motivation to Lead (N = 143)

Item	Responses % (*f*)						
	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	*M*	*SD*
If I am nominated to be in charge of a project or a group, I feel it is an honor and privilege to accept such a role.	35.0 (50)	52.4 (75)	8.4 (12)	2.8 (4)	0.7 (1)	4.19	0.76
I feel that I have a duty to lead others if I am asked.	26.6 (38)	65.7 (94)	4.9 (7)	2.1 (3)	0.0 (0)	4.18	0.61
I have always enjoyed leading others and have assumed leadership roles whenever I could.	34.3 (49)	46.2 (66)	14.7 (21)	4.2 (6)	0.0 (0)	4.11	0.81
I agree to lead whenever asked or nominated by the other group members.	25.2 (36)	59.4 (85)	9.8 (14)	4.9 (7)	0.0 (0)	4.06	0.74
I am only interested in leading a group if there are clear advantages for me.*	20.3 (29)	57.3 (82)	14.0 (20)	6.3 (9)	1.4 (2)	3.89	0.85
I am definitely more of a follower by nature, so I am happy to pass leadership responsibilities to others.*	19.6 (28)	49.0 (70)	19.6 (28)	9.1 (13)	2.1 (3)	3.75	0.95
I am the kind of person who likes influencing and managing people more than doing anything else.	14.7 (21)	39.9 (57)	30.8 (44)	13.3 (19)	0.7 (1)	3.55	0.93
If I agree to lead a group, I would never expect any advantages or special benefits.	11.2 (16)	42.0 (60)	28.7 (41)	15.4 (22)	2.1 (3)	3.45	0.96
I don't expect to get any privileges if I agree to	4.9 (7)	17.5 (25)	21.7 (31)	42.7 (61)	12.6 (18)	2.59	1.07

lead or be responsible
for a project.

Note: Grand Mean = 3.75, Overall SD = 0.14
    *Indicates a question that was reverse coded

Table 3
Descriptive Statistics for Intent to Lead (N=143)

	Responses % (*f*)						
Item	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	M	SD
I plan to become a leader or manager in the near future.	39.2 (56)	45.5 (65)	12.6 (18)	2.1 (3)	0.0 (0)	4.23	0.75
I do not see myself as a leader or manager in charge of others in my future working life.*	28.7 (41)	52.4 (75)	9.1 (13)	4.9 (7)	4.2 (6)	3.97	0.98
My main career goal is to rise up the ranks as a leader or manager in charge of others in an organization.	25.2 (36)	45.5 (65)	16.1 (23)	9.8 (14)	2.1 (3)	3.83	0.99

Note: Grand Mean = 4.01, Overall SD = 0.14
    *Indicates a question that was reverse coded

Table 4
Descriptive Statistics for Motivation and Intent to Lead by Characteristic (N = 143)

Characteristic	*n*	Motivation to Lead		Intent to Lead	
		M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
Gender					
Male	62	34.10	3.77	12.31	1.93
Female	79	33.57	3.34	11.76	2.08
ALED Courses					
1-2 Courses	78	33.56	3.44	12.22	2.02
3 + Courses	65	34.03	3.64	11.74	2.05

The four questions connected to intent towards entrepreneurship scale are detailed in Table 5, and are ordered similarly to Table 3. Only one of the four questions had a majority of students with a slightly positive opinion, (68.31% either agree or neutral). The majority of students responded with a less favorable opinion for the three remaining questions. The mean question score for these three questions ranged from 2.65 to 2.96. Overall, students who are enrolled in a leadership course have a slightly more positive view of their motivation towards entrepreneurship than their intent towards entrepreneurship, as the grand mean score was higher for motivation than intent, 3.06 and 2.83, in turn.

To address objective 2, the 9 questions tied to motivation towards entrepreneurship are detailed in Table 6; and the table is ordered similarly to Table 2. A majority of students did not agree with any of the statements tied to this scale as indicated by the fact that the item with the highest mean had a mean score of 3.49 (SD=0.97). However, a majority of students did not disagree with a statement either, as indicated by the fact that the item with the lowest mean had a mean score of 2.56 (SD=1.03). The mean question score for the 5 questions to which students responded favorably ranged from 3.12 to 3.49, out of a 5-point scale.

Table 5
Descriptive Statistics for Intent towards Entrepreneurship (N = 142)

Item	Responses % (f)						
	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	*M*	*SD*
I will start my business in the next 10 years.	11.97 (17)	23.24 (33)	33.80 (48)	17.61 (25)	13.38 (19)	3.03	1.20
I am definitely going to be an entrepreneur after my studies and am prepared to do anything to achieve that goal.	15.49 (22)	16.20 (23)	26.06 (37)	33.10 (47)	9.15 (13)	2.96	1.22
I have a viable business idea and intend to start my own business soon after graduation.	14.08 (20)	12.68 (18)	15.49 (22)	42.25 (60)	15.49 (22)	2.68	1.22
I will start my business in the next 5 years.	12.68 (18)	7.04 (10)	32.39 (46)	28.17 (40)	19.72 (28)	2.65	1.24

Note: Grand Mean = 2.83, Overall SD = 0.02

Table 7 details descriptive statistics for both the motivation and intent towards entrepreneurship scales based on the personal characteristics of gender and progression through a leadership program. The range for the motivation towards entrepreneurship scale was 11 to 45, with an

overall average score of 27.54, which is only slightly more than the neutral threshold of 27. The range for the intent towards entrepreneurship scale was less, 4 to 20, with an overall average score of 11.31, which is slightly below the neutral threshold of 12.0. Students who identified as male had a higher mean score for both motivation and intent towards entrepreneurship than students who identified as female, 28.55 to 26.82 and 11.73 to 11.06, respectively. However, students who had more experience in leadership courses had a higher mean score for both motivation and intent towards entrepreneurship (27.66 and 11.52) than those who were relatively new to leadership courses (27.43 and 11.13).

Table 6
Descriptive Statistics for Motivation towards Entrepreneurship (N = 142)

| Item | Responses % (*f*) | | | | | | |
	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	M	SD
The rewards and satisfactions of starting and running a business far outweigh the risks and sacrifices needed.	14.08 (20)	39.44 (56)	28.87 (41)	16.20 (23)	1.41 (2)	3.49	0.97
I like thinking of ways to create new products and services for the market.	15.49 (22)	40.14 (57)	17.61 (25)	23.94 (34)	2.82 (4)	3.42	1.10
I see working for myself as the best way to escape the rigidity and routines of organizations.	12.68 (18)	28.87 (41)	27.46 (39)	27.46 (39)	2.82 (4)	3.21	1.07
I am the kind of person who constantly has ideas about making money.	16.20 (23)	28.17 (40)	21.83 (31)	28.17 (40)	5.63 (8)	3.21	1.18
This country needs more entrepreneurs and I feel obligated to "give it a go."	8.45 (12)	28.17 (40)	35.92 (51)	21.83 (31)	5.63 (8)	3.12	1.03
Ever since I was a kid, I have dreamed about opening my own business.	11.97 (17)	21.83 (31)	22.54 (32)	30.99 (44)	12.68 (18)	2.89	1.23
I feel I ought to live up to my parents' expectations to work	9.15 (13)	19.01 (27)	34.51 (49)	25.35 (36)	11.97 (17)	2.88	1.13

in an entrepreneurial business environment.							
I have a strong sense of duty to take over a family-related business.	10.56 (15)	19.01 (27)	25.35 (36)	28.17 (40)	16.90 (24)	2.78	1.24
The easiest and fastest way to make lots of money is to start my own business.	4.23 (6)	14.08 (20)	28.17 (40)	40.14 (57)	13.38 (19)	2.56	1.03

Note: Grand Mean = 3.06, Overall SD = 0.09

Table 7
Descriptive Statistics for Motivation and Intent towards Entrepreneurship by Characteristic (N = 142)

		Motivation towards Entrepreneurship		Intent towards Entrepreneurship	
Characteristic	*n*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
Gender					
Male	62	28.55	7.35	11.73	4.34
Female	79	26.82	5.97	11.06	4.37
ALED Courses					
1-2 Courses	77	27.43	6.50	11.13	4.15
3 + Courses	65	27.66	6.85	11.52	4.64

Conclusions and Recommendations

This study examined the motivation and intent towards leadership and entrepreneurship of students enrolled in academic leadership majors or minors. Students who were enrolled in leadership courses had supportive views of both motivation and intent to lead, with a more supportive view of their intent to lead. However, students had more of a neutral stance on their motivation and intent for entrepreneurship.

Overall, scores were higher for motivation and intent to lead than for motivation and intent towards entrepreneurship. While there may be some students in leadership majors who have a desire to own their own businesses, it seems most are more interested in leadership roles and intend to participate in leadership in other capacities after graduation. As leadership educators, it is encouraging that students majoring or minoring in leadership are not only motivated to lead, but also intend to do so. Yet, this finding raises more research questions. Specifically, what are the characteristics of students who are lower in motivation and intent to lead? What interventions can and should be made in the classroom to help them become more motivated to lead and increase their intention to do so after graduation?

References

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

Astin, A. W., & Astin, H. S. (2000). *Leadership reconsidered: Engaging higher education in social change*. Battle Creek, MI: W. K. Kellogg Foundation.

Avolio, B. J., & Hannah, S. T. (2008). Developmental readiness: Accelerating leader development. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research, 60*(4), 331-347.

Avolio, B. J., & Hannah, S. T. (2009). Leader developmental readiness. *Industrial and Organizational Psychology. 2*, 284-287.

Bandura, A. (1993). Perceived self-efficacy in cognitive development and function. *Educational Psychologist, 28*(2), 117-148.

Bronk, K. C., & McLean, D. C. (2016). The role of passion and purpose in leader developmental readiness. *New Directions for Student Leadership, 2016*(149), 27-36. doi: 10.1002/yd.20159

Chan, K.-Y., & Drasgow, F. (2001). Toward a theory of individual differences and leadership: Understanding the motivation to lead. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 86*(3), 481-498.

Chan, K.-Y., Ho, M.-H. R., Chernyshenko, O. S., Bedford, O., Uy, M. A., Gomulya, D., . . . Phan, W. M. J. (2012). Entrepreneurship, professionalism, leadership: A framework and measure for understanding boudaryless careers. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 81*, 73-88. doi:10.1016/j.jvb.2012.05.001

Chan, K.-Y., Uy, M. A., Chernyshenko, O. S., Ho, M.-H. R., & Sam, Y.-L. (2015). Personality and entrepreneurial, professional, and leadership motivations. *Personality and Individual Differences, 77,* 161-166.

Cho, Y. J., Harrist, S., Steele, M., & Murn, L. T. (2015). College student motivation to lead in relation to basic psychological need satisfaction and leadership self-efficacy. *Journal of College Student Development. 56*(1), 32-44.

Cress, C. M., Astin, H. S., Zimmerman-Oster, K., & Burkhardt, J. C. (2001). Developmental outcomes of college students' involvement in leadership activities. *Journal of College Student Development. 42*(1), 15-27.

Day, D. V., & Harrison, M. M. (2007). A multilevel, identity-based approach to leadership development. *Human Resource Management Review. 17,* 360-373. doi: 10.1016.j.hrmr.2007.08.007

Fischer, D. V., Overland, M., & Adams, L. (2010). Leadership attitudes and beliefs of incoming first-year college students. *Journal of Leadership Education, 9*(1), 1–16.

Fraenkel, J. R., Wallen, N. E., & Hyun, H. H. (2012). *How to design and evaluate research in education*. 8th ed. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Haber, P. (2012). Perceptions of leadership: An examination of college students' understandings of the concept of leadership. *Journal of Leadership Education, 11*(2), 26–51.

Hannah, S. T., Avolio, B. J. (2010). Ready or not: How do we accelerate the developmental readiness of leaders? *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 31*(8), 1181-1187.

Hannah, S. T., Avolio, B. J., Luthans, F. & Harms, P. D. (2008). Leadership efficacy: Review and future directions. *The Leadership Quarterly, 19*, 669-692. doi:10.1016/j.leadqua.2008.09.007

Ho, S. P., & Odom, S. F. (2015). Mindsets of leadership education undergraduates: An approach to program assessment. *Journal of Leadership Education, 14*(1), 92-106, doi: 1012806(V14/11), R6

Keating, K., Rosch, D., & Burgoon, L. (2014). Development readiness for leadership: the Differential effects of leadership courses on creating "ready, willing, and able" learners. *Journal of Leadership Education. 13*(3), 1-16 doi: 1012806/V13/I3/R1

McCormick, M. J., Tanguma, J., & Lopez-Forment, A. S. (2002). Extending self-efficacy theory to leadership: A review and empirical test. *Journal of Leadership Education, 1*(2), *34-49.*

Murphy, S. E., & Johnson, S. K. (2011). The benefits of a long-lens approach to leader development: Understanding the seeds of leadership. *The Leadership Quarterly, 22*, 459-470.

Nederhof, A. J. (1985). Methods of coping with social desirability bias: A review. *European Journal of Social Psychology, 15,* 263-280.

Priest, K. L., & Middleton, E. (2016). Exploring leader identity and development. *New Directions for Student Leadership, 2016*(149), 37-48. doi: 10.1002/yd.20160

Reichard, R. J., & Walker, D. O. (2016). In pursuit: Mastering leadership through leader developmental readiness. *New Directions for Student Leadership, 2016*(149), 15-26. doi:10.1002/yd.20158

Riggio, R. E., Ciulla, J. B., & Sorenson, G. J. (2003). Leadership education at the undergraduate level: A liberal arts approach to leadership development. In S. E. Murphy, & R. R. Riggio (Eds.). *The future of leadership development* (pp. 223-236). Mahway, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Rosch, D. M., Collier, D., & Thompson, S. E. (2015). An exploration of students' motivation to lead: An analysis by race, gender, and student leadership behaviors. *Journal of College Student Development*. *56*(3) 286-291.

Shertzer, J., Wall, V., Frandsen, A., Guo, Y., Whalen, D. F., & Shelley II, M. C. (2005). Four dimensions of student leadership: What predicts students' attitudes toward leadership development? *The College Student Affairs Journal, 25*(1), 85-108.

Stephens, C. M., & Rosch, D. M. (2015). Building leaders: A national examination of the leadership capacity within engineering undergraduate students. *International Journal of Engineering Education, 31*(4), 986-997.

Sternberg, R. J. (2011). The purpose of college education. In S. E. Murphy & R. J. Reichard (Eds.), *Early development and leadership: Building the next generation of leaders* (pp. 293-308). New York, NY: Routledge.

Thompson, M. D. (2013). Student leadership development and orientation: Contributing resources within the liberal arts. *American Journal of Education Research*, *1*(1), 1-6.

Waldman, D. A., Galvin, B. M., & Walumbwa, F. O. (2012). The development of motivation to lead and leader role identity. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies, 20*(2), 156-168.

Wielkiewicz, R. M., Fischer, D. V., Stelzner, S. P., Overland, M., & Sinner, A. M. (2012). Leadership attitudes and beliefs of incoming first year college students: A multi-institutional study of gender differences. *Journal of Leadership Education, 11*(2), 1–25.

Eco-Leadership in Practice: A Mixed Methods Study of County 4-H Program

D. Adam Cletzer
University of Missouri

Eric. K. Kaufman
Virginia Tech

Abstract

Our understanding of leaders and the role they play in organizations and society is changing. Four broad discourses of leadership have been identified as occurring during the past 100 years: controller, therapist, messiah, and eco-leader. The most recent, eco-leader discourse, is characterized by collective decision-making, collaboration, shared leadership, and grassroots organization. This study uses an explanatory sequential mixed methods design to explore the nature of the relationship between: (a) county 4-H agents' preferred leadership discourse, (b) how 4-H associations engage in leadership, and (c) programmatic success. While no direct relationship between agents' preferred leadership discourse and programmatic success was found, qualitative results revealed several distinctions between high and low scoring programs and their approach to leadership that support ecological approach's to leadership.

Introduction

Our understanding of leaders and the role they play within organizations and society is changing. Increasingly, leadership is understood as an emergent process where leaders and followers co-create leadership through interaction (Avolio, Walumbwa, & Weber, 2009). This paradigm shift detaches the responsibly for providing leadership from individuals in formal positions of authority and distributes it throughout an organization in an effort to harness the talent, creativity, and energy of all employees and stakeholders in an organization (Western, 2008).

Western (2008, 2010, 2013) critically examined this shift in society's understanding of leadership through a meta-analysis of historical, socio-political, and economic perspectives, and identified four distinct discourses of leadership occurring in Europe and North America during the past century, which he has dubbed: (a) controller, (b) therapist, (c) messiah, and (d) the emerging eco-leader discourse (Figure 1). The most recent, eco-leader discourse is characterized by collective decision-making, collaboration, shared leadership, and grassroots organization. This discourse reflects a 21st century society's attempt to adapt in face of increasingly complex and interconnected challenges that require the resources of whole organizations (Wielkiewicz & Stelzner, 2005). The individual, positional leader does still play a key role. Rather than creating change through directives or revealing his or her singular vision to followers, positional leaders act as organizational architects, bringing together people, ideas, and organizational structures so that organizations can flourish (Allen, Stelzner, & Wielkiewicz, 1999).

However, a majority of organizational leadership development programs continue to focus on individual positional leaders who function in a top-down, hierarchical manner. Wielkiewicz (2000) argues that organizations would be more successful in adapting to environmental changes

(and thus be better, lasting programs) if they were to "draw on ecological principles to match the complexity of the environment in which organizations function" when enacting organizational leadership (pp. 108-109). This disconnect between the above-mentioned best practices and current leadership development practices is particularly evident in organizations whose very structure lends themselves to ecological forms of leadership.

One quintessential example is Cooperative Extension's county 4-H programs. 4-H represents the interconnected, nested ecosystems described by Western (2013), which, in addition to existing at the federal, state, and local levels, also consists of innumerable connections with local communities, organizations, non-profits, businesses, schools, and families — including a collective leadership structure known as the county 4-H association, which engages volunteers in leadership of the program. However, leadership development efforts are still largely invested in the individual Extension 4-H agent — a position which suffers considerable turnover and, therefore, negatively impacts programmatic success. However, it is possible that county 4-H programs adopting a more ecological approach to leadership would distribute leadership and responsibility throughout the organization to a greater degree, such that the turnover of an individual leader would be less disruptive.

Additionally, from a scholarly perspective, there have been few, if any, empirical studies linking an ecological approach to leadership with organizational success (Lowhorn, 2011; Wielkiewicz, 2000, 2002). Finally, little is known about how leaders with an eco-leader discourse preference put into practice an eco-leader approach within their organizations.

Purpose

This study explored the relationship between an ecological approach to leadership and organizational success in county 4-H programs in an effort empirically examine the efficacy of ecological approaches to leadership. An explanatory sequential mixed methods design was used, involving the collection of quantitative data first and then explaining the quantitative results with in-depth qualitative data. This study had three research questions:

1. What is the nature of the relationship between the preferred leadership discourse of Extension 4-H Agents and county 4-H programmatic success?
2. To what extent do county 4-H association volunteers perceive their leadership approach as affecting county 4-H programmatic success?
3. How do county 4-H association volunteers' perceptions of leadership help us better understand the variables associated with programmatic success?

Literature Review

It is essential to this study to understand Western's (2013) four discourses of leadership: (a) controller, (b) therapist, (c) messiah, and (d) eco-leader. Also, because it is the focus of this study, particular attention is paid to eco-leader and its attendant four elements: (a) interdependence, (b) adaptation, (c) cycling of resources, and (d) open systems and feedback loops (Wielkiewicz & Stelzner, 2005).

Discourses of Leadership

Controller Discourse. The controller discourse was the dominant discourse of the early 20th century, when our understanding of leadership was heavily influenced by the Industrial Revolution. The first scientific studies of leadership were conducted during the early decades of the 20th century, and the resulting industrial paradigm of leadership emphasized the "preeminence of leaders and the machine-like qualities of organizations" (Wielkiewicz & Stelzner, 2005, p. 236). Typified by Frederick Taylor's scientific management approach and Max Weber's Iron Cage metaphor, the controller discourse was the appropriate fit for an era of scientific rationalism and industrial revolution (Western, 2008). In this discourse, followers were relegated to worker status and reduced to "cog[s] in a machine, mirroring standardization and mechanization within the mass production of the factory" of the time (Western, 2008, p. 162). The archetypical controller leader values efficiency and productivity among his or her workers. They expect workers to respect positional authority and power, and to know their place in the hierarchy of the organization. The industrial revolution led to higher salaries and the creation of the consumer-driven economy we still enjoy (Western, 2010). However, faced with the atrocities of authoritarian regimes before and during World War II, society began to question the notion that scientific management would always yield societal progress, and scientific management slipped into decline in many contexts.

Therapist Discourse. Following World War II, the therapist discourse emerged among calls for a more democratic society and a bet on the "principle that 'happy workers are more productive workers'" (Western, 2010, p. 39). This approach made leadership more people-focused; it reflected the "wider social trends of atomization, self-concern, and the post-war individualistic expectations of being fulfilled, successful and happy" (Western, 2008, p. 163). With this in mind, the therapist leader seeks to maximize production by increasing the motivation of workers through promoting personal growth. While there is an emphasis to encourage workers to create their identity and find fulfillment through work, the underlying purpose is still to maximize productivity and shape individuals to fit desired norms (Western, 2010). The therapist discourse continues in many people-oriented sectors, such as non-profits and public administration. However, this approach fell from favor in the corporate world, as it could not be scaled up to provide economic benefits in an era of globalization and the global corporation (Western, 2008).

Messiah Discourse. During the late 1970s and early 1980s, the messiah discourse emerged "with the aim to create strong, dynamic organizational cultures under the vision and charisma of a transformational leader" (Western, 2010, p. 40). This new "covenantal leadership" style drew on the lessons of the more collectivist culture of Japan, which focused on eliciting loyalty and commitment from employees, as well as tying personal success to that of the organization. During this era, the organizational leader became a social character of influence, leading through his or her own symbolism and status (Western, 2008). Business schools, corporations, civic organizations, and churches embraced this transformational (messiah) leader who could offer vision and passionate leadership to create inspired, loyal, and committed followers. However, this discourse relied heavily on "normative control," which is "self- and peer-control through surveillance and internalization, emotionalism and cultural norms" (Western, 2008, p. 164). This often led to highly conformist, cult-like followings, such as in the case of Enron. The archetypical messiah leader uses charisma and passion to inspire devotion and loyalty from their

followers. While the messiah leadership discourse remains strong, the evangelical leaders it has created are sometimes revealed to be a facade, as they have often failed to produce the desired results. Additionally, as the world becomes increasingly complex, interconnected, and interdependent, we can no longer look to heroic individual leaders as the sole source of vision and direction (Western, 2013).

Eco-Leader Discourse. In the beginning of the 21st century we find ourselves facing numerous complex and interconnected challenges: climate change, finite fossil fuel resources, global financial crises, and terrorism — truly adaptive and wicked problems. Western (2010) posits that centralization and control are not, nor ever were, possible. The nature of leadership under the eco-leader discourse is that it redistributes leadership and power from a centralized, hierarchical structure throughout the organization in an attempt to leverage the energy and creativity of the entire system (Western, 2010). In this discourse, the role of leadership is to bring together people, ideas, and organizational structures so that organizations can develop strategies to address adaptive challenges (Allen, Stelzner, & Wielkiewicz, 1999). Leaders within this paradigm must understand that productive leadership ecosystems can be cultivated, but they cannot be created and controlled. The archetypical eco-leader thinks like an "organizational architect, connecting people and creating networks using processes and technology" (Western, 2013, p. 275). They create spaces for others to lead, recognizing that leadership is a collaborative, collective process. They have a "profound belief in ethics, collaboration, diversity and distributing leadership" (Western, 2013, p. 275). Implicit in this new approach to leadership is a greater reliance on everyday individuals to have the skills and willingness to participate in the process of leadership.

Four Factors of Ecological Forms of Leadership. Wielkiewicz and Stelzner (2010) put forward four principles for structuring organizations to nurture the creation of leadership under an ecological model: (a) interdependence; (b) open systems and feedback loops; (c) cycling of resources; and (d) adaptation. These four principles are "critical to understanding leadership and organizations" from an ecological viewpoint (Wielkiewicz & Stelzner, 2010, p. 18). First, the principle of interdependence holds that any attempt to understand or direct an organization by focusing on its positional leader is incomplete and bound to fail. Leadership must be understood in the complex context of the organization and its environment (Wielkiewicz & Stelzner, 2010). Second, Open Systems and Feedback Loops holds that no organization is a closed system. Each organization is dependent on inflows of information and other resources. Each organization is itself part of a larger, more complex open system (e.g., economic, political, social). By treating an organization as a closed system, leaders deny the inherently human enterprise that is the organization. Additionally, organizations that squelch feedback loops place the organization at risk by lessening its ability to adapt to the environment (Wielkiewicz & Stelzner, 2010). Third, Cycling of Resources maintained that like biological systems must utilize resources in the environment in an efficient and sustainable way, leadership processes within organizations must also efficiently leverage the talent and capacity of the whole system. In this way, leadership can be developed on an ongoing, long-term basis. This principle rejects the notion that positional leaders should dominate the leadership processes of an organization. Fourth, Adaption holds that like biological systems adapt through evolution, similarly, organizations must have in place structures that facilitate ongoing organizational learning in order to adapt to changing

environments. The greater the adaptive learning, the greater the ability to respond to external threats (Wielkiewicz & Stelzner, 2010).

Theoretical Framework

Eco-leadership is rooted in complexity science, which is often used to explain emergent, adaptive, and self-organizing systems (Davis, 2004). Frequently defined by the objects of study rather than the methods of investigation, complexity science has been used to explain: the fall of the Soviet Union, trends in the stock market, the emergence of life on Earth, and even the movements of flocking birds (Davis, 2004). These complex systems are all characterized by two traits. First, they are adaptive; they can alter their own structures in response to pressures both internal and external. In this way, they cannot be described in terms of physics — where laws govern action and reaction — but, rather, are better described in evolutionary terms. Second, the system is emergent; meaning, it is "composed of and arises in the co-implicated activities of individual agents" (Davis, 2004, p. 151). In this way, the phenomenon is not merely a sum of its parts, but rather the product of both its parts and their interaction with one another (Davis, 2004).

Methods and Procedures

An explanatory sequential mixed methods design was used to conduct this study. In this design, we first conducted a quantitative strand of research and then followed up with a second, qualitative strand (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). The qualitative strand offers the opportunity to investigate in greater depth and explain initial findings.

The first, quantitative strand used three instruments to collect data. The first instrument was a researcher-created index designed to evaluate performance and rank county 4-H programs based on mandatorily reported federal ES237 enrollment data, in combination with United States Census Bureau data. The index measured per capita enrollment trends for the five most common program areas during the previous four years. This strand was a census; all [state] county 4-H programs (n=67) were included in this index. Data was analyzed by converting county index scores to z scores, sorting, and assigning county 4-H programs into quartiles. Based on these results, six county 4-H programs were selected to participate in the second, qualitative strand — three of the highest scoring counties (top quartile), and three of the lowest scoring counties (bottom quartile). The second quantitative instrument was the Western Indicator of Leadership Discourse (WILD) questionnaire (Western, 2013). This 20-question instrument consists of brief statements concerning leadership and asks respondents to rank responses from number one, the answer you most agree with, to number four, the answer you least agree with. An individual's score is apportioned among the four leadership discourses (e.g., Controller = 34%, Therapist = 12%, Messiah = 50%, and Eco-Leader = 4%) such that a dominant or preferred discourse is revealed — though it is possible to be equal in all four discourses. This strand was a census; all Extension 4-H Agents in [state] with a 20% or greater FTE in 4-H were surveyed (n=82). Data was first analyzed using simple descriptive statistics (i.e., mean, standard deviation, and range). Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficient was then used to determine the strength and direction of the relationship between scores on the WILD questionnaire and the county index score (Ary et al., 2010). Cohen's (1998) classification of effect size was used. Finally, multiple linear regression modeling was used to explain the variance in the relationship between WILD

scores and county index score. The third quantitative instrument was a researcher-created demographic questionnaire distributed with the WILD to Extension 4-H Agents ($n=82$). The questionnaire collected data on Extension 4-H Agents' age, gender, race, education level, county, years as a 4-H agent, and years in current county position. Simple descriptive statistics were used to characterize Extension 4-H Agents. Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficient was then used to determine the strength and direction of the relationship between demographic variables, WILD questionnaire scores, and county index scores.

The second, qualitative strand utilized semi-structured, open-ended focus group sessions with Extension 4-H Agents and their county 4-H association volunteer members in each of the six counties selected based on county index scores (three from the highest scoring, three from the lowest scoring). Questions were guided by a researcher-developed protocol. *A priori* propositions guided the researchers to interpret quantitative results in light of supporting literature, which led to specific questions being developed. The protocol focused the conversation on encouraging participants to share in their own words their experience with leadership in their county 4-H program. It was comprised of three primary questions: (a) What factors do you feel have contributed to the success of this group?; (b) How does this group approach decision-making?; (c) How does this group ensure continued improvement? Each of these three questions had several follow-up questions that allowed the researcher to probe for better understanding and detail. During the focus group sessions, the researcher acted as facilitator and a digital audio recording device was used to capture the conversation verbatim. Following the focus groups ($n=6$), which included 33 individual participants, we completed whole-text analysis of verbatim transcripts, employing the constant comparative analytic procedures developed by Corbin and Strauss (2008). We used Atlas.ti to excerpt text and code data using a systematic approach (Ary et al., 2013). We grouped codes into preliminary categories and used the categories to identify broad themes in the data, as they related to the research questions. The results of this qualitative analysis are reported in the form of themes, which are each supported by participant quotes.

Findings

Research Question 1: What is the nature of the relationship between the preferred leadership discourse of Extension 4-H Agents and county 4-H programmatic success?

Of the 82 4-H agents surveyed, 60.9% ($n=49$) completed both the WILD questionnaire and the accompanying demographic survey. Based on the WILD questionnaire responses, responding Extension 4-H agents' most preferred leadership discourse was therapist with a score of 30.76 (SD=5.42). Eco-leader was a close second with a score of 28.73 (SD=4.75). Messiah was third with a score of 23.97 (SD=99), and a distant fourth was controller with a score of 16.52 (SD=7.18). Based on correlation and multiple linear regression analysis, there appears to be no relationship between preferred leadership discourse and the county index score, which evaluates county 4-H program success.

Research Question 2: To what extent do county 4-H association volunteers perceive their leadership approach as affecting county 4-H programmatic success?

From more than five hours of audio recordings and 125 pages of transcripts emerged six themes. Often, these themes appear to be internally conflictual, but that is to be expected with participating counties selected as extreme cases. A mixed methods analysis assessing quantitative differences between high and low scoring counties' qualitative responses is provided in research question three.

Theme 1: Associations Vary on Phenomena to which the Attribute Success or Failure. Participants identified a variety of factors affecting their county 4-H program's success or failure. Several were quick to praise the county 4-H agent: "We've had other agents who didn't take the program to the level that Rhonda has. Rhonda has made the leadership quality, since she's been here…" Others attributed success to 4-H club leaders, another positional leader within the program. "We really have strong leaders, and that's where you're going to get your strong clubs...," one participant said. There were other, external factors too, such as meeting community needs, support from local county commissioners, and parental and family involvement. One participant described the level of involvement: "It's not just parents. Whenever we have things like county events, grandparents are showing up, too."

Theme 2: Agents Play a Central Role in Decision Making. Agents were almost universally cited as providing primary direction for the association, as well as being the primary conduit for information flowing between the association and the county 4-H program, stakeholders, and other organizations. Nearly every association described a scenario in which the membership was a largely reactive body. Most associations conveyed that they believed agents appreciated and utilized their advice; they also cited a tendency to seek consensus when offering advice. They also asserted that they were largely an advisory body and final decisions were best left to the agents. One said, "We all have individual ideas and we throw them out there and then Courtney makes the final decision I would think on what to...I think she weighs everyone's opinion."

Theme 3: Associations' Connections to Community and 4-H Vary. The primary way in which participants reported being connected to the community was based on 4-H projects. For example, a 4-H shooting sports club may have a connection with a local gun club, or a 4-H dog club may have a connection to a local dog park. Groups such as Farm Bureau and Cattlemen's Associations were also cited by a wide range of participating associations. One participant described her association's connections: "We have local organizations that help support scholarships for local youth, like our Cattlemen's … some things like that that really tie into what 4-H is all about." While entity-to-entity connections were common and easy for members to recall, participants frequently had difficulty describing connections between individual members and the community. Most associations offered vague reports — "4-H is connected to *so many* groups" — and were unable to give details when pressed.

Theme 4: Associations Vary of Decision-Making Processes and Topics. Association members reiterated that their role was not a decision-making body, such as a board of directors, but rather an advisory body. What they offered advice on, however, varied. Overwhelmingly, they described weighing in on mundane procedural matters unrelated to the larger mission of the association in county 4-H programming: budget, behavioral issues, registration deadlines, awards criteria, banquet fees, scholarships, etc. One secretary described the association's role: "I just went through a year's worth of meeting minutes and there's really not a whole lot in there other

than what we've discussed as far as policies and procedures." Rarely, though, the association was employed in the vetting of programmatic concerns. One agent described using her association as a sounding board when weighing a new school programs. "So, if I come to them and say, 'I want to start a new program in the schools,' they say, 'Yeah that's a good idea,' or 'No we don't think so.'"

Theme 5: Associations Are Often Not Structured for Success. Emerging during the discussions of decision making, communication, and organizational learning was the theme that associations were incorrectly structured — not used in the way intended by 4-H. Association members are supposed to come from the community. Instead, nearly all participants cited both coming up through the program — My name is Linda…I've been involved with 4-H probably since my kids were cloverbuds" — and having other current roles within the program, such as a sub-advisory committee spokesperson. One woman typified this situation saying, "I just feel I'm [here] to give my dog report, but I enjoy being part of the discussion and giving my opinion, as well. I'm not really sure what my role is…"

Theme 6: Association Members' Opportunities for Development Not for Association Role. Participants reported having opportunities to continue to learn and grow, the most common being a one-on-one mentoring relationship with the agent. However, all participants reported that these development opportunities were in support of other roles in the county 4-H program in which they were serving, such as club leader, rather than for their role as association member. No association member reported receiving training for their association role.

Research Question 3: How do county 4-H association volunteers' perceptions of leadership help us better understand the variables associated with programmatic success?

Data from the quantitative and qualitative strands were combined in two ways to address this research question. First, the quantitative county 4-H index score was used to evaluate county 4-H programs and separate them into quartiles, with six focus groups from the highest and lowest quartiles then participating in the qualitative strand. Second, themes and categories from the qualitative strand of the study were first organized according to Wielkiewicz and Stelzner's (2005) four factors of ecological leadership. Then, themes' codes were selected based on appearance in at least two of three high or low scoring focus groups' transcripts, and organized in a mixing table to quantitatively show similarities and differences in codes between high and low scoring counties, all organized according to the four factors of ecological leadership. This mixing table is not shown because it is seven pages long. However, I will summarize the key differences and similarities through meta-analysis using the four factors of eco-leadership.

Interdependence. While there were commonalities among high and low scoring counties, they diverged on to what they attributed success. Low scoring counties only attributed success to strong volunteer club leader support for the 4-H program or the county 4-H agents — positional leaders. In contrast, while high scoring counties still paid tribute to agents and leaders, the offered six or more factors, including tight knit communities, local government support, and parental involvement.

Open Systems and Feedback Loops. Low scoring counties reported a number of practices that indicate an inwardly looking and isolated association membership (restricted systems and feedback loops). For instance, participants reported feeling as though they served on the association for the purpose of representing their 4-H club or sub advisory group, rather than carrying out the association's mission of connecting with the community. High scoring counties, in contrast, tended to have fewer members currently serving in other roles in the 4-H program and focused more on gathering advice from outside the organization.

Cycling of Resources. There was considerable overlap in responses from high and low scoring counties. Both cited that county 4-H agents provided primary direction for the association, often setting the agenda, chairing the meetings, and distributing information.

Adaptation. High scoring counties tended to cite a one-on-one mentoring relationship with the county 4-H agent as the primary means of improvement, while low scoring counties were more apt to attend trainings at the local, state, and regional levels. This may seem counterintuitive, but, remember low scoring counties tended to use their association as opportunities to gather internal constituencies — primarily 4-H club leaders — and so the opportunities reported by participants were those aimed at improving 4-H club leaders.

<div align="center">

Discussion

</div>

This research study explored the relationship between an ecological approach to leadership and organizational success in county 4-H programs in an effort empirically examine the relationship between ecological approaches to leadership and programmatic success.

Research Question 1: What is the nature of the relationship between the preferred leadership discourse of Extension 4-H Agents and county 4-H programmatic success?

Results showed that Extension 4-H Agents had a slight preference for the therapist discourse of leadership (30.76%), with eco-leader a close second (28.73%). The preference of a therapist discourse suggests that participants might subscribe to the belief "to run an organization successfully, it's the people you have to focus on, and it's the psychological and emotional that are important, not just managing people as function objects or 'human resources'" (Western, 2013, p. 188). While the close preference for eco-leadership may indicate agents may conceive of their 4-H programs as "a web of connections, networks that operate like ecosystems" (Western, 2013, p. 245). Yet, correlational and multiple linear regression analyses found no relationship between an agent's preferred leadership discourse and county index scores. As this exploratory study is the first attempt to empirically link a particular discourse of leadership with programmatic success, failure to do so could be attributed to agents trending toward a close split between eco-leader, therapist, and messiah discourses; there may not be enough variance to differentiate between effects of discourse. A larger sample size would be more discerning.

Research Question 2: To what extent do county 4-H association volunteers perceive their leadership approach as affecting county 4-H programmatic success?

Participants identified six broad themes when describing their leadership approach in county 4-H programs: (a) Associations vary on phenomena to which they attribute success or failure; (b) Agents play a central role in decisions making; (c) Associations' connections to community and 4-H vary: (d) Associations vary on decision-making processes and topics; (e) Associations are often not structured for success; and (f) Members' opportunities for development not for association role. These six themes provide insight into the leadership approach of agents and their volunteers across both high and low scoring programs.

Associations Vary On Phenomena to Which They Attribute Success or Failure. County 4-H programs varied on what factors to which they attributed success or failure. Some counties were quick to assign responsibility to leaders: "We really have strong leaders, and that's where you're going to get your strong clubs...." This is consistent with more mechanistic paradigms of leadership (i.e., controller, therapist, messiah) to focus on positional leaders as the source of success. This is generally thought to be the product of human cognitive and evolutionary biases, which cause us to perceive these leaders as directing and controlling an organization; and, consequently, we overestimate their effect on organizational events (Wielkiewicz & Stelzner, 2005). Other counties cited a greater number and variety of factors relating to their success. This is consistent with an ecological paradigm of leadership (i.e., eco-leader), which seeks to see the connections and interdependencies in complex systems (Wielkiewicz & Stelzner, 2005).

Agents Play a Central Role in Decisions Making. Agents were almost universally cited as providing primary direction for the association, as well as being the primary conduit for information flowing between the association and the county 4-H program, stakeholders, and other organizations. This may simply be due to the nature of the 4-H associations, which were created in 2011 by subsuming existing 4-H advisory committees (Diem & Cletzer, 2011). While volunteers have considerable sway in shaping the program, they may not see themselves as decision makers in the manner of a board of directors.

Associations' Connections to Community and 4-H Vary. Nearly all associations cited connections with other entities, such as Farm Bureau, as well as common interests, such as 4-H club projects. However, there is a distinction to be made between associations with organizational partnerships, like 4-H and Farm Bureau, and associations with members who represent genuine community factions: "the west side of town," "past the river," minority communities, or businesses groups. The latter represents a more robust example of an ecological organization seeking to maintain close relationships with constituency groups.

Associations Vary On Decision-Making Processes and Topics. While all associations stressed their advisory capacity in decision-making processes, they differed on topics discussed. A majority of time was spent on mundane, procedural matters. One association's secretary said, "I just went through a year's worth of meeting minutes and there's really not a whole lot in there other than what we've discussed as far as policies and procedures." Rarely, though, the association was employed in the vetting of programmatic concerns. One agent described using her association as a sounding board when weighing a new school programs. "So, if I come to them and say, 'I want to start a new program in the schools,' they say, 'Yeah that's a good idea,' or 'No we don't think so.'" While rare, this is the exact written purpose of the association, and also a best practice for an ecological organization.

Associations are often not Structured for Success. In an organization meant to connect 4-H to the community through strategic recruiting to the association, a majority of its members came instead from within the county 4-H program and currently serve in other roles within the county 4-H program, such as 4-H club leader. This is contrary to the express purpose of the association, but also contrary to the principles of ecological organizations. By promoting only from within, the organization limits new information and resources from entering the organization, and, therefore, making it less adaptable in the face of external change.

Members' Opportunities for Development Not for Association Role. While participants cited opportunity to learn and grow, those examples given were for growth in their other roles in the 4-H program, such as club leader. No association member reported receiving training for their association role. From an ecological perspective, organizations must continue to learn and adapt by either bringing in new members or educating existing members. Associations reported doing neither.

Research Question 3: How do county 4-H association volunteers' perceptions of leadership help us better understand the variables associated with programmatic success?

As this research questions sought to use quantified qualitative findings to provide distinctions between quantitatively differentiated high and low scoring counties, I focus on the two key distinctions uncovered.

Low Scoring County 4-H Associations Are More Inwardly Focused and Connected. Low scoring county 4-H programs' associations differentiated themselves, in part, by exhibiting a greater tendency to be inwardly focused and connected. The composition of low scoring counties' associations was almost entirely from within the program, such as a 4-H dog club leader representing her club on the association. Additionally, low scoring counties tended to spend time exclusively on inward focused procedural matters — scholarship deadlines, camp fees, etc. — rather than focusing outward on meeting new challenges and community needs. High scoring county programs, while also tackling procedural matters, were the only associations to cite vetting program issues, such as which programs to offer and how they may meet community needs. They also were more likely to cite their external connections in terms of actual community factions — "the west side of town," "past the river," minority communities, or businesses groups — rather than formalized, entity-to-entity connections with Farm Bureau or Cattlemen's associations.

These findings are consistent with Wielkiewicz and Stelzner's (2005) ecological leadership principle of open systems and feedback loops, which holds that an organization is dependent on inflows of information and other resources. Each organization is itself part of a larger, more complex open system (e.g., economic, political, social). Organizations that squelch feedback loops place the organization at risk by lessening its ability to adapt to the environment (Wielkiewicz & Stelzner, 2010). Low scoring associations that select members from within the 4-H program for the purpose of representing and connecting internal constituencies (e.g., dog advisory group, or individual 4-H clubs), therefore, have a more closed system with fewer feedback loops. This leaves the 4-H program with little inflows of new information, feedback on

programming, and resources from the larger community, which may contribute to increasingly less effective county 4-H programming over time as the organization fails to adapt to external changes.

High Scoring County 4-H Programs Attribute Success to A Greater Number of Factors.
High scoring counties' associations differentiated themselves on the question of to which factors do they attribute the success or failure of their county 4-H program. Where low scoring counties predominantly attributed success to only one factor, positional leaders, high scoring counties attributed success to a range of factors that did include positional leaders, such as the 4-H agent, but also six other factors, including a "tight-knit" community, parental involvement, and support from local county government.

This is consistent with Wielkiewicz and Stelzner's (2005) ecological leadership principle of interdependence, which holds that any attempt to understand or direct an organization by focusing on its positional leaders is incomplete and bound to fail. Leadership must be understood in the complex context of the organization and its environment, and success can be attributed, in part, to a group's ability to see the connectedness of social systems and the way they influence one another. Therefore, the specific factors to which high scoring counties attribute success are not important in and of themselves. Rather, it is the number and variety of factors contributing to success identified by high scoring counties that makes it illustrative of this concept. High scoring counties' association members are more apt to see the myriad factors affecting their county 4-H program, rather than fixating on individual positional leaders.

Conclusions and Recommendations

This study sought to explore the relationship between ecological approaches to leadership and programmatic success in county 4-H programs. While no direct quantitative relationship between Extension 4-H agents' preferred leadership discourse and county index score was found, several mixed methods findings support the relationship between ecological approaches to leadership and programmatic success. First, high scoring county 4-H programs tended to structure their organization to provide greater open systems and feedback loops by selecting association members external to the program with close ties to the community; they also placed greater focus on determining external trends that may impact the organization. Second, high scoring counties demonstrated a greater ability to see the interdependencies and connectedness of their communities by attributing their success to numerous and varied factors, rather than individual positional leaders.

By continuing to study ecological approaches to leadership in action, we expand our understanding of leadership from "the isolated, role-based actions of individuals to the innovative, contextual interactions that occur across an entire social system" (Lichtenstein et al., 2006, p. 2). We also "increase the relevance and accuracy of leadership theory by exploring how leadership outcomes are based on complex interactions, rather than 'independent' variables" (Lichtenstein et al., 2006, p. 2). These findings also have implications for Extension and county 4-H programs; specifically, how 4-H: (a) understands its connection to the communities served and stakeholders engaged; and (b) addresses training and support of Extension 4-H agents in

working with county 4-H associations. The study provides an in-depth empirical assessment of the leadership culture and processes of the [state] 4-H program.

In terms of future research, the basic premises of this study could be replicated in a wide variety of contexts: business, rural community, agricultural organizations, civic groups, etc. Empirical validation for various leadership approaches' effects on organization, community, or program efficacy are rare. By using the structure provided in this study (e.g., complexity science as a theoretical framework and leadership discourses as a variable of measure), replication would only then require the creation of an index of success in various complex adaptive systems under study (i.e., the context).

Finally, there should be developed a measure of actual ecological leadership practices occurring in an organization. The WILD provided a useful proxy for measuring leadership preferences. However, this does not assess the reality of leadership within the organization, as long-running institutional practices and structures may trump even the association members' individual attitudes and beliefs about leadership. This would be accomplished by reviewing the literature on leadership in mechanistic and ecological organizations, and then identifying indicators of where an organization may fall on a continuum between mechanistic and ecological in accordance with Wielkiewicz and Stelzner's (2005) four factors of ecological leadership.

References

Allen, K. E., Stelzner, S. P., & Wielkiewicz, R. M. (1999). The Ecology of Leadership: Adapting to the Challenges of a Changing World. Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies, 5(2), 62– 82. doi:10.1177/107179199900500207

Ary, D., Jacobs, L., Sorensen, C., & Walker, D. (2013). Introduction to research in education. Cengage Learning.

Avolio, B. J., Walumbwa, F. O., & Weber, T. J. (2009). Leadership: Current theories, research, and future directions. Annual Review of Psychology, 60(1), 421-449. doi: 10.1146/annurev.psych.60.110707.163621.

Cohen, J. (1998). Statistical power analysis for the behavioral sciences (2nd ed.). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Creswell, J., & Plano Clark, V. (2011). Designing and conducting mixed methods research (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.

Davis, B. (2004). Inventions of teaching: A genealogy. Routledge.

DeChurch, L. A., Hiller, N. J., Murase, T., Doty, D., & Salas, E. (2010). Leadership across levels: Levels of leaders and their levels of impact. The Leadership Quarterly (21)6, pp. 1069-1085.

Diem, K.G., & Cletzer, D.A. (2011). Florida 4-H implementation guide to maintain tax exempt status for your county 4-H program. Retrieved from University of Florida, Florida 4-H Youth Development Program website: http://florida4h.org/staff/taxexempt/.

Gronn, P. (2008). The future of distributed leadership. Journal of Educational Administration, 46(2), 141-158.

Lichtenstein, B. B., Uhl-Bien, M., Marion, R., Seers, A., Orton, J. D., & Schreiber, C. (2006). Complexity leadership theory: An interactive perspective on leading in complex adaptive systems. Complexity 11(1).

Lowhorn, G. L. (2011). A Confirmatory Factor Analysis of the Leadership Attitudes and Beliefs Scale-III. International Journal of Arts and Sciences 4(6), 284-296.

San Martín-Rodríguez, L., Beaulieu, M.-D., D'Amour, D., & Ferrada-Videla, M. (2005). The determinants of successful collaboration: A review of theoretical and empirical studies. Journal of Interprofessional Care, 19(s1), 132-147. doi: 10.1080/13561820500082677

Stentz, J. E., Plano Clark, V. L., & Matkin, G. S. (2012). Applying mixed methods to leadership research: A review of current practices. The Leadership Quarterly, 23(6), 1173–1183. doi:10.1016/j.leaqua.2012.10.001

Uhl-Bien, M., Marion, R., & McKelvey, B. (2007). Complexity Leadership Theory: Shifting leadership from the industrial age to the knowledge era. The Leadership Quarterly, 18(4), 298–318. http://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2007.04.002

Western, S. (2008). Leadership: A Critical Text. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Western, S. (2010). Eco-leadership: Toward the development of a new paradigm. In B. W. Redekop (Ed.), Leadership for environmental sustainability (pp. 36-54). New York, NY: Routledge.

Western, S. (2013). Leadership: A Critical Text. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Wielkiewicz, R. M. (2000). The Leadership Attitudes and Beliefs Scale: An instrument for evaluating college students' thinking about leadership and organizations. Journal of College Student Development, 41(3), 335–347.

Wielkiewicz, R. M. (2002). Validity of the leadership attitudes and beliefs scale: Relationships with personality, communal orientation, and social desirability. Journal of College Student Development 43(1), 108-118.

Wielkiewicz, R. M., & Stelzner, S. P. (2005). An ecological perspective on leadership theory, research, and practice. Review of General Psychology, 9(4), 326-341. doi: 10.1037/1089-2680.9.4.326

A Youth Perspective: The 4-H Teen's Leadership Identity Development Journey

Sarah A. Bush, Jeremy Elliott-Engel, Shannon Wiley, & Tonya Price, Ph.D.
Virginia Tech

Abstract

Youth leadership development is a current focus of youth-serving organizations whose aim is to help youth become productive contributors of society. 4-H is a leading organization in the effort to expose youth to leadership opportunities. Leadership development expands the capacity for individuals to perform in leadership roles. While, leadership identity reflects upon individual values, mindset, actions, and responses within that role. This study examined the leadership identity development of 4-H youth who are serving in leadership positions. Five themes emerged from the youth perspectives, they are: (1) leadership is a position; (2) leaders are exemplars; (3) leaders have characteristics; (4) leaders engage with others; and (5) leaders address the greater good. The results corroborated with different stages in the leadership identity development model.

Introduction

In recent years, youth have become recognized as community resources (Lerner, Dowling, & Anderson, 2003). The response to this has been an increased focus on positive youth development that aims to increase career-ready skills. At the core of many of these efforts is leadership development. Many of these efforts have been focused on developing "future" leaders instead of focusing on youth as "current" leaders (Mortensen et al., 2014). In order to understand how youth are able to meaningfully contribute to society, we must continue to explore the developmental journey youth take towards discovering their own leadership styles and capacity.

Northouse (2003) defines leadership as "a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal" (p. 3). In addition, most approaches today involve relationships built upon trust, collaboration, and shared goals (Allen & Cherrey, 2000; Komives, Owen, Longerbeam, Mainella, & Osteen, 2005). One of these approaches is authentic leadership which affirms that leaders must develop meaning through self-reflection on their own life stories (Shamir & Eilam, 2005). Authentic leaders have different styles, but must be true to themselves, sincere, and have strong ethical convictions (Avolio & Gardner, 2005). In order to be an authentic leader, one must understand themselves and their role as a leader.

4-H is a youth development organization that provides youth with opportunities to gain leadership capacity while also learning more about themselves. Youth who participate in 4-H leadership programs have demonstrated an increase in leadership skills (Lerner, Lerner, & Colleagues, 2013). How youth develop their leadership identity is a process, which must be further explored. We know leaders continually evolve and grow in skills and competencies throughout their lifespan (Komives et al., 2005). However, little is known about how teens progress to take on leadership positions. Therefore, this study examines why teens take on leadership positions in 4-H exploring leadership development, personal experiences, and influences that led them to attain those positions. The purpose of this qualitative study is to shed

light on the question, how do 4-H teens describe their journey to leadership? The findings contribute to Priority Three: The Psychological Development of Leaders, Followers, and Learners of the National Leadership Research Agenda (Andenoro et al., 2013). Priority Three calls for an exploration individual perspectives on leadership.

Literature Review

4-H is one of the longest running youth-centered programs in the country. Dating back to the early 1900's, 4-H continues to provide a safe and supportive environment for youth to engage in civic-minded projects (National 4-H Council, 2017). The 4-H Study of Positive Youth development is the first large-scale longitudinal study of 4-H and non-4-H youth. This study revealed that learning from project-work, leadership experiences, and adult mentoring involved in 4-H provides participants with the opportunity for positive youth development (Lerner et al., 2013). Through this comprehensive study, 4-Hers were shown to be more likely to contribute to their communities, to have increased academic achievement, and to make healthier choices (Lerner et al., 2013). 4-H has demonstrated the capacity to increase positive youth development and decrease the likelihood for youth to participate in risky behaviors.

Seminal works on youth development focused on the differences between youth and adults, but later transitioned to focus on youth as problems, which needed to be managed (Roth & Brooks-Gunn, 2003). Today most youth-focused research emphases viewing youth from a developmental process, which incorporates how youth engage in their environment and gain life skills (Larson, 2006). Positive youth development (PYD) concentrates on the development of the "Five Cs": Competence, Confidence, Caring, Character, and Connection (Lerner, Almerigi, Theokas, & Lerner, 2005). Adolescents who develop the "Five Cs" are said to be thriving (Lerner et al., 2005).

Thriving adolescents are able to positively contribute to civil society (Lerner et al., 2003). Contribution is referred to as the sixth "C". The sixth "C" includes contributions to self, family, community, and civil society (Lerner et al., 2003). When youth are intrinsically motivated to work towards the greater good, they are able to positively impact society and serve as current rather than future leaders (Larson, 2000). Community youth development (CYD), similarly to positive youth development, concentrates on the development of youth strengths and competencies. CYD posits ownership of self-development by providing opportunities for youth to develop their competencies within their communities (Perkins, Borden, Keith, Hoppe-Rooney, & Villarruel, 2003). It is key that youth are engaged as partners in these environments and are able to make connections to self, others, and the larger community through their experiences.

With PYD and CYD as guiding frameworks, the 4-H Citizenship Framework was developed to incorporate civic engagement, service, civic education, and personal development as key focus areas (4-H National Headquarters, 2011). Programs that utilize the 4-H Citizenship Framework encourage the development of leadership skills through activities "where youth use their voices, work, ideas or behavior for the greater good" (4-H National Headquarters, 2011, p. 2). By engaging youth in community orientated programming that provides opportunities for learning and youth-adult partnerships, youth are able to develop the skills needed to be a leader in the 21st century (Larson, 2006; Zarrett & Lerner, 2008). Including self-regulation and self-efficacy,

which enable the adolescent to feel confident in their abilities (Gestsdóttir & Lerner, 2007). This developmental process is ongoing and cannot be accomplished through a single program or relationship. Rather youth develop their leadership identity overtime and in stages. (Komives et al., 2005).

Leadership Identity Development Model

Komives et al. (2005) conducted the first research on the development of one's leadership identity. The participants in this grounded theory study included college students heavily involved in organizations. Results indicated that leadership identity is a shifting phenomenon. Komives et al. (2005) confirmed many theorists' observations that leadership identity progresses from a hierarchical, leader-centric view to a collaborative, relational process. Additionally, the youth leadership identity development process is primarily psychosocial in nature, but also includes key events. Some emergent aspects of the leadership identity development process included: development of interdependence, establishing healthy interpersonal relationships, increasing confidence, and development of a sense of self (Komives et al., 2005).

Based on the findings, Komives, Longerbeam, Owen, Mainella, and Osteen (2006) developed the Leadership Identity Development (LID) model. The model has six stages, including: Awareness, Exploration/Engagement, Leader Identified, Leadership Differentiated, Generativity, and Integration/Synthesis. The stages of the model progress from a hierarchical and leader-centric view to a more relational and group-focused view. It is important to acknowledge that these stages are not discrete and can be achieved and revisited in a helix fashion (Komives et al., 2006). Awareness (Stage 1) is when individuals are conscious that leaders exist, but leaders remain abstract and afar. For example, the President is a leader (Komives et al., 2009). Exploration/Engagement (Stage 2) is defined by immersion. Immersion takes place primarily within a group, such as a sports team or youth organization club (Komives et al., 2006). During Stage 2, individuals are learning to engage with others (Komives et al., 2009). Leader Identified (Stage 3) is when positional leaders and their actions are considered to be the pinnacle of leadership. These leaders are people one knows, but that are in an elected or delegated position of power. There is a recognition of the hierarchical nature of relationships of the group (Komives et al., 2009).

Within Leadership Differentiated (Stage 4), youth begin to view leadership as a shared group process, which is not necessarily positional (Komives et al., 2009). Within Stage 4, one begins to understand how individuals take on different roles and leadership can shift amongst group members. Youth reach Generativity (Stage 5) when leadership is viewed as commitment and passion towards the development of capacity in other individuals and the advancement of community (Komives et al., 2009). The final stage, Integration/Synthesis (Stage 6) is reached when leaders acknowledge the personal capacity needed to lead in diverse contexts (Komives et al., 2009). Within Stage 6, individuals can fully recognize leadership as being separate from positional roles. For each of the six stages Komives et al. (2009) ascribed characteristics of developmental influences which included: stage descriptions, broadening view of leadership, developing self, group influences, developmental influences, and changing view of self with others (Komives et al., 2006).

Methodology

This qualitative study aimed to provide insight on why teens within 4-H take on leadership roles. This research was guided by the following research question: how do 4-H teens describe their journey to leadership? To answer this question, we examined the leadership development, personal experiences, and influences that have led and impacted one's actions, values, mindset, and responses as a leader. 4-H teen members with leadership roles in [Southern State] served as the target population. The purposive sample included 4-H teen leaders who served in state-wide leadership positions and were attending a weekend long leadership symposium in November of 2016.

Twenty-one (n=21) youth participated. In order to prevent biasing responses about identity, no other demographics were collected from the sample (Fernandez et al., 2016). The participants that attended the 4-H symposium ranged from 14 to 19 years of age. The participants represented a variety of counties throughout the state. Additionally, we can describe from observations of the group that the population was predominantly white and evenly split between male and female.

Data consisted of a one-time open-ended survey (Patton, 2005). The ten question open-ended questions were developed utilizing the Leadership Identity Development (LID) model (Komives et al., 2006). The questions were as follows:
1. Describe what a leader is to you.
2. Why do you view yourself as a leader?
3. How do you describe yourself as a leader?
4. How would others describe you as a team member?
5. What experiences have you had that led you to pursue a leadership role in 4-H?
6. Who do you look for as an example of leadership? Why?
7. Who has influenced or supported you to become a leader?
8. As a leader, when things are going right I…
9. As a leader, when things are challenging I…
10. What more do I need to know to be a successful leader?

Respondents were asked to answer each question with a minimum of 2-3 sentences. The survey was administered the first night of the leadership symposium. Participants had all attended school and traveled from different parts of the state to the meeting in the evening. Additionally, prior to completing the survey the 4-Hers participated in an hour and a half training on problem-solving styles.

The open-ended survey responses were transcribed verbatim. The responses were organized by participant and question, 1-21 for each question, respectively. Three researchers independently open-coded all of the transcripts (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). Each researcher provided analytical codes and highlighted key words for each participant response to each question. This latent coding process involved multiple coders and points for inter-coder reliability checks (Bernard & Ryan, 2010). After inter-coder reliability was examined, the team created meaning by grouping like codes and highlighting key words together. The team compiled all codes collectively on a board and developed discussed verbally their reasoning behind each code. The researchers then

generated themes from the like codes through collaborative discussion. This iterative process was completed upon the development of themes and sub-themes (Creswell, 1998).

Researcher reflexivity is a limiting factor and could have provided biases within the results. All members of the research team previously or currently work directly with 4-H youth. The researchers utilized intercoder checking to attempt to reduce individual bias, as each researchers previous experiences are varied and different in nature (Bernard & Ryan, 2010). A further limitation is in the purposive sampling method. We chose a group due to their leadership positions in the organization. This nonprobability sample limits the bounds of inferences were able to make to a wider population (Bernard & Ryan, 2010). The study did include 4-H teen leaders from two different leadership roles, but because the study consisted of only one data point, triangulation is a limitation (Flick, 2004). We also did not collect any identifying information from participants and did not utilize member-checking.

Results

Komives et al. (2006) LID model was used as a framework for the development of questions aimed at the exploration of 4-H teen leadership identity development. The questions we asked were designed to illuminate perspectives on the stages of identity from the perspective of the 4-H teen leaders. Out of the data, five themes emerged: (1) leadership is a position; (2) leaders are exemplars; (3) leaders have characteristics; (4) leaders engage with others; and (5) leaders address the greater good.

Leadership is a Position

Participants frequently spoke about leadership as a role or position. Some youth felt they came into their position as a leader from previous experiences and skill development, while others attributed their leadership position to a previous position. One youth pursued a leadership role in 4-H because, "I thought it would be good for me due to experiences in scouting." Another participant stated, "I have gained public speaking skills and become involved in volunteering." These participants were not specifically stating a role, but acknowledging previous experiences that affirmed capabilities to become a leader.

Experience in a different leadership role was often mentioned as the reason they viewed themselves as leaders. A youth remarked "my club had many openings for small positions and it led me to where I am now." One youth mentioned, that participating in "National 4-H Dairy conference and my various roles in clubs" led to a desire to pursue a leadership position. Yet another mentioned, "I have been a jr. coach in my local 4-H clubs. I have also been the president of local 4-H clubs that made me want to pursue a leadership role." Therefore, several participants internalized the need for a "leadership role" to be a leader. This was explicitly stated by two youth when asked about why they view themselves as leaders. One stated, "I have been in what I see as leadership roles." The other shared, "Because of my success in leadership positions and my traits help me to be a leader." Both of these participants saw their leadership roles/positions as the reason for being considered a leader.

Leaders are Exemplars

Youth identified leaders as ideological figures or individuals who had contributed to their personal growth. One youth stated, "A leaders is a role model for others." Whether it was a politician, historical figure, an Extension agent, a family member, or a peer, these individuals were viewed as role models and were worth emulating. In short, the youth characterized leaders as having exemplary characteristics. One youth said, "Over the years of being a 4-H member, I have seen the examples that others before me have set. Therefore, I want to work hard to be an exceptional example to others in my club and state." Another youth reiterated this point writing "I have experienced phenomenal leadership and 4-H and want to be a leader to others in the same way I was led." For these teens, the interaction sparked motivation to replicate at a similar level of excellence. Many youth described leaders that that they look to as an example, including historical figures like the youth who wrote "Socrates" and explained:

> I look [to] him because of the way he functioned as a great teacher and one who instigated deep though[t] in his life. He never had to ask people to listen to him they just did because he was so wise and engaging.

Many other youths mentioned past presidential figures. Because of the data collections closeness to the Presidential election, others still had commentary about presidential candidates. Whether they were for or against a candidate, their comments exalted the skills and abilities of these exemplar leaders.

Leaders have Characteristics

Participants consistently described leaders as having personality and action traits rather than physical attributes. When asked to describe what a leader is, the characteristics that consistently appeared in the responses included: responsible, flexible, selfless, authentic, idea generators, communicator, dedicated, and inspirational. These words used to describe a leader recognized capability or the capacity to demonstrate a skill. Leadership to serve others and solution generator emerged as subthemes within these characteristics.

Leadership to serve others. Youth participants viewed it as the duty of the leader to aid and give of themselves to others. Words like understanding, encouraging, motivating and inspirational were used to describe leaders. One participant stated, "I view myself as a leader because I help others through troubles. I'm dedicated to what I do, and I want whats best for the group. I believe I guide my peers to success." Here a youth described a leader as someone who is able to work in partnership with others, to be understanding, and encouraging, but also devoted to their success. Another youth defined a leader as "someone who directs or inspires someone or a group of people. Someone who is willing to help an individual or group to reach a goal or accomplish something." This participant starts with a positional leadership perspective with "someone who directs" but, explains the rest of the role of a leader in terms of service to others and the group.

Solution generator. When things go wrong or issues arise, there was consistent recognition that a leader analyzes and reassess the situation to contribute to finding a path forward. Participants identified a leader as an individual who could solve problems. One youth explained their role as

a leader, "When all goes wrong, people look to one or a group of people to take a stand. They look for someone to get them out of the nasty situation. In almost all cases, I am that leader." This participant was affirming a characteristic they personally possess, which is why others view them as a leader.

Several participants when asked about their views on themselves as leaders got more specific describing themselves as being able to generate new ideas as a way to solve problems. One youth said, "I view myself as a leader because … I bring up new ideas." Another youth specified that a leader is "Someone that brings the ideas and opinions of the group together to form the best solutions to a problem." This participant views the leader as the one who is able to facilitate problem-solving processes rather than generate the solution. Whereas this participant felt, "I am confident in my ideas. I like people and enjoy leading them/helping achieve success." This youth did not clearly delineate if their ideas were the path to a solution, but created a connection between their ideas and achieving success. Additionally, this participant referred to "them" as needed to be led for success is achieved through the leader's actions rather than as a collective process.

Leaders Engage with Others

This theme illustrates the different perspectives and ways youth described how they believe leaders do and should interact with others. Youth commonly described leaders as kind, fun, supportive, and mediators. These roles were how youth viewed the role leaders have in relationship-building and guiding. Individual-focused, team-oriented, and emphasis on developing positive relationships emerged as the three sub-themes, highlighting the different ways leaders were recognized as interacting with individuals.

Individual-focused. The participants mentioned how it is the leader's responsibility to be welcoming to others and inclusive. Leaders who are individual-focused insure that each of their followers and members within their organization benefit from their leadership. At an individual-level, all members should feel included and profit from membership. Participants commented on the importance of supporting others' success. For instance, one participant stated, "A leader is someone who helps others reach a goal." Another said, "A leader is someone who helps take you places in your life." Both of these statements demonstrate how youth attributed a leader's influence on an individual's success. Another participant shared this perspective from their own position as a leader, "I view myself as a leader because I am interested in helping people perform tasks and accomplish goals." These quotes demonstrated a perspective on leadership as the impact that one individual could have on one or more individuals. Other responses extended more specifically to encouraging the inclusion and acceptance of diversity.

When speaking about inclusion the participants did not just comment on including participants and ideas within the group, but also on including others with different backgrounds. When describing how others would see them as leader, one teen said, "includes everyone… tries to get along with all…" Another said, "A kind person that attempts to include the ideas of all to find a solution …[for] all." Both youth emphasized group unity, kindness, and inclusion of ideas. Another when asked to describe a leader said "compassionate, inclusive." Going beyond diverse thought, one youth spoke of previous experiences sharing, "working with diverse beliefs,

cultures, and personalities, allow[s] me to be understanding of others." This experience provided motivation for the participant to pursue a leadership role. Overall, the subtheme of individual-focused emerged from an emphasis on making sure individuals felt included and were supported by leaders.

Team-oriented. Participants placed an emphasis on needing to produce results as a team. The team should be at the forefront above individuals, and it is the role of the leader to have a positive relationship with their team. However, youth were not consistent on their views of the role of a leader on a team. Sometimes participants acknowledged being a part of the group. At other times, they felt the leader's role was positional and to ensure the team performed.

When leaders felt they were a part of the group, they focused on working to promote the team's performance without individual recognition. This subtheme was illuminated well by this personal description of how a youth thinks others would describe them. "Others describe me as a team member by being there for everyone." When asked, who do you view as an example of leadership, a teen said "I look for someone who is willing to make sacrifices for the better of the group. They push the group and are dedicated." These comments represent when participants felt they were an equal member of the team. While other youth described leadership as being in charge or directing the team. One participant stated, a leader is "Someone who takes responsibility for a group of people and brings them together." Another one said, "A leader is someone who directs … someone or a group of people." Both of these individuals viewed themselves as the director of the group with responsibility for other team members.

These varying perspectives impacted how teen participants provide acknowledgement for accomplishments. One who viewed themselves as a director stated, "support/give praise to my group/team, keep my momentum to keep going strong with my project." Another posited, "praise my group for doing well." While those who saw themselves as equals within the team shared "Com[pliment] the people I am working with and analyze what else is necessary to reach … [the] goal." In both perspectives, there was an identification of positive reinforcement and a desire to be positive and supportive. However, those the individuals who viewed themselves as equal often sought for continued collaborative success.

Emphasis on developing positive relationships. Relationships matter for leaders and for the effectiveness of leadership. Within this sub-theme youth described their perspective of leaders as being relationship-focused and respectful. Participants believed that leaders have a role in preventing or mediating conflict to ensure positive relationships are developed or continued. One teens stated, "I described myself as a leader because I… can mediate parties into solution." Another said, "They should be fun to be around and easy-going." Both participants were acknowledging how leaders work to develop positive relationships. Within this subtheme, participants commented on the skills leaders needed to build relationships. One remarked, "A leader is someone who is kind… and takes the time to listen to others." Another thought, "I feel like a leader is someone who shows respect to everyone." These teens valued the ability and actions of the leader. Another youth appreciated the respect and expanded beyond the relationship to the context as well, emphasizing "[a leader] respects the views others possess. A leader is one who is able to represent themselves or a group in a positive situation."

Leaders Address the Greater Good

"A leader … think[s] about the majority when making a decision." Teen participants described the importance of leaders working towards a collective and greater good. The responses indicated that good leaders help to make tangible improvements to ensure that everyone benefits, even those outside of the group. A youth stated, "I am always willing to compromise and take others opinions into consideration and put my personal opinions aside." In this view, leaders put the needs of others ahead of their own. Another felt, "I view myself as a leader because I help others through troubles. I'm dedicated to what I do, and I want what's best for the group. I believe I guide my peers to success." These views on the ability of the leader to be fair and make decisions for the overall betterment of the group were prominent through the data.

Leaders were described as working to make a positive impact. One participant stated, a leader "wants to better community." Another said, "I describe myself as a leader who helps people go in the right direction that suits them as an individual." This posits collective efforts as being beneficial to a specific individual, if the individual's efforts would aid in group advancement. When asked to describe a leader, one youth believed, a leader was "A kind person that attempts to include the ideas of all to find a solution that will appeal and meet the needs of all." Another when asked who they look to as an example of leadership noted, "I look to [recent political candidate], due to the fact that he brought new ideology to politics for a system that benefits every [every with three underlines] American." There was congruence between their own personal ideals and the characteristics that they looked to as examples. They expect leaders to work toward improvements for society as a whole.

Discussion

The Leadership Identity Development (LID) Model frames this study from the perspective of why teens take on leadership positions (Komives et al., 2006). The findings indicated perspectives related to the developmental phases 2-4 of the LID model. Exploration/Engagement (Stage 2), Leader Identified (Stage 3), and Leadership Differentiated (Stage 4) were all very apparent throughout the emergent themes. However, very few if any responses indicated Generativity or Integration/Synthesis (Stage 6). Awareness (Stage 1) was alluded to as participants understood that there are leaders out there, but these participants were already in leadership positions and were able to see and view themselves as potential leaders.

Exploration/Engagement (Stage 2) was alluded to by some responses indicated through the themes leadership is a position, leaders have characteristics, and leaders engage with others. Within leadership as a position, youth were able to communicate the experiences they had, which reaffirmed their capabilities to be a leader. Sometimes these experiences were previous leadership roles, but often they were group membership. Within Stage 3, individuals identify the skills they need to be a successful leader and prepare for leadership (Komives et al., 2009). The characteristics identified and explanations of how leaders need to engage with others exemplified an understanding of the skills needed. Further, when youth talked about their want to pursue a leadership position, it often came from a want to be involved and give back.

Komives et al. (2009) views role models, a desire to do more, and motivation as key transition points between Stage 2 and Leader Identified (Stage 3). Within the theme leaders are exemplars, participants explored how role models and iconic examples motivated youth to take on leadership roles of their own. Recall that some youth expressed their want or desire to give back and contribute the same that previous leaders had to younger members. These statements provided evidence that some participants had already developmentally transitioned to Stage 3. Within Leader Identified (Stage 3), leadership is still viewed from a positional and hierarchical stand point (Komives et al., 2009). Within this stage, leaders are responsible for carrying out tasks. Many of the participants' responses indicated high positional views of leadership and saw the leader as the "doer".

At times, skills were ascribed to leaders as innate abilities or traits. These perspectives were expressed whether it was in reference to their own leadership or to others. These views of leadership emerged through the themes leadership as a position, leaders have characteristics, and leaders engage with others. Within leadership is a position, youth provided a hierarchical view through their views of leadership being ascribed to someone through a role. According to the subtheme depicting solution-generator, youth who viewed leaders as having the solution or being responsible for idea generation. The followers should look to the leader for insight (Komives et al., 2005). When discussing how leaders engage with others, youth took varying perspectives on the leader's role within a group. Some felt the leader was the head of the group and others saw the leader's role as more collaborative.

The collaborative perspective ventures into Stage 4: Leadership Differentiated (Komives et al., 2006). According to the LID model, Stage 4 attributes view of leadership as a process, recognizing that leadership can emerge from anyone in the group and not specifically the leader (Komives et al., 2006). Within this stage, individuals begin to express confidence in facilitating a sense of community throughout the group.

The theme "leaders have characteristics" included leaders as those who serve others. Recognizing service as a role of leadership was posited in the value of servant leadership was recognized in the LID Model in Stage 4- Leadership Differentiated during immersion (Komives et al., 2006). In this stage, the commitment of the leader is towards group process, the role of leadership is less important than the act of service (Komives et al., 2006). This idea also appeared in the perspectives on leaders addressing the greater good. A youth illustrated this perspective, when they shared "I look for someone who is willing to make sacrifices for the better of the group. They push the group and are dedicated." The youth described leadership in a peer-role, situated within the group. This leader had a role of moving the group towards high performance and success.

As leaders are engaging with others, they understand that leading is not only viewed from an individual perspective, but also from a team-oriented perspective of which leaders should interact with other members of the group rather than continuously in a facilitation role. Leading becomes a co-facilitated role which validates characteristics of Stage 4- Leadership Differentiated suggesting that leaders are emerging and immersing, joining with others in shared tasks (Komives et al., 2005). In addition, leaders are aware that communal, participatory effort is

required for success. Leaders tend to be inclusive of others, assisting team members with their overall objective of skill development and goal attainment.

From a team-oriented perspective, leaders identify themselves as 'selfless' individuals indicating that they are perceived by others as taking responsibility or being helpful and readily accessible when needed by others. This also contributes to Stage 4 of the LID model suggesting leaders learn to trust and value the perspectives of others, they become more open and comfortable leading in their prospective role (Komives et al., 2005). The team is valued and the identified leader continues to understand the connectedness to others.

Emphasizing on developing positive relationships and exemplifying the greater good, leaders are influential and guide with respect for others. The leader essentially becomes an identified 'role model', suggesting the importance of value among the actions and role of the leader (Komives et al., 2005). Not only is it suggested that leaders show respect for themselves, but for the team, organization, or community of which they are leading. These efforts showcase for the greater societal good. Leaders thrive to enhance the communities, which they represent. They seek to be inclusive of individual ideas and opinions and they seek to guide a formulated plan in the direction of which the greater good is accomplished. Leaders collectively visualize the bigger picture in an effort to conquer the greater good (Komives et al., 2005). More pivotal, individuals view leadership as an actual position relating that current role to previous experiences. Leaders exemplify respect and responsibility which validates the LID model perspective of making meaning and possessing positive influential characteristics focusing on vision and value.

Conclusions/Recommendation

This exploratory study had several notable limitations, including a lack of triangulation and only one data point, which was the open-ended survey. Additionally, solution generation and problem-solving was heavily discussed. We can reasonably assume that this was impacted by the session on problem-solving, which the participants took part in prior to completing the study. Finally, the researchers must acknowledge their ties to 4-H and prior beliefs on the value of the organization in leadership development. Although these limitations existed, the study still provided exploratory insight on the views of 4-H teen leaders' experiences, views on leadership, and self-reflections on themselves as leaders. Overall, this study provided significant insight into the views of 4-H teen leaders who hold state-wide leadership positions.

Extension professionals and youth leadership educators alike can gain insight on the stage of leadership identity that this population of leaders is at. When designing leadership training, professionals should work to provide leaders with further opportunities to explore their leadership identity development and partake in self-reflective processes, which allow teens to gauge their personal progression. These self-reflections should be aimed at providing youth with the opportunity to explore and practice skills with a more relational and group-focused view of leadership (Komives et al., 2005).

There were five emergent themes: (1) leadership is a position; (2) leaders are exemplars; (3) leaders have characteristics; (4) leaders engage with others; and (5) leaders address the greater good. These themes provided a glimpse into how youth perceive their own leadership identity

development at this point in their 4-H career. And, these themes provide perspective on where 4-H teen leaders may be in their leadership identity development. The majority of responses related to Stage 2-Exploration/Engagement, Stage 3- Leader Identified, and Stage 4- Leadership Differentiated of the Leadership Identity Development model (Komives et al., 2006).

Being that the model was developed based on college students, it can be affirmed as positive progression that these teens are moving away from a hierarchical and leader-centric view towards a more relational and group-focused view. It is important to note that leadership is a developmental process across the lifespan. Therefore, we would not have expected to see the youth much further along in the LID model. Although some of the responses were still focused on characteristics, ideological/iconic perspectives, and trait-based, many of the participants spoke of group processes. The heavy focus on the view of a leader within the team, whether as the trailblazer or equal, demonstrated a focus on trust, collaboration, and shared goals (Allen & Cherrey, 2000).

This study will serve as a starting point for future research where the researchers will continue to explore leadership identity development. Future research should focus on youth outside of state-wide leadership programs. In addition, future research will explore more depth in reasoning for youth responses for member-checking and triangulation processes.

References

Allen, K. E., & Cherrey, C. (2000). *Systemic leadership: Enriching the meaning of our work.* Landham, MD: University Press.

4-H National Headquarters. (2011). 4-H Citizenship Program. Washington, DC: Swanson, D.

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

Avolio, B. J., & Gardner, W. L. (2005). Authentic leadership development: Getting to the root of positive forms of leadership. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *16*(3), 315-338.

Bernard, H. R., & Ryan, G. W. (2010). *Analyzing qualitative data: Systematic approaches*. Los Angeles, CA: Sage Publications.

Fernandez, T., Godwin, A., Doyle, J., Verdin, D., Boone, H., Kirn, A., Potvin, G. (2016). More Comprehensive and Inclusive Approaches to Demographic Data Collection. *School of Engineering Education Graduate Student Series*. Paper 60. Retrieved from http://docs.lib.purdue.edu/enegs/60

Flick, U. (2004). Triangulation in qualitative research. *A companion to qualitative research*, 178-183.

Gestsdóttir, S., & Lerner, R. M. (2007). Intentional self-regulation and positive youth development in early adolescence: Findings from the 4-h study of positive youth development. *Developmental Psychology, 43*(2), 508. doi: 10.1037/0012-1649.43.2.508

Larson, R. W. (2000). Toward a psychology of positive youth development. *American Psychologist, 55*(1), 170.

Larson, R. (2006). Positive youth development, willful adolescents, and mentoring. *Journal of Community Psychology, 34*(6), 677-689.

Lerner, R. M., Almerigi, J. B., Theokas, C., & Lerner, J. V. (2005). Positive youth development a view of the issues. *The Journal of Early Adolescence*, *25*(1), 10-16.

Lerner, R. M., Dowling, E. M., & Anderson, P. M. (2003). Positive youth development: Thriving as the basis of personhood and civil society. *Applied Developmental Science, 7*(3), 172- 180.

Lerner, M. L., Lerner, J. V., & Colleagues. (2013). *The positive development of youth: Comprehensive findings from the 4-H study of positive youth development.* Retrieved from http://3t61of1t6u3x3af7ir2y91ib.wpengine.netdna-cdn.com/wp-content/uploads/2016/02/4-H-Study-of-Positive-Youth-Development-Full-Report.pdf

Komives, S. R., Owen, J. E., Longerbeam, S. D., Mainella, F. C., & Osteen, L. (2005). Developing a leadership identity: A grounded theory. *Journal of College Student Development*, *46*(6), 593-611.

Komives, S. R., Longerbeam, S. D., Owen, J. E., Mainella, F. C., & Osteen, L. (2006). A leadership identity development model: Applications from a grounded theory. *Journal of College Student Development*, *47*(4), 401-418.

Komives, S. R., Longerbeam, S. D., Mainella, F., Osteen, L., Owen, J. E., & Wagner, W. (2009). Leadership identity development: Challenges in applying a developmental model. *Journal of Leadership Education*, *8*(1), 11-47.

Mortensen, J., Lichty, L., Foster-Fishman, P., Harfst, S., Hockin, S., Warsinske, K., & Abdullah, K. (2014). Leadership through a youth lens: Understanding youth conceptualizations of leadership. *Journal of Community Psychology*, *42*(4), 447-462. doi: 10.1002/jcop

Patton, M. Q. (2005). *Qualitative research*. John Wiley & Sons, Ltd. Strauss, A., & Corbin, J. (1990). *Basics of qualitative research* (Vol. 15). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Northouse, P. G. (2013). *Leadership theory and practice* (6th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage. Perkins, D. F., Borden, L. M., Keith, J. G., Hoppe-Rooney, T. L., & Villarruel, F. A. (2003). Community youth development. In Villarruel, F. A., Perkins, D. F., Borden, L. M., & Keith, J. G., *Community youth development: Programs, policies, and practices*, (pp.1-23). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Shamir, B., & Eilam, G. (2005). "What's your story?" A life-stories approach to authentic leadership development. *The Leadership Quarterly, 16*(3), 395-417. doi:10.1016/j.leaqua.2005.03.005

Zarrett, N., & Lerner, R. M. (2008). Ways to promote the positive development of children and youth. *Child Trends*, *11*, 1-5.

The Current State of Youth Leadership Development Programs in Nebraska and Its Implications for Pedagogies and Assessments in Youth Leadership Education

L.J. McElravy, Katie Brock, Jessica Bartak, & Lindsay J. Hastings
University of Nebraska – Lincoln

Abstract

The skill and behavior malleability of adolescence creates a unique opportunity for impactful leadership development during this age (Murphy & Johnson, 2011). Yet, communities may not be effectively maximizing leadership potential in youth because of how programs are designed and offered (Mortensen et al., 2014). The purpose of this study is to assess the current state of youth leadership programming across Nebraska. Specifically, program information regarding leadership definitions, pedagogies used, evaluation strategies, accessibility, and target population was collected from 16 programs from across Nebraska. Recommendations based on the results of this project are shared.

Introduction

While youth can be powerful leadership resources to their community and to each other (Libby, Rosen, & Sedonaen, 2005), communities often do not effectively use or develop their leadership abilities (Mortensen et al., 2014). The intentional leadership development of youth is essential, considering the sizeable upcoming transfers of wealth ($75 trillion by 2060; Macke, Markley, & Binerer, 2011) and leadership (56 percent of all management occupations transferred within 20 years; U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2012) the United States will experience. Currently, metrics for evaluating the impacts of leadership development and leadership education efforts are severely inadequate (Kellerman, 2013), and these inadequacies are compounded by the broadness with which youth leadership is conceptualized (Klau, 2006). Because of this, we have insufficient evidence to validate which efforts promote the influential capacity of young leaders. Community resources and student time are limited, so we must be able to present economically minded justification that our youth leadership development programs are developing young leaders in ways that are positively influencing communities.

The purpose of the current study was to examine the state of youth leadership programming in Nebraska in order to ascertain the conceptualization of youth leadership in practitioner programming as well as the metrics associated with evaluating leadership development in youth populations. The primary research question driving this study was, "What is the state of youth leadership development programming in Nebraska?" To address this question, information from youth leadership development organizations were collected to address the following questions:
1. How do organizations conceptualize/define leadership?
2. What educational techniques do programs use to teach leadership?
3. How do organizations assess leadership development of the youth?
4. How do organization assess the success of their programs?
5. How many people have participated in the programs?
6. How long have the programs been running?
7. What is the target population for leadership programming?

8. What is the cost associated with leadership programs?

Literature Review

There are several conceptualizations of youth leadership. Kress (2006) defines youth leadership as, "the involvement of youth in responsible, challenging action that meets genuine needs, with opportunities for planning and decision making" (p. 51). Based on their own view of the literature, Wang and Wang (2009) defined youth leadership as, "the capacity of leading members to achieve common goals," (p. 488). In a qualitative study, Mortensen et al. (2014), asked 130 youth to answer the questions, "what does a leader look like?" and, "what makes someone a leader?" (p. 453). The youth in this sample defined leadership as being, "available to anyone in any context and involves creating change, collective action, modeling and mentoring, and strong character" (p. 447). Conceptualizing leadership within a program is important. How leadership is conceptualized should drive the teaching methods and activities used and provides a foundation for evaluation. Several important components of youth leadership development appear in the literature. Youth Adult Partnerships (Y-APs) have been identified as an important element of youth development and youth leadership development (Des Marias, Yang, & Farzanehkia, 2000). Other studies have recognized the importance of observing the behaviors of others and interpersonal skills for youth leadership development (Kress, 2006; Wang & Wang, 2009; Ricketts & Rudd, 2002; Mortensen et al., 2014). Other elements of youth leadership development include: decision making, responsibility, learning skills, critical thinking, and confidence (Wang & Wang, 2009).

Jenkins (2012) investigated which instructional strategies are most often used in undergraduate leadership courses of 303 instructors. Learning and developing leadership skills may be different than learning other disciplines in the classroom setting. Because of this, it is important to know which strategies are being used to teach leadership. The study focused on 24 instructional strategies, that were selected based on recommendations from a panel of experts, a review of the literature, and the researcher's experience. The most common forms of instruction used include class discussion, interactive lecture & discussion, small group discussion, group projects & presentations, and research project presentations (Jenkins, 2012).

Methods

Program Inclusion

To identify youth leadership development programs, the following selection criteria were used: 1) the organization/program's mission statement includes youth leadership development as one of its primary goals, 2) the organization/program's target age ranges from 6th grade to 12th grade, and 3) the organization/program has an established presence in Nebraska.

The search for qualifying youth leadership development programs began with a Google inquiry of the term "Youth leadership development in Nebraska"." At the time of the search, 32 pages of results were produced. A member of the research team reviewed each entry, searching for mission statements and the targeted participant age range to determine if the organization/program met the inclusion criteria. From the initial search, 19 total organizations

met the criteria. Additionally, each organization contacted was also asked if they knew of any other youth leadership development programs, and if so, if they could provide the name and contact information. An additional six organizations were identified, providing a total of 25 organizations across Nebraska to be included in the project.

Procedure

In order to address the research question, the researchers collected both quantitative and qualitative data via telephone and in-person interviews with each organization's staff members as well as unobtrusive data collection from each organization's website to answer the following questions:

1. How does your organization conceptualize/define leadership?
2. What educational techniques does your program use to teach leadership?
   a. Choose from the following list of signature pedagogies in leadership education (Jenkins, 2012): Case studies, Class/group discussion, Exams, Games, Group projects/presentations, Guest speaker, Icebreakers, In-class short writings, Individual leadership development programs, Interactive lesson/discussion, Interview of a leader, Lecture, Media clips, Quizzes, Reflective journals, Research project/presentation, Role-play activities, Self-assessments/instruments, Service learning, Simulation, Small group discussion, Story/storytelling, Student peer teaching, and Teambuilding
3. How does your organization assess leadership development of the youth?
4. How does your organization assess the success of their programs?
5. How many people have participated in the program?
   a. Annually?
   b. Total?
6. How long has the program been running?
7. What is your target population?
   a. Age/grade?
   b. Interest (e.g. FBLA is business, underrepresented populations, etc.)
   c. Is the program application based/restrictive?
8. Is there a cost associated with your program?

Each organization's website was visited first to collect data relevant to the research questions presented above. After collecting as much unobtrusive data as was available, initial contact with each organization was made through email on December 15th, 2015. The email explained the research project and asked to set up a phone interview with someone who works directly with the program; programs that made contact were scheduled for a 15-minute telephone or in-person interview (the questions above served as the script). Programs that did not respond to the initial email by January 25th, 2015 were contacted again through another email, and a phone call using available contact information. Organizations that had not responded to the second email or phone call by February 20th, 2015 were all contacted again by phone, at least once, and up to five times; voice mails were left if the option was available. Contact with these organizations was sought until March 9th, 2016, giving roughly three months of opportunity for these organizations to participate in the research study.

Additionally, a member of the research team made initial contact with organizations that the researcher team was aware of through past experience and that met the inclusion requirements of this study. This initial contact was made through an email on June 29th, 2016 that explained the research project and asked to set up a phone interview. A member of the research team scheduled phone or in-person interviews with all organizations that responded.

Relevant data from the organization/program websites were entered into an excel spreadsheet. During the telephone or in-person interview with a member of organization/program's staff, the data collected from the organization/program's website was verified, and any missing data from the organization/program's website was requested by the interviewer. The interviews were recorded and transcribed by a member of the research team. Information transcribed from the interviews were then added into the excel spreadsheet. Only data that directly addressed the specific questions were included in the analysis. In total, the researchers were able to collect data from 16 youth leadership programs.

Data from each organization was organized into a table (see table 1) to allow for easy comparison of the data. The data was organized by each question representing a column and each organization representing a row. This allowed for easy comparison of the data to get a glimpse of the current state of youth leadership development in Nebraska. The data for each question was analyzed to compare the different organizations and get a better idea of what is happening across the state. For the second question, a frequency table (see figure 1) was created to compare the different leadership pedagogies and to see which instructional methods are most common in the organizations included in the study. Figure 1 was organized so that the most common leadership pedagogies were at the top, while the least common are located at the bottom. This figure shows which of the leadership pedagogies identified by Jenkins (2012) are most commonly used with youth leadership development in Nebraska. A more detailed description of how the data were analyzed to answer each question is provided in the results section.

Results

Data from each organization regarding name, sponsor, year founded, number of participants (current and total), targeted age range, definition of leadership, assessment of youth leadership development, assessment of program success, application process, and cost for participation is included in Table 1.

Table 1
Responses to Program Questions

Name of Program/ Organization	Sponsor/ Affiliation	Founded	Active Par.	Total Par.	Ages	Definition of leadership	Assessment of youth leadership development	Application	Cost
NHRI	UNL	1949	180	~6,000	K-12th grade	Yes	Yes	Nomination	No
Y. Lead. Omaha	Creighton	1992	40	~480	H.S. Sophomores	No	No	Yes	No
Leadership Lincoln	Non-profit	1996	40-45	~855	H.S. Sophomores	No	Yes	Yes	Yes
Y. Lead. Kearney	Chamber of Comm.	1994	25	500	H.S. Juniors	No	No	Yes	No
Y. Lead. Tomorrow	Grand Is. Chamber	1998	35	~570	H.S. Seniors	No	No	Yes	Yes
Nebraska FFA	FFA	1928	7,400	N.K.	7th grade – 21 years	No	No	Yes	Yes
LAUNCH	Non-profit	1961	1,500	N.K.	6th grade – 12th grade	No	Yes	No	Yes
YELP	UNL Extension	2013	14	25	H.S. Sophomores	No	Yes	Yes	No
Y. Lead. Academy	Fremont Chamber	2010	21	120	H.S. Juniors	No	No	Yes	Yes
Nebraska FBLA	FBLA	1962	N.K.	N.K.	6th grade- 12th grade	No	Yes	No	Yes
Nothing But Net	Non-profit	2000	800	N.K.	Pre-K – 8th grade	No	Yes	No	No
Rotary Y. Lead. Seminar	Rotary Council	2011	50	237	H.S. Juniors	No	Yes	Nomination	No
Nebraska Y. Leadership Council	NE Dept. Vocational Rehab and Special Ed	2009	29	70	Ages 14-24	No	Yes	Yes	No
Project Everlast	Non-profit	2002	~60	N.K.	Ages 14-24	No	No	No	No
Nebraska Skills USA	Skills USA	1965	~2,500	N.K.	7th grade – 16th grade	No	No	No	Yes
Sovereign Native Youth Leadership Program	Nebraska Commission on Indian Affairs	2011	30	N.K.	9th grade – 12th grade	No	Yes	Yes	No

Note. N.K. = not known. NHRI = Nebraska Human Resources Institute. YELP = Youth Engaged in Leading Phelps.

Question one ascertained if each program used a definition of leadership. Only one out of the 16 organizations interviewed had a definition leadership. All other organizations had conceptualizations about what leadership may look like or how leadership may be executed; however, an official definition of leadership for the purpose of programming was not articulated.

The teaching techniques used in different youth leadership programs was assessed with the second question (see Figure 1.). Icebreakers and group/class discussions were used by every youth leadership organization interviewed, whereas techniques like exams and quizzes were rarely utilized. Another pattern worth noting is the infrequency of introspective, practical application, and reflective exercises used with the participating youth leadership programs. For example, pedagogies like case studies, in-class short writings, individual leadership development programming, and reflective journaling were used by less than half of the participating programs.
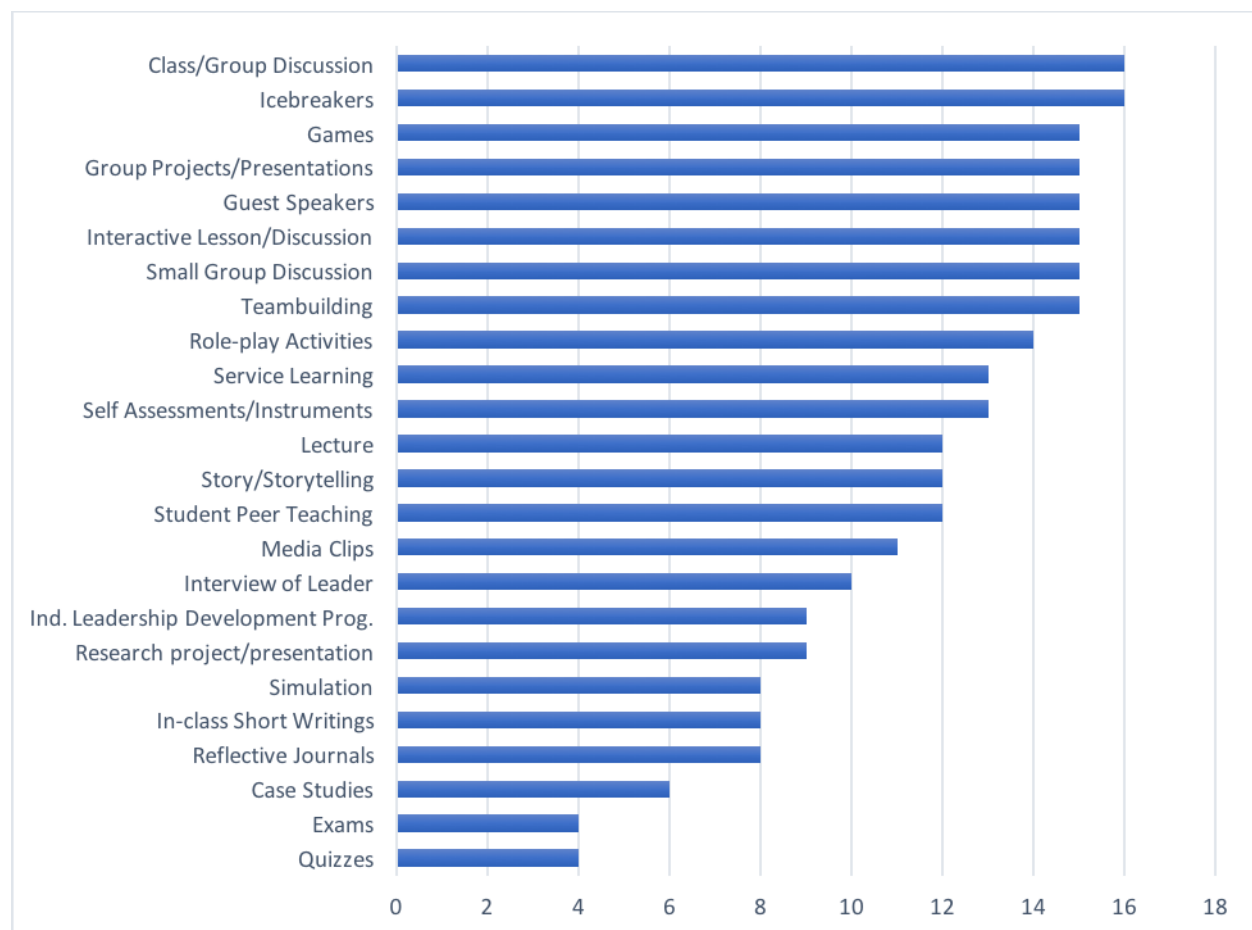
Figure 1. Frequencies of pedagogies used in youth leadership development programming.

Question three determined if organizations used formal assessments to measure the development of leadership in the youth participants after going through the curriculum. Nine organizations formally assessed their participants after completing the curriculum to evaluate personal development since the start of the program. Of those nine organizations, three organizations administered a pre/post survey with their participating students, three organizations evaluated student development through a post survey process, three organizations assessed student development through the success of their final projects or competitions, and one organization conducted a one-on-one meeting with participants once a week along with an annual interview with the students and their parents to evaluate progress and improvements through the year. The other seven organizations interviewed did not articulate any formal assessment or evaluation of student leadership development as a result of participating in the program.

The process of determining program success was assessed in question four. The range of techniques in measuring program success was extremely diverse, and many organizations used multiple methods in evaluating their success. Four organizations used participant surveys or interviews to gather program success information, while two other organizations used surveys or interviews from the participant's parents and/or teachers. Five organizations indicated relying heavily on the number of current participants and the number of people who seem to have a

continued interest. Two organizations based much of the program evaluation on the success of their alumni who have completed the programs. These organizations used their alumni's success as a testimonial for the effectiveness and quality of their programming. One organization assessed the success of their program through the opinion and involvement of community sponsors. Lastly, one organization utilized empirical research findings to measure the generativity in participating students.

Annual participant numbers, as well as an estimate of total of participants during the life of the program were provided in question five. Annual numbers across Nebraska ranged from 14 to 7,400, whereas total numbers range from 25 to well over 6,000. These total participant numbers related to the age of the organization, which was collected with question six.

The target age range of each organization was explored through question seven. The target age range for inclusion for this project was 6th through 12th grades; however, some programming targeted additional age groups. The Nebraska Youth Leadership Council and Project Everlast's programming is offered for ages 14 through 24. Nothing But Net is an organization based out of Omaha that offers its programming for youth starting in pre-k until 8th grade, and Nebraska Human Resources Institute (NHRI) includes all grades from kindergarten to 12th grade. Programming from Skills USA is offered for students in middle school, high school, and college. Programming through NHRI and Leadership Omaha also include significant college student leader involvement to catalyze the leadership development of the youth participants.

The interests and programming for each organization called to different populations among the youth in Nebraska. NHRI is a program that focuses on a student's leadership potential or interest, and requires a nomination for student participation. Youth Leadership Omaha, Leadership Lincoln, and YELP are all organizations that accept applications for high school sophomores who show potential and interest in leadership development. Youth Leadership Kearney, Youth Leadership Tomorrow, Rotary Youth Leadership Seminar, and Youth Leadership Academy all recruit high school juniors who show leadership potential and interest. FFA, FBLA, Skills USA are all organizations based in school systems offered to students from 7th grade to 12th grade. FFA is for students who show interest in leadership within the agricultural industry. FBLA is for students who show interest in leadership in the business world. Skills USA is for students who show interest in industrial technology, such as manufacturing, architecture, construction, transportation, and leadership. LAUNCH is also a program that is offered to students who desire leadership development and show interest in leadership within their school and community, and the ages they serve are 6th grade through 12th grade. The Sovereign Native Youth Leadership program targets high school Native American students. The Nebraska Youth Leadership Council targets youth who experience a mental disability. To be involved in Project Everlast, youth must have experience in the state's foster care system. Lastly, Nothing But Net is a program for students in pre-k through 8th grade, but has no standards or expectations on interests, leadership potential, or previous education.

Question eight assessed the cost of participating in leadership development programming. Seven out of the 16 organizations interviewed require a tuition payment directly from the youth participants for their participation in the program; two of those organizations offer scholarships for students who may not be able to pay for their participation. Three organizations do not

require students to pay for their own participation directly, however, students must find community sponsors to cover the fees of the programs. The six remaining organizations do not have any costs associated to their programs and do not require students to pay for their participation. These programs receive their funding either through government grants, fundraising, or a combination of the two.

As mentioned, the researchers also collected information about the affiliation or sponsor of the programs. Different sponsors included local Chambers of Commerce, national clubs - like FFA, FBLA and Skills USA, local universities, extension offices, Rotary Council, and government agencies (Nebraska Department of Education, Nebraska Department of Vocational Rehab and Special Education, and Nebraska Commission on Indian Affairs). Many youth leadership development organizations in Nebraska were also stand-alone non-profit organizations.

Discussion

Before discussing the implications of this study, several limitations should first be discussed. The search process may have missed youth leadership programs that do not have a web presence or are relatively new. Additionally, it is also important to note that programs targeting the general, positive development of youth may include some leadership activities as part of their pedagogy, but those programs were not included in this study.

Overall, the youth leadership development programs in the current study used a variety of educational techniques. All of the participating programs used numerous and varying methods to facilitate leadership learning. Thus, we can reasonably conclude that youth participants in leadership development programming are offered multiple opportunities and mediums through which to practice, study, and apply lessons learned about leadership.

Broadly speaking, the youth leadership development programming examined in the current study covered a wide range of interests and contexts. For example, specific interests and contexts covered by the participating youth leadership development programs included agriculture, business, civic duty, and peer mentorship. Providing varying platforms for leadership learning allows the opportunity for youth with myriad passions to develop their leadership skills and knowledge.

Youth leadership development programming included in the current study also served wide-ranging demographics. All leadership organizations interviewed indicated a commitment to diversity among their participants. Some of the participating organizations were created to target distinct groups, for example youth who have been in the foster care system, youth with mental and/or physical disabilities, youth that attend inner-city schools, and Native American youth. Thus, the abundance of different organizations and programs for youth leadership development provides opportunities to a wide range of youth.

While the participating youth leadership organizations utilized multiple pedagogies, covered a wide range of interests, contexts, and demographics, the results of this study also point to needed improvements in youth leadership development programming. Apart from one organization interviewed in this study, all other organizations lacked a formal, or official, definition of

leadership. Without a clear and foundational understanding of what is being developed, how can expectations and standards be met? Leadership is a versatile and flexible term that has the ability to change according to perspectives, experiences, and education. However, if youth leadership development is a primary outcome, a comprehensible, unambiguous standard should be set with a definition that is understandable for the youth participants. Without this simple measure of expectation, the youth and the programs are left to speculate on whether successful leadership development has transpired.

Another area of improvement offered from the results of the current study is the access and availability of youth leadership development programming to rural students. Many of the programs in rural Nebraska were county-based and met in a venue that was typically not in a central location. This raises the concern that youth who show potential and desire to grow in their leadership capacity are disadvantaged simply because of location. While rural students are most likely offered 4-H programming locally, not all 4-H youth programming is focused specifically on leadership development. The results of the current study suggest that attention be paid to emerging technologies in leadership education that would allow for greater access of leadership development opportunities for students who are disadvantaged geographically.

Aside from location, cost may also serve as another barrier for youth who desire to grow in their leadership capacities. Although the costs associated with participation among the interviewed youth leadership development programs were relatively inexpensive compared to adult leadership development programs, cost may still serve as an access hurdle. Specifically, when programs require some sort of application process, a student who sees cost as an obstacle may not apply regardless of desire and potential to improve as a leader. Thus, the field of youth leadership education may be prudent to survey and share relevant granting opportunities or cost recovery systems that would reduce access barriers to youth leadership development programming.

The lack of formal assessments for many of the participating programs is a major opportunity for improvement within youth leadership development programming. Although some organizations conducted assessments of leadership development, 44 percent of the organizations interviewed did not. Additionally, none of the interviewed organizations used a common and psychometrically sound measure of youth leadership in their assessment plans. The development of a widely available, psychometrically sound measure of youth leadership is clearly a need in youth leadership development programming. The systematic use of a sound youth leadership measure would allow organizations that rely on government grants, fundraising, and sponsors to offer valid and reliable evidence that their programs are actually developing youth leadership capacity and are worth renewed contracts and continued funding.

References

Jenkins, D. (2012). Exploring signature pedagogies in undergraduate leadership education. *Journal of Leadership Education*, *11*(1), 1-27.

Kellerman, B. (2013). Leading questions: The end of leadership – redux. *Leadership, 9*, 135-139.

Klau, M. (2006). Exploring youth leadership in theory and practice. *New Directions for Youth Development, 109*, 57 – 87.

Kress, C.A. (2006) Youth Leadership and Youth Development: Connections and Questions. *New Directions for Youth Development*, 109, 45-56. doi:10.1002/yd.154

Libby, M., Rosen, M., & Sedonaen, M. (2005). Building Youth-Adult Partnerships for Community Change: Lessons from the Youth Leadership Institute. *Journal of Community Psychology, 33*(1), 111-120.

Macke, D., Markley, D., & Binerer, A. (2011). *Transfer of wealth in rural America*.   Lincoln, NE: Center for Rural Entrepreneurship.

Mortensen, J., Lichty, L., Foster-Fishman, P., Harfst, S., Hockin, S., Warsinske, K., & Abdullah, K. (2014). Leadership through a youth lens: Understanding youth of conceptualizations of leadership. *Journal of Community Psychology, 42*(2), 447-462.

Murphy, S. E., & Johnson, S. K. (2011). The benefits of a long-lens approach to leader development: Understanding the seeds of leadership. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *22*(3), 459-470.

U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics. (2012). Current population survey. Retrieved from http://www.bls.gov

Wang, Y., & Wang, B. (2009). Conceptual Model of Youth Leadership: A Review. *Colloquium on Computing, Communication, Control and Management*, 487-490

Leading School Change through Innovation: The Hybrid Schedule

Aneta Walker
Auburn University

Abstract

The purpose of this research study was to assess the effectiveness of the Innovative Hybrid schedule in improving student learning outcomes and school culture. This mixed-method research study used data generated by the Stages of Concern Questionnaire (SoCQ), the AdvancEd®'s Stakeholder Feedback Survey, the ACT Aspire® Student Achievement Tests, teacher interviews, and artifact data that consisted of a Qualtrics departmentalization survey given to the teachers and students at the end of the pilot year.

The conceptual framework of the present case study was based on the five attributes of the PLCs identified through the work of Shirley M. Hord (2004) and Michael Fullan's Educational Change Theory (2007). The results of this study of the Innovative Hybrid Schedule showed that significant change occurred in school culture based on the two administrations of the AdvancEd®'s Stakeholder Feedback Survey. Additionally, student learning outcomes measured by ACT Aspire® Reading and Mathematics Student Achievement Tests showed a statistically significant improvement in both reading and math. Lastly, the analysis of teacher interviews supported the findings in the quantitative data.

Introduction

In the midst of ever changing curriculum, higher expectations, and increasing accountability, those leading schools have immense responsibilities and challenges in the implementation of change initiatives. An essential factor in any school reform initiative has been to understand school culture, as examined by Hinde (2004) in the article, School Culture and Change: An Examination of the Effects of School Culture on the Process of Change. Hinde (2004) further quantified that "any change introduced to schools is often met with resistance and is doomed to failure as a result of the reform being counter to this nebulous, yet all-encompassing facet-school culture" (p. 4). Danielson (2012) also stated in a National Association of Elementary School Principal's article that appeared in Principal Magazine, "that the school's culture is key to professional growth and learning, and established through building trust" (p. 26). According to Sergiovanni (1992), truly effective schools are those that clearly articulated the school's core value. Also, he suggested that true leadership emanates from the heart of the leader where decisions, actions, and relationships are made from moral connections grounded in the cultural norms of a school. These provided the foundation of establishing a positive school community.

Research supports the idea that there was a significant connection between school culture and successful school change. Fullan (2007) stated that collaboration played a critical role in the school change process. He believed that school culture was based on the belief systems and expectations that are evidenced by the way a school operates. Several researchers agreed that a part of school culture was observable through rituals and ceremonies, as well as symbols and stories that make up the persona of the school. The school's culture was established over time by

trying to make sense about situations and experiences. For example, every school has a set of expectations about specific topics that are discussed at meetings, best practices and methods, the willingness of teachers to change, and the level of importance and role of professional development (Bolman & Deal, 2010; Deal & Peterson, 1999; Fullan, 2007).

In order to establish an environment that increases content knowledge and skills and reduce the workload of teachers requires changes in the organizational structure in the traditional elementary school model. According to Sowers (1968), meeting the varying needs of students was the first priority for every school. In order to provide high quality instruction, educational programs, practices, and issues, required constant evaluation to identify the needed areas of improvement. According to Williams (2009), yearly issues that must be addressed by elementary principals are student achievement and how to organize the school for instruction.

Schools must have innovative ideas that inspire and drive change for improving student learning outcomes that will ultimately be reflected in the continuous improvement of the instructional process. Effective educational practices for implementing innovation and change are aligned with the framework of this study. Research on change has been focused at the organizational level in order to identify the system's role in supporting changes and effective practices. To create consistent and sustained change, research has shown that the organization as a whole must initiate, implement, and maintain accountability for change to become solidified practice. Supportive conditions must be created also for individual teachers to experiment and try new ideas in order for the change to flourish and for organizational learning to occur.

According to Fullan (2007), "Real change, whether desired or not, represents a serious personal and collective experience characterized by ambivalence and uncertainty; and if the change works out, it can result in a sense of mastery, accomplishment, and professional growth" (p. 23). In order for innovation to be sustained within an organization, support must be provided to those responsible for the implementation of change. Innovation cannot stand alone.

Literature Review

The Change Process

Regardless of individual leadership styles, researchers found that leaders were change agents and innovators. Numerous research studies showed that leadership is inextricably connected to innovation and change (Fullan, 2007; Kanter, 1983, Kouzes & Posner, 2002). Education has had a long history of implementing improved practices, concepts, and approaches with little or lasting success (Clemmit, 2012; Hargreaves, 2006; Ravitch, 2010). Schools have been quick to embrace an abundance of innovations; however, the long-term adoptions of these innovations were thin at best (Hargreaves, 2001; Kotter, 1995; Sledge & Morehead, 2006). It was common for an organization to revert back to its original basic design because the change efforts were focused on the innovation rather than the changing the overall system (Dolan, 1994; Senge, 1990). It was determined for education to effectively meet the challenges of increasing demands on student learning outcomes, organizations must understand the fundamentals of the change process and how to effectively implement innovations (Hall & Hord, 2011; Hargreaves, 2001, 2006; Hord & Roussin, 2013; Kotter, 1995).

Fullan (2007) stated that "educational change is technically simple and socially complex" (p. 84). Regardless of how well a change approach is planned, organizations faced multiple obstacles when creating change (Cuban, 1990; Darling-Hammond, 2004; Murphy, 2008; Tyack & Cuban, 1995). Bolman and Deal (2010) agreed that schools are no different than any other organizations that have complex systems. Furthermore, successful leaders paid attention to the details of meeting people's needs, produce positive outcomes, deal with individual and group interests and conflicts, and create a culture of meaning. Bolman and Deal (2013) stated the importance by addressing the fact that "change undermines existing structural arrangements, creating ambiguity, confusion, and distrusts" (pp. 381–382).

Educational change has been viewed from many different perspectives. Fullan's (2007) model provided a framework of the three phases of change to assist leaders to a process that makes sense of the educational change process as an innovation approach. Fullan (2007) outlined the three phases of the change process. Phase I was regarded as the initiation phase. At this stage, Fullan (2007) stated the need for change was realized and encompassed "the process leading up to and the decision to proceed with implementation" (p. 69). It occurred when an individual or group initiated change by suggesting a new innovation, program, or direction for change within an institution. Phase II was addressed as the implementation stage and occurred when the organization adopted a change and began the change process. Need, clarity, complexity, and quality of the innovation were taken into consideration as a part of this phase. Phase III was the institutionalization of an innovation or change that referred to the sustainability of an innovation within an organization. Institutionalization was connected to the effectiveness of the implementation of the innovation. For the innovation to be institutionalized, or sustained, depended on whether the change was effectively embedded into the organization's structures and procedures for which the innovation was established (Fullan, 2007; Huberman & Miles, 1984).

Changes involved the creation of meaning of the relationship to new ideas, programs, or reforms. Meaning addressed both the cognitive and affective domains to create a context for the new learning or change. There were purposeful cultivations and connections at both levels. Leaders were responsible for building the capacity for change. Within the school setting, educational change was driven by new innovations. Innovation required individuals to move through the change process and create new meaning. In the educational context of change, innovation and building the organization's capacity to learn were critical components for successful change to occur.

Professional Learning Communities

Building educator capacity for change, innovation, and successful institutionalization requires a significant amount of professional learning. Professional learning and collaborative cultures were the keys to changing practice and ultimately affected student learning and supported the sustainability of implemented innovations overtime (Andrews & Crowther, 2006; Booth & Rowell, 2007; Louis, 2007). Fullan and Hord (2015) suggested that professional learning that increased educator effectiveness and sustained support for implementation was required for long-term change.

Fullan and Hord (2015) described professional learning as a "process of continuous improvement focused on achieving clearly defined student and educator learning goals rather than an event defined by a predetermined numbers of hours" (vii). Schools that impacted student learning outcomes were those that provided professional learning organized around shared goals that focused on increasing the effectiveness of the teaching practice. Fullan and Hord (2015) suggested this stating that "professional learning that is embedded in changing culture, has sustainability built-in" (p. 20).

Building positive relationships influenced change within an organization. Stoll (2009) stated that capacity building through the implementation process was a result of the development of relationships and trust. It was imperative to provide opportunities for teachers that connected them together and strengthened their skills in order to build that capacity for change. Many researchers believed that professional learning communities fostered efforts towards collegial involvement and development of collaborative cultures (DuFour, Eaker, & DuFour, 2005; Fullan, 2007; Louis, 2007).

Hall and Hord (2011) established the connection between the necessity of building a positive collaborative culture and support for individuals through professional learning communities (Darling-Hammond, 1986; Lieberman, 1995; Little, 1982; McLaughlin & Talbart, 1993). Hord and Sommers (2008) identified the PLC as the vehicle to support teachers in their professional learning through a supportive and collaborative setting. Additionally, Huffman and Hipp (2003) agreed that the PLC was one such approach to improved and supported organizational change in culture. The five attributes of PLCs provided the framework for schools and allowed the schools to implement and sustain their efforts (Hord & Sommers, 2008). Hord (2004) identified these five attributes of a PLC that included shared values and vision, intentional collective learning and its application, supportive and shared leadership, supportive conditions and shared personal experience.

The Conceptual Frameworks

Institutionalization Phase

4. Change gets embedded into the structure
5. Administrators and teachers who are skilled in and committed to the change
6. Established procedures for continuing assistance

Implementation Phase

1. Administrators set supportive conditions and understand the change
2. Clarity exists-understanding of the change in relation to practice or need
3. Collaborative practices are evident (PLCs)

Initiation Phase

1. Decision to adopt change based on research of quality and effectiveness
2. Decision to proceed with change
3. Identification of advocate and stakeholders

Fullan and Hord – Strategy 6- Create a Context Conducive to Change
Hall and Hord – function VI- Creating a Context Supportive of change

AdvancEd-Using Results for Continuous Improvement
Fullan and Hord - Strategy 4 - Monitor Progress
Fullan and Hord - Strategy 5 -Provide Ongoing Assistance
Hall and Hord- Function V- Provide Continuous Assistance

AdvancEd-Resources and Support Systems
Fullan and Hord - Strategy 3- Plan for Implementation and Identify the required resources
Hall and Hord - Function IV- Checking Progress

AdvancEd-Teaching and Assessing for Learning
Fullan and Hord- Strategy 2- Invest in Professional Learning
Hall and Hord- Function III- Investing in Professional Learning

AdvancEd-Governance and Leadership
Hall and Hord - Function II- Planning and Providing Resources

AdvancEd-Purpose and Direction
Fullan and Hord - Strategy 1 - Create a Shared Vision of Change
Hall and Hord -Function I - Developing, Articulating, and Communicating a Shared Vision of the Intended Change

Shared Personal Practice

Supportive Conditions

Intentional, Collective Learning and Application

Supportive and Shared Leadership

Shared Values and Vision

Methods

This mixed methods case study utilized various data collection instruments. The combination of quantitative and qualitative data collection made mixed methods a strong design to utilize (Creswell, 2015). Table 3 shows the specific data collection instrument used to answer each of the research questions. The use of multiple quantitative and qualitative instruments provided the researcher the data sources to demonstrate triangulation of data and strengthen the inquiry (Creswell, 2012, 2015).

Table 3
Data Collection Instruments and Research Questions

Research Question	Data Collection Instruments
1. What do teachers perceive as factors that facilitated and/or hindered the implementation of the Innovative Hybrid Schedule?	1. *Stages of Concern Questionnaire* 2. Interviews 3. Artifact- Qualtrics Departmentalized Surveys
2. As perceived by the teachers, to what extent has the school culture changed as a result of the implementation of the Innovative Hybrid Schedule?	1. *AdvancED's*® stakeholder feedback diagnostic survey 2. Interviews 3. Artifact- Qualtrics Departmentalized Surveys
3. Have student learning outcomes changed with the implementation of the innovative hybrid schedule?	1. *ACT Aspire*® Test Scores
4. What are the perceived program outcomes related to the implementation of the Innovative Hybrid Schedule?	1. Interviews 2. Artifact- Qualtrics Departmentalized Surveys

This case study investigated the effectiveness of implementing an innovation to bring about a change in school culture and student learning outcomes. The researcher attempted to deepen the understanding of the relationships among educational change, school culture, student learning outcomes and continuous improvement. The setting of the study was Stella Elementary School which serves kindergarten through fifth grade. Stella Elementary School is located in Dothan, Alabama and is a part of the Dothan City School Board of Education. The participants included teachers who had been a part of the implementation of the innovative hybrid schedule. The participants were active members of the established professional learning community. Multiple data sources were collected including questionnaires, surveys, interviews, documents and artifacts, observations, and student learning outcomes data.

This research study employed a mixed method case study utilizing a convergent design. The school, which was the subject of the study, had implemented an innovative hybrid schedule over a two-year period. In addition, the selected school site implemented the different components of professional learning communities in an effort to strengthen collaboration and improve school culture. Purposeful sampling was used for this study.

The purpose of the mixed method case study was trifold. First, research was conducted to examine the implementation of an innovation and whether the school culture changed as a result of the innovation. Second, research was conducted to determine the level of teachers' concerns about implementing the innovative hybrid schedule. Third, the study was conducted to determine if instructional practices improved and if student learning outcomes improved. Utilizing mixed methods permitted expansion of results allowing for greater richness and detail to the study through exploring specific features of each method (Trochim, 2002).

The rationale for using the case study design was the fact that this design provided significant insights and perspectives from participants in a bounded system (Creswell, 2012, 2015; Gillham,

2010; Merriam, 2009). Using a case study methodology, allowed the researcher to discover and identify the perspectives of the participants, along with other sources of evidence, the impact the innovative hybrid schedule had on changing teaching practices, school culture, and student learning outcomes.

Furthermore, a case study provided descriptions of how a school culture functioned from those participants that were actively involved. This approach served my research paradigm and conceptual framework for understanding the relationships how implementing an innovation effected school culture and drove the process for continuous improvement by utilizing the attributes of professional learning communities. Being able to gain a comprehensive and holistic view of the case within a bounded system provided for a deeper understanding of how change happened. Additionally, it included the context as well as details related to the case being studied.

The qualitative data used in this case study were collected through in-depth interviews. Additional artifacts and documents were also collected. The quantitative data were collected over a two-year period. The survey data were collected at the beginning and end of each school year. The survey used was *AdvancED's®* stakeholder feedback diagnostic tool that was used to measure the school climate. The surveys were administered to address the *Standards for Quality Schools* and was electronically formatted through the *AdvancED®* Assist portal. Additional quantitative data were gathered through the questionnaire used based on the *Stages of Concern Questionnaire (SoCQ)*. The *SoCQ* was administered in a pencil-paper format. The student learning outcome data were generated using *ACT Aspire®*. These data were state mandated and administered to all third through fifth graders.

Mixed methods researchers must use a combination of quantitative (numeric analysis) and qualitative (thematic analysis) approaches to report findings. A visual model, Figure 2, provides a sequence to this study indicating that qualitative methods and quantitative methods were used in the convergent design.
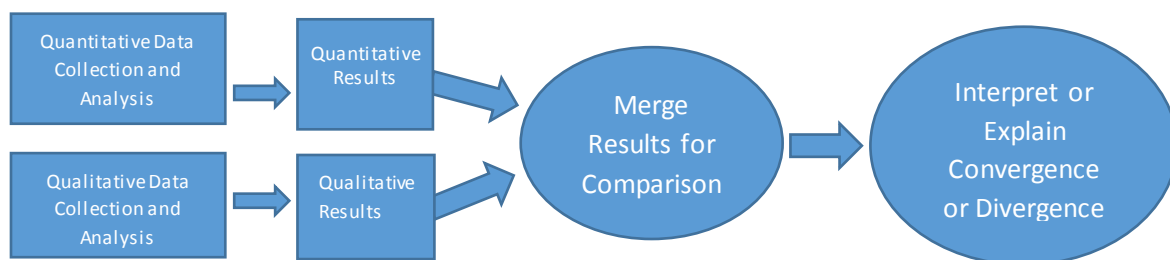
Source: Creswell, J. (2015). *A concise introduction to mixed method research.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Figure 2. Convergent Parallel Design

Results

Results of the data analysis reveal a statistically significant correlation between the Innovative Hybrid Schedule and improvement in student learning outcomes based on the *ACT Aspire®* test scores. Statistically significant gains were shown in both data sets of 3rd to 4th grade reading and math and 4th to 5th reading and math scores.

Means, Standard Deviations, Degrees of Freedom, Eta Square, and p Values for the ACT Aspire® Mathematics Test

ACT Aspire® Mathematics Student Test Scores	Spring 2014		Spring 2015				
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	F	Eta Square	p
	412.19	3.541	414.49	3.118	35.517	.346	<.001

Means, Standard Deviations, Eta Square, and p Values for the ACT Aspire® Reading Test

ACT Aspire® Reading Student Test Scores	Spring 2014		Spring 2015				
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	F	Eta Square	p
	411.26	4.544	414.04	.4.542	45.946	.407	<.001

On the overall *ACT Aspire®* Mathematics test data, Stella Elementary School tested n = 69 students in grades one through five. The mathematics data points included *ACT Aspire®* Spring 2014 Mathematics and 2015 Spring Mathematics for 3rd – 4th grade and 4th – 5th grade students. The data indicated statistical significance was reached in both groups.

Stella Elementary School tested n = 69, 3rd – 4th and 4th – 5th grade students on the *ACT Aspire®* Reading (data set 3b). The 2014 Spring administration of the *ACT Aspire®* were the baseline scores. Only the students that completed both testing sessions at Stella Elementary School were used in the data sets. The data revealed that statistical significance was reached in the *ACT Aspire®* Reading test scores. The tables provided the descriptive statistics for *ACT Aspire®* Reading test data. The data indicated statistical significance was reached. There was a large effect size eta = .407 indicated a strong relationship between the implementation of the Innovative Hybrid Schedule.

Based upon the statistical analysis, each data set showed statistical significance. The overall data for data for mathematics and reading showed that statistical significance was reached after the implementation of the Innovative Hybrid Schedule.

Additionally, statistically significant gains were shown in the *AdvancEd®*'s Stakeholder Feedback Survey results with each of the following Quality School Standards: Purpose and Direction, Governance and Leadership, Teaching and Assessing for Learning, Resources and Support Systems, and Using Results for Continuous Improvement. Means, standard deviations and results of the Spring 2014 and Spring 2015 administration of the *AdvancEd®*'s Stakeholders Feedback Survey were reported for each of the five standards addressed in the *AdvancEd®*'s Stakeholder Feedback Survey.

These were reported as Purpose and Direction, Governance and Leadership, Teaching and Assessing for Learning, Resources and Support Systems, and Using Results for Continuous Improvement. The correlations, Eta Square between the Spring 2014 and Spring 2015 of the *AdvancEd®*'s Stakeholder Feedback Survey ranged from .382 to .183. This was interpreted as a large effect size. In order to assess whether or not school culture and climate changed during the implementation of the Innovative Hybrid Schedule the researcher completed a two level within subjects Analysis of Variance (ANOVA). The five standards' average resulted in a statistically significant change, $F(1,4) = 29.718$, $p < .001$ with the mean scores for the Spring 2014 lower than Spring 2015 for all five sections identifying school culture and climate indicators.

Means, Standard Deviations, Eta Square, and p values for Purpose and Direction, Governance and Leadership, Teaching and Assessing for Learning, Resources and Support Systems, and Using Results for Continuous Improvement addressed by AdvancEd®'s Stakeholder Feedback Survey

AdvancEd®'s Stakeholder Feedback Survey	Spring 2014		Spring 2015				
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	F	Eta Square	p
	4.1417	.14384	4.2872	.15171	29.718	.382	<.001

In interpreting the *AdvancEd®*'s Stakeholder Feedback Survey, the Innovative Hybrid Schedule promoted a positive school culture. Additionally, the effect size was large, partial eta^2 =.382. This could indicate the possibility that the school culture was significantly improving in a positive direction and the school culture was perceived by teachers in a positive manner after the implementation of the Innovative Hybrid Schedule. Teacher interviews supported the findings from the quantitative data. Four consistent themes emerged from the interviews to validate the quantitative data. They were as follows: Benefits of Changing Classes, Teacher Collaboration, Improvement in School Culture, and Teachers as Content Specialist.

School culture. The process of data triangulation revealed the emergent theme of improvement in school culture that was identified in the interview process supported the quantitative findings that indicated school culture is moving in a positive direction and was positively impacted by the implementation of the Innovative Hybrid Schedule. When questioned during the interview process Teacher 7 stated:

> It has helped certainly by being able to connect with colleagues on specific things, because we're so individualized as teachers that we're focused on our content area, so it's been actually very helpful, very beneficial, to discuss what works, what doesn't work, sharing information, and sharing strategies with other teachers…

Teacher 9 shared:

> I think it's created a positive school culture. I feel like teachers are competent in the area that they're teaching, especially the math teachers.

Teacher 6 supported the findings:

> It has definitely had an overwhelming positive effect, we can definitely spend time focusing on becoming experts on our subject matter and not have to be so fragmented. I also think it's been positive in morale, which is kind of dealing with children, we're not stuck in the same room with the same behavior problems, the same children all day…

Collaboration. Through the interview process, the researcher also discovered that a second emergent theme of collaboration among teachers promoted a positive change in school culture. Additionally, the effects of collaboration improved school and teacher morale because the organizational structure promotes professional learning communities in which the teachers share instructional practices. Teacher 1 who was an active participant in the implementation process at Stella Elementary School explained:

> I think it's had a great effect on school morale and teachers, because we are encouraged to work together. We have to collaborate with each other for our students, and for our classrooms to be effective, and to run effectively.

Teacher 2 supported this finding:

> I think the morale at the school is excellent since we started hybrid schedule, you have teachers that are able to be specialized in what they love teaching.

The researcher discovered during the interview process, three of the four overarching themes of benefits of changing classes, teachers as content specialists and teacher collaboration through PLCs and vertical planning were facilitating factors for the implementation of the Innovative Hybrid Schedule. Building educator capacity for change, innovation, and successful institutionalization requires a significant amount of professional learning.

Teacher collaboration was a resounding point that Stella teachers found as facilitating factor and provided the key to successful implementation of the Innovative Hybrid Schedule. As Teacher 3 established:

> I think what mostly helped the implementation process is the vertical planning where we all got together and we were able to look at our standards…

The interviews established that teachers believed allowing students to change classes was a facilitating factor in the process of implementing the change at Stella.

Teacher 9 stated:

> The students rotate to different classes throughout the day instead of staying with their same teacher all day long.

Teacher 5 elaborated on this benefit:

> It is very innovative, obviously. I think the schedule itself provides opportunity for the students to be able to have movement. It's different than most schools in our area, which provides I think, a learning opportunity that is unique to Cloverdale and to our students that we have.

Participants also reported that focusing on a few subjects and becoming a teacher content specialist was overwhelming key factor for implementing the Innovative Hybrid Schedule. The participants –Teacher 7 and Teacher 8 – expressed that they can focus deeply on the one or two subjects they teach and master the content and skills needed to teach their subject areas.

Teacher 8 stated:

> We can provide individualized instruction in a content area, characteristic to a middle or high school setting, but more hands-on, small group, group work, time for peers to interact. Certainly for myself as the educator, a lot of room to really perfect the area that I'm instructing. Teachers are being better prepared.

Teacher 7 concurred:

> Teaching specific content areas, I believe really allows a lot of confidence for the teachers, the instructors, for perfecting their curriculum and perfecting the standards and understanding exactly what their content area is.

Regardless of the type of innovation, literature on leadership suggests the principals' understanding of organizational change and organizational learning as guides for effectively implementing the innovation. The literature identified that a key to successful implementation of an innovation or change is create a context that supports practices that foster professional learning within an organization. The interviews with Stella teachers described how the structure of the Innovative Hybrid Schedule supported professional learning opportunities. It provided the structure and organization for increased collaboration such as participating in content specific professional learning activities and vertical planning teams. Teachers described the Innovative Hybrid Schedule enabled teachers to engage in collaboration, problem-solve, and improve their instructional practices. This requires changing the behaviors of teachers within a school engage in, the assumptions, beliefs, and values that the teachers have will begin to change. These changes assisted in creating a context for making a cultural shift.

Conclusion

The researcher of this study was interested in determining if an Innovative Hybrid Schedule would improve school culture and impact student learning outcomes. The researcher sought to investigate if teachers perceived the Innovative Hybrid Schedule created a context for collaboration which supported cultivating their instructional practices that ultimately improved student learning outcomes. The researcher believes that student learning outcomes should be the most important element concerning teachers, administrators, and educational leaders. While improving student learning is the ultimate goal of schools, it is necessary to recognize there are many factors such as school culture, organizational structure, and leadership styles that effect the

student learning outcomes. The researcher recognizes the role that positive school culture and teacher collaboration have on improving student learning. When teachers collaborate with other teachers and become a content specialist by focusing on one content area, then the students and staff benefit from the positive outcomes.

Results suggested that because teachers were able to implement an educational change through an innovation, the two variables of student learning outcomes and school culture improved at the same time. Findings from this study will greatly contribute to the existing literature pertaining to implementing educational innovation, as well as, add insight to the literature related to the influences that the five attributes of professional learning have on sustaining a culture of innovation to improve schools and learning for students. Moreover, school leaders, researchers and educational stakeholders can utilize the findings of this study to gain insight on how schools organized to create a context for change can cultivate a culture that inspires teaching and learning improvements to meet the needs of students.

While there is no causal link, it is obvious that the professional learning community and collaboration improved and student learning improved during the implementation of the Innovative Hybrid Schedule. The study indicated that the relationships between implementing an innovative change such as the Innovative Hybrid Schedule and applying the five attributes of professional learning had a positive impact on the teacher collaboration, school culture, and providing the opportunities for teachers to become content specialist. The researcher confirmed that implementing a positive change in school culture improved student-learning outcomes. Teachers believed that the Innovative Hybrid Schedule was the connection that created a context for change. Additionally, it provided the context for collaborative opportunities for professional learning and vertical planning which were perceived as positive outcomes of the change initiative. Lastly, the Innovative Hybrid Schedule allowed teachers to focus on one content area and become content specialist which ultimately factored in to the improvement in student learning outcomes.

References

Andrews, D., & Crowther, F. (2002). Parallel leadership: a clue to the contents of the black box of school reform. *International Journal of Educational Management*, 16(4), 152-159.

Bolman, L. G., & Deal, T. E. (2010). *Reframing the path to school leadership, a guide for teachers and principals*. Newbury Park, CA: Corwin Press.

Cuban, L. (1990). Reforming again, again, and again. *Educational Researcher, 19*, 3–13.

Danielson, C. (2003). Enhancing student achievement: A framework for school improvement. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Darling-Hammond, L. (2004). Standards, accountability, and school reform. *Teachers College Record, 106*(6), 1047–1085.

Deal, T. E., & Peterson, K. D. (1999). *Shaping the school culture: The heart of leadership.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Dropsey, M. (2004). Departmentalization in elementary schools (Master's thesis). Retrieved from http://personal.ashland.edu/dkommer/Inq%20Papers%20Fall%2004/ Dropsey%20Final.pdf

DuFour, R., DuFour, R., Eaker, R., & Many, T. (2006). *Learning by doing.* Bloomington, IN: Solution Tree.

DuFour, R. (2004, May). What is a "professional learning community"? *Educational Leadership,* 61(8), 6–11.

DuFour, R. (2007). Professional learning communities: A bandwagon, an idea worth considering, or our best hope for high levels of learning? *Middle School Journal, 39*(4), 1–8.

Dufour, DuFour, and Eaker. Revisiting professional learning communities at work: new insights for improving schools, Bloomington, IN: Solution Tree Press, 2008

Fullan, M. G. (1991a). The meaning of educational change. In M. G. Fullan, *The new meaning of educational change* (pp. 30-46). New York: Teachers College Press.

Fullan, M. G. (1993). Why teachers must become change agents. *Educational Leadership, 50,* 12–12.

Fullan, M. (2007). The new meaning of educational change, 4th edition. New York: Teachers College Press.

Fullan, M., Hord, S. M., & Frank, V. V. (2015). *Reach the highest standard in professional learning: implementation.* Thousand Oaks: Corwin.

Glickman, C. D. (1992). *Supervision in transition.* Wash.D.C.: ASCD.

Hall, G. E., & Hord, S. M. (2015). *Implementing change: patterns, principles, and potholes.* Boston: Pearson.

Hall, G. E., & Hord, S. M. (2011). *Implementing change: patterns, principles, and potholes.* Boston: Pearson.

Hargreaves, A., & Goodson, I. (2006). Educational change tver Time? The sustainability and nonsustainability of three decades of secondary school change and continuity. *Educational Administration Quarterly,42*(1), 3-41. doi:10.1177/0013161x05277975

Hargreaves, A., & Shirley, D. (n.d.). The fourth way. *Educational Leadership: Context, Strategy and Collaboration,* 283-289. doi:10.4135/9781473915244.n21

Hinde, E. R. (2004). School culture and change: An examination of the effects of school culture on the process of change. *Essays in Education*, *11*.

Hord, S. (2004). Professional learning communities: An overview. Learning Together, Leading Together: Changing Schools through Professional Learning Communities, 5–14.

Hord, S. M., & Roussin, J. L. (2013). *Implementing change through learning: Concerns-based concepts, tools, and strategies for guiding change*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.

Hord, S. M., & Sommers, W. A. (2008). *Leading professional learning communities: Voices from research and practice*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.

Huffman, J. B., & Hipp, K. K. (2003). *Reculturing schools as professional learning communities*. Lanham, MD: Rowman & Littlefield.

Jackson, A. W., & Davis, G. A. (2000). *Turning points 2000: Educating adolescents in the 21st century*. New York, NY & Westerville, OH: Teachers College Press & National Middle School Association.

Kouzes, J. M., & Posner, B. J. (2002). Leadership challenge (3rd ed.). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Kruse, S., Seashore Louis, K., & Bryk, A. (1994). Building professional community in schools. Issues in Restructuring Schools, Issue Report No. 6 (Spring 1994), 3–6.

Lewis, A. (1989). *Restructuring America's schools*. Arlington, VA: American Association of School Administrators.

Louis, K. S., & Kruse, S. D. (1995). *Professionalism and community: perspectives on reforming urban schools*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.

Miles, M. B., & Huberman, A. M. (1984). *Qualitative data analysis: a sourcebook of new methods*. Beverly Hills: Sage Publications.

National Governors Association, Council of Chief State School Officers, and Achieve, Inc. (2008). Benchmarking for success: ensuring u.s. students receive a world class education. Washington, DC: Author.

National Governors Association Center for Best Practices & Council of Chief State School Officers. (2012). Common core state standards initiative: preparing america's students for college and career. Retrieved from http://www.corestandards.org

Porter, A., McMaken, J., Hwang, J., & Yang, R. (2011). Common core standards: The new U.S. intended curriculum. *Educational Researcher, 40*(3), 103–116. Doi: 103102/0013189X11405038

Ravitch, D. (2010). *The death and life of the great American school system: How testing and choice are undermining education.* New York: Basic Books.

Rothkopf, E. Z. (2009). An immodest proposal: Pedagogic information supports for teachers. *Teachers College Record*, *111*(1), 164–179.

Schein, E. H. (1990). Organizational culture. *American Psychologist,45*(2), 109-119. doi:10.1037//0003-

Sergiovanni, T. J. (1992). Why we should seek substitutes for leadership. *Educational Leadership. 5* .41 - 45.

Sowers, P. (1968). Let's team teach in our elementary school. *NASEC Monograph Series*, Spectrum. Retrieved from ERIC database. (ED030941)

Stoll, L. (2009). Connecting learning communities: Capacity building for systemic change. In A. Hargreaves, A. Lieberman, M. Fullan, & D. Hopkins (Eds.), Second International Handbook of Educational Change (pp. 469-484). Dordrecht, Netherlands: Springer International.

Tyack, D. B., & Cuban, L. (1995). *Tinkering toward utopia: A century of public school reform.* Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Wehlage, A., & Newman, F. (1993). The ten commandments of business and how to break them By Bill Fromm. *Performance Instruction, 32*(5), 24-24. doi:10.1002/pfi.4170320511

An Examination of Exemplary Leaders in Higher Education: A Focus on Academic Deans

Comfort Okpala
North Carolina A&T State University

Dr. Kimberly Young Walker
South Carolina Commission on Higher Education

Abstract

This qualitative research study was conducted to document the leadership behaviors of exemplary academic deans in higher education. The primary purpose was to 1) identify the characteristics of exemplary academic deans, and 2) identify destructive behaviors of academic deans in higher education. The analyses of the data from the deans show that passion, boldness, courage, commitment, character, integrity, trust, and stability were important leadership behaviors of exemplary academic deans in higher education. The data from students, faculty, and staff show that building a caring and supportive relationship, stability, boldness, self-confidence, and fairness were the most important leadership behaviors of academic dean in higher education. Autocratic leadership style, inflexibility, closed-mindedness and self-centeredness were identified as destructive behaviors of academic deans.

Introduction

Leadership issues and topics have been discussed and researched for a very long time and there has been a consistent definition of leadership by a number of researchers as someone with the potential to influence a group of individuals towards the achievement of organizational goals (Greenberg, 2006; Kotter, 1990; Mallo, 1999; Smith, 1961, Yukl, 1998). There are numerous studies on the behaviors and characteristics of leaders from business organizations (Drucker, 1999; Howkins, 2001), but little has been done on leadership characteristics of exemplary academic deans (Wolverton, Amelch, Wolverton, & Sarros, 1999). Most of the studies on academic deans focused on their transition from teaching to academic leadership (Arter, 1981), their skills and mobility (Montex, Wolverton, & Gmelch) and their level of stress (Gmelch, Wolverton, & Sarros, 1999). This research study is undertaken to add to the body of literature by addressing leadership characteristics of academic deans at one historically Black university. This proposed study is significant in influencing the quality of institutions because as Wolverton at al., (1999) emphasized, about 90% of all administrative decisions in higher education are made at the departmental level under the leadership of a dean. Hersey and Blanchard (1982) posit that the study of leadership characteristics is instrumental in the improvement of effective use of human resources.

Literature Review

The role, behavior, and characteristics of deans vary by institutional and school/college types. Research has shown that the leadership behaviors and characteristics of organizational leaders directly influence actions in the work environment that lead to change (Drucker, 1999, Gilley, 2005, Howkins, 2001). Butler (2007) stated that the work and responsibilities of deans is

challenging but rewarding. Bisbee and Miller (2007) emphasized that the duties of deans are more complex in today's environment as they participate in roles like budgets, mediate conflict, address complex personnel issues, attend a plethora of meetings and endure frequent interruptions. Most deans are selected from senior faculty ranks and as such, serve two roles, that of a scholar and administrator (Gmelch, 2000; Gmelch & Wolverton, 2002; Greenberg, 2006; Reason & Gmelch, 2003). Since deans are responsible for a number of roles and tasks, it is important to examine their characteristics with the use of both task and behavior leadership theories. Gilley (2005) emphasized that institutions of higher education as well as schools and colleges are constantly searching for academic deans with people-centered skills that will use their powers in an ethically responsive way to realize organizational mission and goals.

The purpose of this qualitative case study is to examine and identify the leadership behaviors and characteristics of exemplary academic deans with a focus on African American leaders at a historical Black university in southeastern United States. The research questions that guided the focus of this study are as follows:

1. What are the leadership behaviors of exemplary academic deans in higher education?
2. What are the perceptions of the participants on the destructive behaviors of academic deans in higher education?

Interpretive Worldview and Theoretical Framework

John W. Creswell (2009) describes worldview as a general orientation about the world and the nature of research that a researcher holds. According to the constructivist/interpretive worldview, researchers acquire knowledge by interpreting the perceptions of their participants (Lincoln, Lynham & Guba, 2011). Social reality is created and understood through the "construction of knowledge based on the participant's frame of reference within the setting" (Guba & Lincoln, 1985, p. 80). Denzin and Lincoln (2003) suggest that all researchers are social constructivist and that "knowledge is ideological, political, and permeated with values" (p. 308). Creswell (2009) states that in a constructivist/interpretivist design, researchers look at meanings from the perspectives of informants and tries to understand the experiences based on their relationships. This study is grounded in social constructivist/interpretivist worldview. This paradigm or worldview allows the researchers to gain a deeper understanding by interpreting subject perceptions with authentic representation of data (Denzin & Lincoln, 1998, p. 106).

The role for organizational leaders, according to Senge (1990), include the ability to build a shared vision, to challenge prevailing mental model, and to foster more systemic patterns of thinking. It is important to state that the researchers in this study have had experiences as leaders and faculty in higher education, so, our interest in this topic rests in our pursuit for academic deans' leadership improvement strategies based on the outcome from this study.

The researchers in this study utilized constructs from Gmelch and Wolverton's (2002) study. The authors posit that for academic deans to become effective, they must perform three activities that include the ability to build a community of scholars, the ability to set direction, and the ability to empower others. These activities also align with the characteristics of transformational leadership. So, this research was grounded within the framework of transformational leadership

theory. Transformational leaders utilize a shared vision to inspire subordinates to strive beyond required expectations. Transformational leadership was developed by Burns and elaborated by Bass (Bass, 1990; 1997). The transformational leadership has—as its starting point—the need for the organization to operate smoothly and efficient (Aarons, 2005; Shields, 2011). These authors emphasized that transformational leadership is concerned with achieving organizational change and success within complex and diverse systems. Academic deans are expected to be visionary leaders with roles that are associated with the leadership dimensions described by Heck, Johnsrud, and Rosser in their 2000 study. These dimensions include vision and goal setting; management of academic affairs; developing and maintaining interpersonal relationships with faculty, staff, and students; communication skills; pursuing professional development; research and institutional endeavors; advancing quality of education; and supporting institutional diversity (Heck et., al, 2000).

The researcher utilized the High-Performance Organizational (HPO) framework to guide this research in the selection of exemplary deans to interview for the research study. HPO model is about organizations that achieve financial and non-financial results and are better than their peer group for over a period of 5years or more. Utilizing that framework in an academic environment, academic deans that have served in that role for five years or more and have achieved student and faculty growth were sought in one historically Black university in the South to participate in the study. Only one academic dean met the criteria due to the high turnover rate of the deans in this bounded institution.

Methods

A single instrumental case study approach (Yin, 2006) was used to examine and document academic dean's leadership behaviors and characteristics. The case study allowed the researchers to conduct in-depth interviews with few participants. This approach not only illuminated clear knowledge of leadership behaviors of academic deans but also "reformed common sense" (Denzin & Lincoln, 2003, p. 196), and inform future hiring decisions for academic deans. Case study approach is appropriate for this study because the varying experiences and individual perceptions of the exemplary academic deans are best captured in their own words (Patton, 2002, Walsham, 1990). The researcher utilized the High Performance Organizational framework to select one academic dean that served in that role for forty-two years and has achieved student and faculty growth. This dean as well as selected students, faculty, and staff were the participants for this study.

Sample

The participants for this study were purposively selected and comprised of fifteen (15) individuals (a dean, 3 current faculty members, 3 retired faculty members, 3 current students, 3 alumni, 2 staff). The dean has served in that role for a number of years and some of the faculty and staff that participated in this study have also served with the dean for a number of years. Two of the retired faculty were hired by the dean in the study. The participants comprised of 60% female and 86.7% African-Americans.

Data Source and Procedure

Various data sources that include fifteen (15) participants' interview, document analysis, archival records, and observations were used. Johnson and Christensen (2004) posit that the use of multiple perspectives strengthens educational research as it adds insights and understanding that might be missed with a single strategy. The goal of such methodology was to provide stronger evidence for a conclusion through convergence and corroboration of findings (Creswell, 2003; Johnson & Christensen, 2004; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998). Denzi (1978) identified the use of different types of measure as a good methodological triangulation. The researchers sought and received the Institutional Review Board (IRB) application for the study prior to conducting the study. The participants that were selected for the study were individually interviewed by the researchers using the Academic Deans Leadership Behavior and Characteristics Interview Protocol. The interviews were conducted in a conference room located on the campus of the institution of the dean in this study. The dean's interview lasted for two hours while the interviews for the other participants lasted for an hour. All the interviews were tape recorded with the permission of the participants. Departmental documents that were available on the websites were examined to document student and faculty growth. Other archival documents and reports were also examined. The participants were also given open-ended questionnaire to freely describe the dean's leadership behaviors and characteristics and to identify destructive behaviors of academic deans in higher education. The data from the survey, interview notes as well as the tape recorded data were analyzed.

Data Analysis

Yin (2006) stated that case study findings are strengthened by a convergence of multiple measures of the same phenomenon. Multiple sources of evidence were used to document the leadership behaviors and characteristics of an academic dean in a historically Black university. Data from the dean, faculty, staff, and students were analyzed. The interview transcripts were transcribed and coded for themes that emerged. The documents and archival records were examined and analyzed. Saldaña's (2006) method of coding was also utilized to sort the themes that emerged for the study. In this approach, the themes were organized based on the frequency of occurrence and the triangulation with other data sources.

Results

The data from the preliminary analysis vary from the dean to faculty, staff, and students. The results from the dean's data show that the leadership characteristics of exemplary academic deans in higher education stem from the PC's (passion & commitment) of academic leadership responsibilities that are embedded in five traits that include character, integrity, trust, excellence, and stability (CITES). According to the dean, "An exemplary academic dean must have passion for what the school and the university is all about and must be committed to the development of students, faculty and staff. They must lead with an impeccable character that inspires followers, with strong morals and ethics. That individual must be trusted by all the stakeholders and must lead with a passion for excellence." The dean stated that stability is a mark of commitment to student and faculty growth and development. 'There is a difference in the behavior of academic deans in terms of commitment, there are those who are committed to only the position and earnings, those deans will be deans for one day with the aspirations of becoming the provost the

next day, and the president or chancellor in three days. Those are the microwave mentality leaders that are never committed to the growth of their department, faculty and students. They are the overly ambitious leaders that will separate from the university in the middle of a semester for another position." The dean emphasized that an institution should never invest in those types of individuals because of the cost associated with turnovers. He continued to state that exemplary deans must have the ability to recruit non-microwave chairs and faculty that will maintain the stability of the department.

The results from the interview data from faculty, staff, and students revealed that the leadership characteristics of exemplary academic deans vary and ranged from from building a caring and supportive relationship, passion for excellence, commitment to build a lasting legacy, to courageous politician, and fairness implementer. As one faculty emphasized "an exemplary dean is one that cares about every member of the department and is courageous enough to use a consistent yardstick to assess faculty productivity and merit in a fair and unbiased manner." As one staff participant explained, "a great dean is one that inspires others to yawn for excellence." One retired faculty stated that fairness is the key to faculty happiness. One student stated that when a dean shows that he cares about students' learning and growth, the likelihood that students will perform is greater than lack of concern and caring attitude from the academic deans.

When asked to describe some destructive behaviors of academic deans, the results ranged from lack of passion and commitment, autocratic leadership style, closed-mindedness, to inflexibility. One faculty emphasized that some deans tend to believe that they are the "boss "of the college and forget that they were once faculty as soon as they get into the role of a dean. One retired faculty stated that some academic leaders in higher education tend to be intimidated by other highly competent faculty which leads to" jealous destructive behaviors of iron fist leadership style". "A major destructive behavior for some of the young deans in higher education is their lack of passion and commitment to anything but themselves." It is interesting to note that a majority of the participants cited lack of passion, commitment, and caring as the most destructive behaviors of academic deans in higher education.

Conclusion, Implications, and Recommendations

In this study, the leadership characteristics of academic deans at a historically Black university were examined. One striking observation that emerged from this study was that the dean that participated in this study served in that role for more than forty years and some of the other participants were either students or faculty and staff under his deanship. The findings from the study show that strong passion and commitment to the growth and development of students, faculty, and staff are important leadership characteristics of academic deans in higher education as well as stability in the position. The findings from this study have policy and practical implications. Due to the high turnover rates in the position of deans at the university in this bounded instrumental case study, it is critical to implement university-wide hiring policy that will focus on hiring and developing academic deans that will maintain the stability of the school or college. In this era of accountability and budget cuts with increased demands to retain students, the role of an exemplary academic dean has never been more important than now.

This case study yielded triangulated results on the leadership characteristics and destructive behaviors of academic deans in higher education. Due to the low sample size from this study, it is recommended that further studies be carried out with more participants for stronger results. It is also recommended that the use of mixed-method approach may yield stronger results. Since this case study was bounded in one public university, it is recommended that multiple sites that will include both public and private universities and colleges be utilized for further studies.

References

Bess, J., & Wally, S. (2003). Strategic decision speed and firm performance. *Strategic Management Journal*, 24(11), 1107-1129.

Butler, J. (2007). The essential academic dean: A practical guide to college leadership. San Francisco, CA: Jossey Bass.

Creswell. J. (2009). *Research design: qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods approaches (2nd ed.)*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Guba, E. & Lincoln, Y. (1994). *Competing paradigms in qualitative research*. In N. Denzin & Y. Lincoln. (Eds.), *SAGE Handbook of qualitative research*, (pp. 105-117). Tousand Oaks, CA: SAGE

Denzin, N. (1978). *The research act: A theoretical introduction to sociological methods.* New York: McGraw-Hills

Denzin, N., & Lincoln, Y. (2003). *The landscape of qualitative research: Theories and issues* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Drucker, P. (1999). *Management challenges for the 21st century*. New York: HarperCollins. Gilley, A. (2005). *The manager as a change leader*. Westport, CT: Praeger.

Gmelch, W., Wolverton, M., Wolverton, M. L., & Sarros, J. (1999). The academic dean: An imperial species searching for balance. *Research in Higher Education, 40*(5), 717-740.

Greenberg, M. (2006). The power of academic citizenship. *The Chronicles of Higher Education,* 52(22), B29.

Hersey, P., & Blanchard, K. (1982). *Management of organizational behavior: Utilizing human resources* (4th ed.). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Howkins, J. (2001). *The creative economy*. London: Penguin Books.

Johnson, B., & Christenson, L. (2004). *Educational research: Quantitative, qualitative, mixed approaches, (2nd ed.)*. Boston, MA: Pearson Education Inc.

Kotter, J. (1990). A force for change: How leadership challenge differs from management. NY: The Free Press.

Montex, J., Wolverton, M., & Gmelch, W. (2002). The roles and challenges of deans. The Review.

Patton, M. (2002). Qualitative evaluation and research methods. (3rd Ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Shields, C.M. (2010). Transformative leadership: working for equity in diverse contexts. *Educational Administration Quarterly, 46*(4), 558-589. doi: 10.1177/0013161x10375609

Yukl, G. (1998). *Leadership in organizations* (4th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Wolverton, M., Gmelch, W., Wolverton, M.L., & Sarros, J. (1999). Stress in academic leadership: U.S and Australian department chairs/heads. *The Review of Higher Education,* 22(2), 165-185.

Wolverton, M., Wolverton, M.L., & Gmelch, W. (1999). The impact of role conflict and ambiguity on academic deans. *Journal of Higher Education,* 70(2), 80-106.

The Relationship between Culture and Leader-Member Exchanges (LMX)

Mark Villanueva
Southwest Research Institute

Carol A. Wheeler
Our Lady of the Lake University

Introduction

Both national and organizational culture help to determine which personal values should be pursued and what sort of gratification should be sought. Culture sets normative standards to judge and select among alternative behaviors and courses of action. The term culture has many meanings and definitions; and in its simplest form, it means the way we do things. The way we do things is a programing of the mind that started at birth. The way we think, bring values, norms, and institutions to the forefront of our cross-cultural upbringing. Hofstede (2001) offers the most influential framework for differentiation of nations in relation to their cultural values.

Organizational culture or the way companies do things, influences workers behavior and performance in organizations. Schein (2004) explains that one of the most powerful mechanisms that leaders have available for communicating what they believe in or what they care about is what they systematically pay attention to. This can mean what a leader notices, measures, controls, and rewards or punishes. This is a powerful way of communicating a leaders' message if the leader is aware of this process and if the leader's behavior is consistent with the process. If the leader is not aware and if his behavior is not consistent, then subordinates will have difficulty in determining what message the leader is trying to convey.

The tie that binds the organization and the employee is the leader and his/her leadership style. The leader-member exchange (LMX) theory of leadership explains the dynamics which shows that leaders do not exhibit the same leadership styles to all subordinates, but rather develops different types of exchange relationships with different employees. This may range from high quality exchanges based on trust and liking to low quality exchanges based on formal job requirements and employment contracts (Liden and Graen, 1980). LMX is premised on the notions of social exchange and reciprocity.

Literature Review

Hofstede's (2001) cross-cultural value analysis and cross-cultural study of motivations and organizational dynamics included subsidiaries of one large international business organization (IBM) in 72 countries. Hofstede's research was the first global study that considered differences in organizational culture based on geographical location and societal beliefs and values. Hofstede introduced the concept of the five cultural dimensions that any society copes with, but for which solutions may differ. Hofstede's five dimensions are power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism, femininity versus masculinity, and long-term versus short-term orientation.

The Leader Member Exchange theory was first described by Dansereau, Graen, & Haga (1975), Graen & Cashman (1975), and Graen (1976). First studies of LMX called Vertical Dyad Linkage (VDL) focused on the vertical linkages leaders formed with each of their followers. A leader's relationship with a subordinate is viewed as a series of vertical dyads. Researchers found two general types of linkages (or relationships):
1. Those based on the in-group (Relationships marked by mutual trust, respect, liking, and reciprocal influence, receive more information, influence, confidence, and concern than out-group members).
2. Those based on the out-group (Relationships marked by formal communication based on job descriptions).

Methodology Overview

This research study examined the relationship between cultural values and leader-member exchanges of managers and employees. This study utilized *Geert Hofstede's Value Survey Module 2008* (VSM 08) Questionnaire to measure culture and cultural values. *George Graen's Leader Member Exchange (LMX) 7* Questionnaire was used to measure quality leader-member exchanges between the manager and the follower.

Results Overview

The population included a convenience sample of 1991 employees from a south Texas research organization in San Antonio, TX. Four hundred and ninety-two (N = 492) employees (24.7%) returned the surveys. Of this number, 485 (24.3 %) were usable.

Discussion of Findings

Null Hypothesis One

Null hypothesis one explored the relationship between leader-member exchange (LMX) and cultural values (power distance) in a south Texas research organization beyond the impact of gender, age, ethnicity, education level, work experience, and job title/position.

Table 1 Model Summary Null 1 Power Distance

Model	R	R Square	R Square Change	Beta	Partial Correlation	df1	df2	Sig.
1	.118[a]	.014	.014	.118	.118	1	458	.011
2	.213[b]	.045	.031	.180	.178	1	457	.000
3	.249[c]	.062	.014	-.119	-.121	1	455	.009

a. Ethnicity
b. Ethnicity, Education
c. Ethnicity, Education, LMX Scores

Power distance refers to the extent to which the less powerful members of the institutions and organizations within a country expect and accept that power is distributed unequally (Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005, p. 46). Results from a linear regression on power distance gave significant results in three areas: ethnicity accounted for 1.4% of the variance explained ($p<.05$), education accounted for an additional 3.1% of the variance explained ($p<.05$), and LMX score accounted for an additional 1.4% of the variance explained ($p<.05$). LMX predicted a significant relationship with power distance. A One-Way ANOVA found no significance between the three ethnic groups. A contributing factor may be the low percentage of variance explained (1.4%). Another contributing factor may have been the overwhelming number of Caucasian employees that responded to this survey. Seventy percent of the respondents were Caucasian and this result may have skewed the data.

A One-Way ANOVA found a significance difference $F(4,472) = 6.006$. $p = .000$ between the education level groups. A post hoc Tukey pair-wise comparison of means found significant difference between employees with some college and employees with a doctorate degree $p = .000$ and a significant difference between employees with some college and employees with a master's degree $p = .046$, respectively. This indicates employees with less education have a preference for a work environment with higher power distance than employees with higher education. A high power distance score indicates the acceptance and expectation that power will not be distributed equally. These results were consistent with Hofstede's (2001) study which indicated higher educated employees tended to produce lower power distance scores. In fact, in power distance, education was the dominant factor. For every additional year of formal education the power distance score was reduced by 18 points (Hofstede, 2001).

Lastly, there was a significant relationship between LMX scores and power distance ($p = .009$, $\beta = -.119$). This indicates employees with higher LMX scores have a preference for a work environment with lower power distance. A low power distance score indicates they expect power to be distributed equally. The contributing factor may be that leaders and employees who have a high LMX have a positive relationship.

The results of this question are important because they show that higher educated employees prefer low power distance in the organization. High leader-member exchange equates to higher mutual trust and respect, confirming Hofstede's (2001) study.

Null Hypothesis Two

Null hypothesis two explored the relationship between leader-member exchange (LMX) and cultural values (collectivism/individualism) in a south Texas research organization beyond the impact of gender, age, ethnicity, education level, work experience, and job title/position. A high individualism score indicates the group is individualistic and that everyone is expected to look after himself/herself and his/her immediate family. Contrasting this is a low individualism score which indicates individuals from birth are integrated into strong, cohesive in-groups, which throughout a person's lifetime continue to protect him/her in exchange for unquestioning loyalty (Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005).

Table 2 Model Summary Null 2 Individualism/Collectivism

Model	R	R Square	R Square Change	Beta	Partial Correlation	df1	df2	Sig.
1	.198[a]	.039	.039	-.198	-.198	1	458	.000
2	.226[b]	.051	.012	-.108	-.110	1	457	.018
3	.249[c]	.086	.035	-.191	-.193	1	456	.000

a. Age
b. Age, Ethnicity,
c. Age, Ethnicity, Education

Results from a linear regression on collectivism/individualism found significance in three areas: age accounted for 3.9% of the variance explained ($p<.05$), ethnicity accounted for an additional 1.2% of the variance explained ($p<.05$), and education accounted for an additional 3.5% of the variance explained ($p<.05$). The significant results in age, ($p = .000$, $\beta = -.198$) indicate the older employees prefer a work environment that is less individualistic than younger employees. Individuals from birth are integrated into strong, cohesive in-groups, which throughout a person's lifetime continue to protect him/her in exchange for unquestioning loyalty. This is consistent with Hofstede's (2001) study which found that as people age they become less individualistic.

A One-Way ANOVA found a significant difference ($F(2,480) = 3.906$. $p = .021$) between the three ethnic groups; a post hoc Tukey pair-wise comparison of means found a significant difference between Caucasian's and Hispanics $p = .021$. This indicates Caucasians prefer a more individual work environment than Hispanics. This result is similar to Hofstede's table of collectivism/ individualism scores as emphasized in his 2001 study. The GLOBE Study (House et al, 2004), another cultural instrument, showed that countries with a high Caucasian population are more individualistic; while countries with a large Hispanic population tend to be more collective. Lastly, there was a significant difference between education and collectivism/ individualism $p = .000$. A One-Way ANOVA resulted in a significant difference ($F(4,472) = 8.577$. $p = .000$) between the education level groups. A post hoc Tukey pair-wise comparison of means found significance between employees with some college and employees with a doctorate degree $p = .041$, employees with a master's degree $p = .003$, and employees with a bachelor's degree $p = .005$. A significant difference was also found between high school graduates and employees with a doctorate degree $p = .009$, employees with a master's degree $p = .002$, and employees with a bachelor's degree $p = .003$. This indicates employees with doctorate, master's, and bachelor's degrees prefer a more individualistic work environment than employees with some college or high school graduates. These results are also in line with Hofstede's study (2001, p. 248) that indicates education and individualism are closely linked.

The results of this question are important because they confirm Hofstede's (2001) study on age and individualism. The results on ethnicity and education level merit further study.

Null Hypothesis Three

Null hypothesis three explored the relationship between leader-member exchange (LMX) and cultural values (femininity/masculinity) in a south Texas research organization beyond the impact of gender, age, ethnicity, education level, work experience, and job title/position. A high masculinity score indicates the group is masculine, gender roles are clearly distinct; men are supposed to be assertive, tough, and focused on success. Women are supposed to be modest, tender, concerned with quality of life. Contrasting this is low masculine score which indicates a group that is labeled feminine. Gender roles overlap and both genders share responsibilities (Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005).

Table 3 Model Summary Null 3 Masculinity/Femininity

Model	R	R Square	R Square Change	Beta	Partial Correlation	df1	df2	Sig.
1	.103[a]	.011	.011	-.103	-.103	1	458	.027

a. Age

Results from a linear regression showed a significant relationship between age and femininity/masculinity; age accounted for 1.1% of the variance explained ($p<.05$). The significant result indicates older employees prefer a less masculine work environment than younger employees. Gender roles overlap and both genders share responsibilities. This result is in line with Hofstede's study (2001, p. 289) which indicates decreasing masculinity with age. Moreover after age 50 the gap between women and men's masculinity scores close completely (Hofstede, 2001).

The results of this question are important because older workers prefer a less masculine work environment than younger employees, confirming Hofstede's (2001) study on age and masculinity.

Null Hypothesis Four

Null hypothesis four explored the relationship between leader-member exchange (LMX) and cultural values (uncertainty avoidance) in a south Texas research organization beyond the impact of gender, age, ethnicity, education level, work experience, and job title/position. Uncertainty avoidance measures the level a group feels threatened by unknown situations (Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005). A low uncertainty avoidance score indicates the group's anxiety level is low and it is not threatened by ambiguous situations. Contrasting this is a high uncertainty avoidance score which indicates a great level of anxiety resulting from unknown situations.

Table 4 Model Summary Null 4 Uncertainty Avoidance

Model	R	R Square	R Square Change	Beta	Partial Correlation	df1	df2	Sig.
1	.108[a]	.012	.012	.108	.108	1	458	.021
2	.161[b]	.026	.014	.122	.121	1	457	.009

a. Ethnicity,
b. Ethnicity, Education

Results from a linear regression showed a significant result between ethnicity, education, and uncertainty avoidance. The linear regression showed a significant result between ethnicity and uncertainty avoidance; ethnicity accounted for 1.2% of the variance explained ($p<.05$). A One-Way ANOVA found no significance between ethnic groups. A contributing factor that may contribute to a non-significant finding may be the low variance and the disproportionate number of minorities responding to this survey. The linear regression also showed a significant relationship between education and uncertainty avoidance; education accounted for an additional 1.4% of the variance explained ($p<.05$). A One-Way ANOVA indicated a significant relationship between groups $p = .038$. A Post Hoc Tukey pair-wise comparison of means indicated participants with some college have a preference for a work environment with higher uncertainty avoidance than participants with master's degrees. Hofstede (2001) did not measure the relationship between education level and uncertainty avoidance, so we cannot make a direct comparison.

Further study is needed to clarify the impact of ethnicity on uncertainty avoidance. The results though significant, do not give conclusive information on how ethnicity or education impacts uncertainty avoidance.

Null Hypothesis Five

Null hypothesis five explored the relationship between leader-member exchange (LMX) and cultural values (long-term orientation/short-term orientation) in a south Texas research organization beyond the impact of gender, age, ethnicity, education level, work experience, and job title/position. Long-term orientation versus short-term orientation refers to the fostering of virtues oriented toward future rewards, in particular, perseverance and thrift. In contrast, short-term orientation refers to fostering virtues related to the past, in particular, respect for tradition, preservation of face, and fulfilling social obligations. They care more about immediate gratification than long-term fulfillment (Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005).

Table 5 Model Summary Null 5 Long Term Orientation/Short Term Orientation

Model	R	R Square	R Square Change	Beta	Partial Correlation	df1	df2	Sig.
1	.118[a]	.014	.014	-.118	-.118	1	458	.011
2	.186[b]	.034	.020	-.146	-.142	4	456	.002
3	.221	.045	.011	-.104	-.106	1	454	.024

a. Work Experience (years)
b. Work Experience (years), Education
c. Work Experience (years), Education, LMX Scores

Results from a linear regression showed a significant relationship between work experience (years), education, LMX, and long term orientation/short term orientation. Results from the linear regression showed a significant relationship between work experience (years) and long-term orientation/short-term orientation; work experience (years) accounted for 1.4% of the variance explained ($p<.05$). This indicates employees with more work experience (years) prefer a work environment that is less long-term oriented. The linear regression also indicated a significant relationship between education and long-term orientation/short-term orientation; education accounted for an additional 2.0% of the variance explained ($p<.05$). A post hoc One-Way ANOVA found no significance between education level means. Lastly, there was a significant relationship between LMX scores and long-term orientation/short-term orientation; LMX accounted for an additional 1.1% of the variance explained ($p<.05$). This indicates employees with higher LMX prefer a work environment that is less long-term oriented.

The results of null hypothesis five were surprising. A contributing factor may be the definition of short-term orientation. Short-term orientation refers to the fostering of virtues oriented toward future rewards, in particular, perseverance and thrift. In contrast, short-term orientation refers to fostering virtues related to the past, in particular, respect for tradition, preservation of face, and fulfilling social obligations. Based on the history of the research organization, I can see how the employees have a preference for a short-term oriented work environment. The employees have a respect for their tradition, for saving face or keeping their reputation, and for fulfilling social obligations or for keeping their commitments.

The results of this question are important because there is a lack of research on the relationship between work experience (years), leader-member exchange, and short-term orientation. In addition, the lack of significance in education levels merits further study.

Limitations of Findings

Limitations to generalizing this study and their findings include sample size, type of organization, education level, and geographic location. This study explored the relationship between leader-member exchanges and cultural values of managers and employees at a southwest Texas research organization. Though inferences should not be made at the state or national level, inferences can be made at the research organizational level.

Another limitation to this study is Geert Hofstede's Values Survey Module 2008. This survey was designed to be used to survey individual countries or ethnic regional areas that may cross country borders.

References

Business Dictionary, (2013). Organizational Culture. Retrieved on October 1, 2013
http://www.businessdictionary.com/definition/organizational-culture.html

Dansereau, F., Graen, G., & Haga, W. (1975). A vertical dyad linkage approach to leadership within formal organizations: A longitudinal investigation of the role making process. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance,* 13: 46-78.

Graen, G. B., & Cashman, J. F. 1975. **A** role making model of leadership in formal organizations: A developmental approach. In J. G. Hunt & L. L. Larson (Eds.), *Leadership Frontiers:* 143-165. Kent, Ohio: Kent State University Press.

Graen, G. (1976) Role making processes within complex organizations. In M.D. Dunnette (Ed.), *Handbook of Industrial and Organizational Psychology,* (pp. 1201-1245), Chicago: Rand-McNally.

Hofstede, G., (2001). *Culture's Consequences: comparing values, behaviors, institutions, and organizations across nations* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Hofstede, G., & Hofstede G.J., (2005). *Culture's and organizations: Software of the mind.* New York: McGraw-Hill.

House R., Hanges P., Javidan M., Dorfman P., & Gupta V., (2004). Culture, leadership, and organizations. *The GLOBE Study of 62 societies.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage

Liden, R., and Graen, G. (1980). "Generalizability of the vertical dyad linkage model of leadership". ACAD Manage. Vol. 23, No. 3, pp. 451-465.

Schein, E., (2004). *Organizational Culture and Leadership.* San Francisco, CA. Jossey-Bass.

An Assessment of Volunteer Leaders' Competencies and Skills Following Leadership Training

Carley C. Morrison
Mississippi State University

Laura L. Greenhaw
Mississippi State University

Abstract

Because time and resources are limited in nonprofit organizations, the purpose of this study was to determine if identifying and training volunteer leaders is beneficial to the outreach of organizations they serve. Volunteers were assessed prior-to, and following, a leadership training based on their ability to demonstrate leadership competencies and skills. The results of the analysis indicated there was an increase in participants' demonstration of 31 of the 41 competencies taught in the training. However, it is unclear whether or not the change was a result of the leadership training. Researchers suggest selecting volunteers based on their potential to lead and providing training based on the needs of the volunteers and the goals and objectives of the organization.

Introduction

The United States has a strong foundation of volunteerism dating back to its start when Benjamin Franklin established the first volunteer fire department in 1736 (Rosenburg, 2013). However, it wasn't until the 19th century that formal volunteer-based organizations, such as the American Red Cross, began to form as "people became more aware of the disadvantaged" (Rosenburg, 2013, para.3). In 2014, over 25% of adults in the United States volunteered an estimated 8.7 billion hours at non-profit organizations, valued at an estimated $179.2 billion (Urban Institute, 2016). As the Baby Boomer generation continues to retire, the number of volunteers willing to serve their community organizations is expected to continue to increase (Delaney, 2012).

Although leadership behavior has been studied for centuries, over the last couple of decades people have become increasingly interested in the idea of leadership and its ability to improve personal, social, and professional situations (Northhouse, 2013). This is not only true in for-profit organizations but also in non-profit and volunteer-based organizations. Providing opportunities for volunteers to step up and lead is one way non-profit organizations can increase output without overworking its paid staff.

There is a significant amount of research exploring the need and importance of identifying and training leaders in for-profit organizations. Leaders influence how employees experience their daily job responsibilities and play a role in their overall happiness at work (Tuckey, Bakker, & Dollard, 2012). However, there is limited literature specific to broad volunteer leader competencies, identification of volunteer leaders, and the outcome of volunteer leader training on the volunteer's behavior as a leader in the organization. The purpose of this study was to assess

volunteer leaders' ability to demonstrate leadership skills and competencies prior to and following a volunteer leadership training.

Literature Review

Volunteer-based and non-profit organizations play a critical role in positive progress within a community (Texas AgriLife, n.d.). Moreover, as the economy continues to be a limiting factor, these organizations step-up and provide support to populations in need. Because non-profit and volunteer-based organizations do not generate a profit for their services, they rely heavily on volunteers to carry out their missions under the direction of one or more paid staff members. As the need for non-profit outreach increases so does the strain on these paid employees (Boyd, 2003). One solution to this problem is to shift the leadership roles of the paid staff to a select number of leaders within the volunteer workforce.

According to the Cooperation of National and Community Service (2007) and Gibelman and Gelman (2001), volunteer leadership within non-profit and volunteer-based organization is an underutilized resource in a sector of the community that usually struggles to find funding. Recent literature has suggested a shift in non-profit leadership structures from a top-down arrangement, to more of a team-based leadership approach distributing responsibility across all levels of the organization (Grant & Crutchfield, 2008; Small, 2007). Because of the recent shift in prescribed leadership structure there has been increased push for volunteer leadership development (Conger 1999; Intagliata, Ulrich, & Smallwoood, 2000; Collins, 2001; Day, 2001; Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002; Kincaid & Gordick, 2003; Martineau & Hannum, 2003; Sankar. 2003; Hernez-Broome & Hughes, 2004), as well as an increased interest, from organizations, in the identification and training of volunteer leaders (Kincaid & Gordick, 2003; Martineau & Hannum, 2003).

Currently, it is recommended that training be provided to volunteer leaders in a method and manner that fits the needs of the organization and the age and ability of the volunteers (Proctor, 2012; Conners 2011). However, Paton et al. (2007) point out the lack of, or outdated, volunteer leadership training materials currently available for non-profit and volunteer-based organizations. Because of this, volunteer-based organizations are in need of contemporary leadership training resources that meet the needs of the modern non-profit organization and volunteer.

The volunteer workforce is made up of individuals of all ages. Therefore, the content and delivery of volunteer training must be diverse to meet the needs of the specific volunteers engaged in the learning experience (Conners, 2011). According to Conners (2011) there are broad characteristics that define each generational group. Table 1 illustrates those characteristics and designates which ones apply to each generation.

Table 1
Generational characteristics of volunteers

	Boomers	Gen X	Millennials
Confident	X	X	X
Techno-Savvy		X	X
Team Oriented	X		X
Street Smarts			X
Globally Conscious		X	X
Diversity		X	X
Optimism	X		X
Entrepreneurial	X	X	X

Note. Baby Boomers (Boomers): born from 1946 to 1964.
Note. Generation Xers (Gen X): born from 1965 to 1980.
Note. Millennials: born from 1981 to 1999.

Moreover, in terms of values, each generational group can identify with certain ideals that are uniquely their own. In order for the volunteer training, and organization, to be successful the superiors must learn to communicate in a way each group will understand and identify with (Conners, 2011). Generational differences in values, as reported by Conner (2011), are displayed in Table 2.

Table 2
Generational differences in values systems

Veterans	Baby Boomers	Gen Xers	Millennials
Hard work	Personal fulfillment	Uncertainty	"What's next" On my terms
Duty	Optimism	Personal focus	
Sacrifice	Crusading causes	Live for today	Just show up
Thriftiness	Buy now/pay later	Save, save, save	Earn to spend
Work fast	Work efficiently	Eliminate the task	Do exactly what's asks

Note. Baby Boomers (Boomers): born from 1946 to 1964.
Note. Generation Xers (Gen X): born from 1965 to 1980.
Note. Millennials: born from 1981 to 1999.

The majority of the volunteer population who participated in this study fall into the Baby Boomer generation category. These volunteers have a variety of life experiences under their belt that have shaped them into a group that is uniquely different than the other generations mentioned above. For this reason, a volunteer leader training that allows ample discussion and activity time is both enriching and beneficial for the volunteers and the facilitators (Proctor, 2012). By allowing the volunteers to share their experiences a whole new dimension is brought to the learning experience for all (Proctor, 2012).

Theoretical Framework

The volunteer leader training was developed to provide an experiential learning opportunity for the individuals in attendance. The experiential learning theory, proposed by Kolb (1984), encompasses four fundamental stages. These stages include: concrete experience, reflective observation, abstract conceptualization, and active experimentation. As the learner progresses through the stages, knowledge is retained through the experience and practice (Kolb, 1984). With each new concept the participants engaged in an activity (CE) as an introduction, discussed the concept with their peers (RO), worked to apply the concept to a real-world situation (AC), and then concluded by demonstrating what they had learned (AE). The training materials were developed to meet the needs of the volunteer leaders who participated. The intent was to provide realistic applications of the leadership competencies and skills to situations the leaders have experienced in the past. The Experiential Learning Cycle can be seen in Appendix A.

Because of the limited amount of time for the training, competencies identified through a previous Delphi study were grouped into six families and presented to the participants. After an introduction to the competencies and skills, further discussion and hands-on activities were completed for the first four families. The participants were provided a handout with the 41 competencies and skills included in the six families as a reference during the training and after its completion.

Conceptual Framework

Recently researchers have studied how leadership in non-profit organizations has changed over the decades. Chait et al. (2011), observe a shift from leadership strategies to governing practices within boards of non-profit organizations. The definition of "governance", in the context of organizational leadership, is "the set of mechanisms designed to define the powers and influence the decisions of the leaders" (Turbide & Laurin, 2014, p. 415). The major issue with this shift is that there is little research into governance theory (Chait et al., 2011; Cornforth, 2003). Moreover, the little literature that does exist is mainly prescriptive containing lists of dos and don'ts and clarification on the roles of boards in non-profit organizations (Chait, et al., 2011). This causes governance to become a series of habits making boards unimodal when in fact they should be multitaskers with tool kits of leadership skills to handle an array of scenarios within the non-profit organization (Chait, et al., 2011).

Turbide and Laurin (2014) developed a conceptual framework for non-profit governance from recent literature published on the subject. This model has divided the contemporary literature into two categories. The first category includes publications that suggest because non-profit and for-profit organizations are structured differently; governance models aimed at for-profit organizations are not applicable to non-profit organizations (Turbide & Laurin, 2014). The second category contained studies that aimed to develop "improved governance practices specific for [non-profit organizations]" (Turbide & Laurin, 2014, p. 414).
The framework developed by Turbide and Laurin (2014) is interesting because it features the importance of establishing a management team to assume some of the responsibilities originally performed by the board. For the purpose of this study, the volunteer leaders are trained to assume some of the responsibilities currently being performed by the paid staff. Figure I illustrates the

framework Turbide and Laurin (2014) developed to guide governance in non-profit organizations.
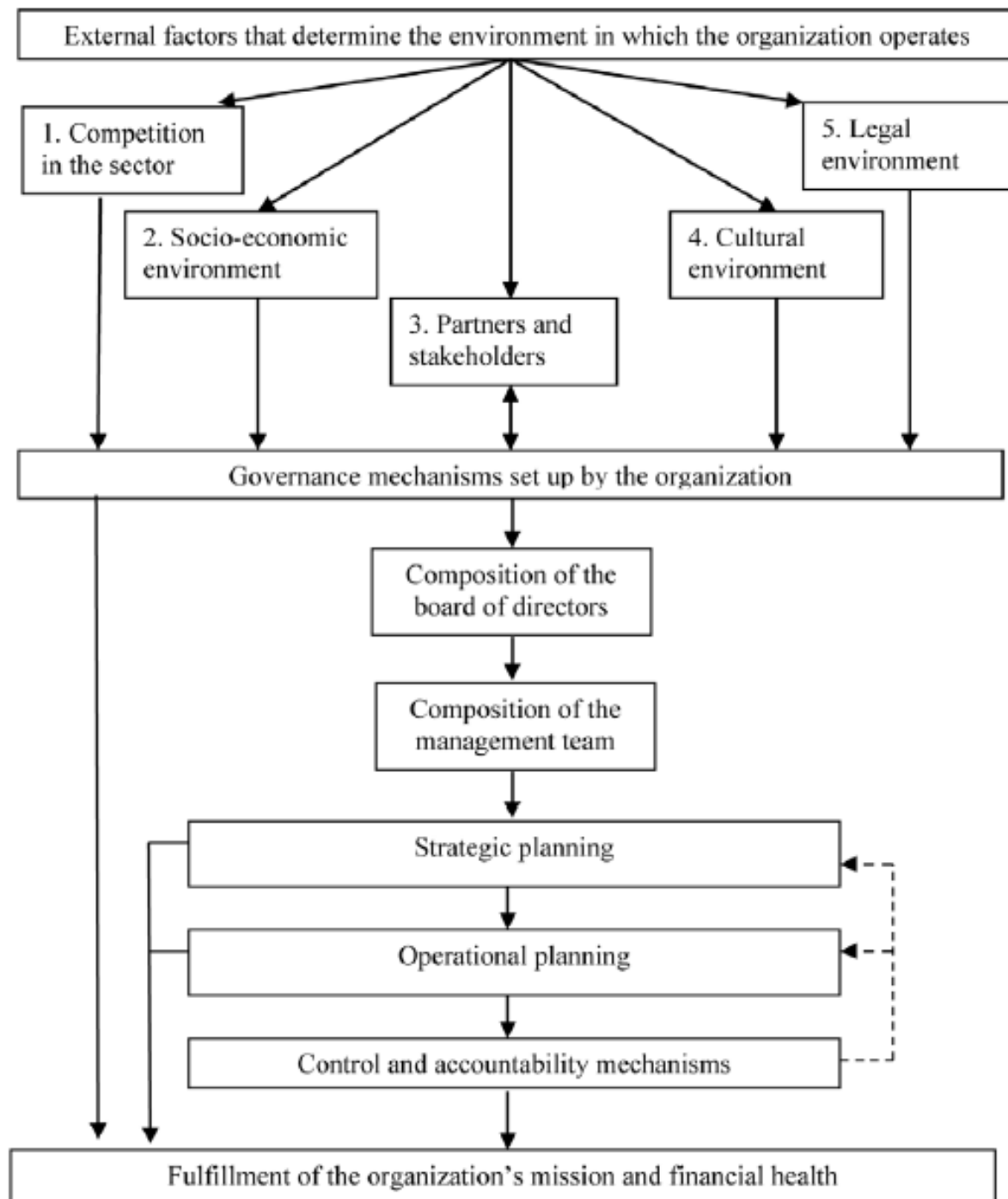

Figure 1. Governance framework based on dimensions that could impact organizational and financial health of non-profit organizations.

Methods

Volunteer Leader Training

Two experts in volunteer management and non-profit leadership collaborated with the researchers to develop the volunteer leadership workshop used as the treatment for this study. A Delphi study, conducted as an earlier portion of this larger study, identified 41 leadership competencies and skills volunteer directors desire in their volunteer leaders. Those 41 competencies and skills guided the development of the training. The training was delivered to volunteer leaders from Starkville Area Habitat for Humanity by the two experts on February 11, 2016. The workshop participants were selected as leaders of Starkville Area Habitat for Humanity by the organization's Executive Director. The selected volunteers were invited to the training via email and asked to provide written informed consent prior to participation.

Volunteer Leadership Assessment

Martinez- Pons (as cited by Lemons, 2013) defines the four steps in developing instrument items as: 1) defining the number of items included, 2) developing item prototypes, 3) determining the format of the items, and 4) actually writing the items. The instrument, developed from the Delphi study, utilized a matrix design with the names of the participants who attended the workshop as headers of columns across the top of the instrument. The number of items was dependent on the findings of the Delphi study conducted as part of the larger study. The competencies identified by the Delphi study were listed as statements down the left side of the instrument in rows. Respondents were asked to indicate to what extent they agreed with each statement in reference to the volunteers listed across the top of each column using a five-point rating scale where 0 = "never" and 4 = "all the time". An additional option of NA = "no answer", was also provided. At the conclusion of the assessment, participants were asked to indicate which volunteer group they belonged to (worksite team leaders, board members, or resale store volunteer).

The instrument was reviewed by a panel of experts in leadership education and volunteer management for content validity. The instrument was also reviewed by a sample of the population for face validity. In addition, Cronbach's Alpha coefficients were calculated, post hoc, and the pre- and pot-test assessments were found to be reliable. The reliability coefficients for the pre- and post-test are reported in Table 3.

Table 3

Cronbach's Alpha coefficients for the pre- and post-test leadership assessments

Leadership Assessment	Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient
Pre-test	.94
Post-test	.96

Originally, the assessment was designed to be administered by me, face-to-face, as a paper and pencil test. However, due to time constraints and the unpredictable schedules of the participants, the assessment was adapted and distributed via an emailed link to a Qualtrics online

questionnaire on February 8, 2016. To increase participation, an email reminder was sent February 22, 2016.

Participants received informed consent about participating in this research project at the beginning of the online questionnaire. Completing the volunteer leadership competencies assessment questionnaire indicated the participant's voluntary, informed consent. No risk of any type was foreseen and participants were assured of confidentiality.

The same procedures were used to collect post-test leadership competency assessment data six months following the volunteer leadership workshop on February 11, 2016. An initial email was sent with the link to the post-test assessment to the participants on August 1, 2016. To increase participation, an email reminder was sent one week after the first questionnaire was distributed to the participants (Dillman, 2011).

Data were analyzed using SPSS 22 statistical package. Although a *t*-test could be used to determine the significance of the change from pre- to post-test, due to study limitations, the significances may or may not be attributed to the training alone. Therefore, the differences in test scores between each pre- and post-test were analyzed using descriptive statistics (means, mean change, and standard deviations) to determine if the identified volunteer leaders demonstrated the desired leadership competencies following the volunteer leader training. Descriptive statistics were selected for data analysis due to the exploratory nature of this study and the threat of a ceiling effect from pre- to post-test assessment.

Results

Participants who were identified as leaders by Executive Director of the Starkville Area Habitat for Humanity were invited to the volunteer leaders training. Volunteers from the board members ($n = 5$), resale store ($n = 3$) and the worksite ($n = 1$) participated in the volunteer leader training workshop. Many of the participants were currently, or previously, involved with more than one of the three groups. All participants were retired and their experience working with Starkville Area Habitat for Humanity ranged from two to 12 years, with the average being 7.2 years of experience. Of the six participants included in the assessment, three were male and three were female.

Skills and Competency Assessment

For data analysis, a summated mean of each item on the pre- and post-test was calculated for all volunteer leaders' demonstration of each item as a group. Each item's pre-test mean was compared to its own post-test mean to determine any change from before the training workshop to after its completion. Because the results of this study are not meant to be generalized beyond the population of this study, the assumptions of normality, homogeneity, and independence were not checked. In addition, during data analysis, a factor analysis was conducted post hoc in an effort to further condense the list of leadership competencies and skills. The analysis resulted in all 41 competencies loading onto one factor, indicating they were all measuring a portion of our desired competency, volunteer leadership. Therefore no additional items were removed from the

analysis. Pre- and post-test responses for each item were compared and the mean change in demonstration of leadership skills and competencies is reported in Table 4.

Table 4

Change in volunteers' demonstration of leadership competencies and skills (N = 56)

Item	Pre-test			Post-test			
	n	*M*	*SD*	*n*	*M*	*SD*	ΔM
Assessment and evaluation skills	37	3.08	1.09	36	3.78	.54	0.70
Must have back-up plans and incentives for those who volunteer	40	2.93	.69	35	3.37	.73	0.44
Delegate team activities to achieve organizational goals	40	3.23	.66	37	3.64	.54	0.41
Ability to motivate	38	3.05	.84	43	3.44	.70	0.39
Conflict resolution	46	3.35	.74	36	3.64	.64	0.29
Driven	39	3.31	.86	39	3.59	.68	0.28
Enthusiastic	40	3.40	.81	43	3.67	.52	0.27
Encouraging	32	3.34	.60	32	3.56	.62	0.22
Willingness to go above and beyond	43	3.70	.51	43	3.91	.29	0.21
Ability to teach	37	3.38	.76	39	3.59	.50	0.21
Leadership	45	3.53	.69	43	3.72	.45	0.19
Resiliency	39	3.46	.72	39	3.64	.49	0.18
Ability to encourage	40	3.38	.63	43	3.56	.59	0.18
Good listener	37	3.41	.72	43	3.58	.54	0.17
Critical thinking	36	3.67	.68	43	3.81	.50	0.14
Patience	45	3.53	.63	43	3.67	.47	0.14
Confident	39	3.74	.44	43	3.86	.35	0.12
Facilitate participation by local internal and external stakeholders	36	3.50	.77	34	3.62	.49	0.12
Resourceful	37	3.68	.71	42	3.79	.42	0.11
Consideration	44	3.73	.54	39	3.82	.45	0.09
Knowledge of organization's operating procedures	40	3.65	.53	43	3.74	.58	0.09
Punctual	39	3.62	.71	40	3.70	.56	0.08
Able to work with minimal guidance and supervision	50	3.78	.51	43	3.86	.35	0.08
Initiative	45	3.78	.47	43	3.86	.41	0.08
Willingness to give oneself	45	3.73	.50	43	3.77	.43	0.04
Compassion	37	3.76	.43	43	3.84	.43	0.08
Communication skills	50	3.45	.74	43	3.53	.63	0.08
Service-oriented attitude	45	3.93	.33	41	4.00	.00	0.07
Willingness to serve	44	3.91	.29	43	3.98	.15	0.07
Lead by example	40	3.48	.78	43	3.53	.55	0.05
Organized	37	3.62	.55	39	3.64	.63	0.02
Personality	39	3.72	.56	43	3.74	.44	-0.02

Support team activities to achieve organizational goals	40	3.85	.48	44	3.82	.45	-0.03
Ability to network with others	50	3.64	.66	41	3.61	.49	-0.03
Scheduling and related documents	44	3.50	.66	34	3.47	.66	-0.03
Dependable	40	3.85	.36	44	3.81	.66	-0.04
Respect for others	45	3.91	.36	43	3.86	.41	-0.05
Dedication	45	3.96	.21	43	3.88	.32	-0.08
Identify strengths of other volunteers	41	3.59	.63	35	3.51	.51	-0.08
Possess integrity	45	4.00	.00	43	3.88	.32	-0.12
Positive attitude	45	3.82	.44	43	3.67	.47	-0.15

Note. Responses based on a 5-point rating scale with 4 = always and 0 = never.

Results of the pre-test revealed the six workshop participants demonstrated 39 of 41 leadership skills and competencies "often" to "all the time" with mean scores ranging from 3.05 to 3.96. "Possess integrity" was the only item to receive a mean value of "4.00" indicating participants possess integrity "all the time" ($M = 4.00$, $SD = .00$). Moreover, the only item to receive a mean score less than "3.00" was "must have back-up plans and incentives for volunteer" indicating the leaders sometimes to oftentimes demonstrate this skill ($M = 2.93$, $SD = .69$). Much like the pre-test, the results of the post-test also displayed high mean values (3.37 to 3.98) for all 41 competencies suggesting participants demonstrate the 41 leadership competencies and skills "often" following the leadership training workshop. Unlike the pre-test, none of the items received a mean rating of "4.00" indicating, according to the respondents, the participants were not demonstrating any of the items "all the time".

According to the data analysis, 31 of the 41 leadership competencies and skills experienced an increase in mean from the pre-test to post-test assessments. Demonstration of "assessment and evaluation skills" increased the most following the volunteer leader training ($\Delta M = 0.70$). The remaining 30 items' means increased from $\Delta M = 0.02$ to $\Delta M = 0.44$. Although demonstration of the majority of the leadership competencies and skills increased, ten of the 41 items decreased from pre- to post-test assessment. The decrease in demonstration ranged from $\Delta M = -0.02$ to $\Delta M = -0.15$. Although the results indicate an increase in demonstration of 31 leadership competencies, and a decrease in the remaining ten from pre-test to post-test, the change cannot be definitively attributed to the fact that the volunteer leaders participated in the training workshop.

Conclusions and Recommendations

The leadership training and assessment portion led to multiple conclusions about the impact and effectiveness of providing leadership training to volunteers. It is important to first address the exploratory nature of this study, and the limitations that accompany a study of this kind. The one-group pre-test/post-test design is susceptible to threats such as history, maturation, testing, instrumentation, and statistical regression. Maturation was not considered a major concern due to the age of the participants in the study.

Moreover, the threat of instrumentation was minimized by only the primary researcher administering the pre-test and post-test. Unfortunately, the threats to history, testing, and

statistical regression could not be controlled for. Additionally, researcher-created instruments can create bias; however, in an effort to control biases, the instrumentation was reviewed by a panel of experts for content validity and a sample of the population for face validity. Finally, the use of volunteer peers to assess the demonstration of the volunteer's leadership skills, experimental testing diffusion could have influenced the responses on the post-test leadership assessment. Due to these limitations, the conclusions drawn from this study should not be generalized beyond the population. Rather the findings and conclusions should stem interest into further research on this topic.

The volunteer leader training, developed by two experts in non-profit and volunteer-based organizations, provided opportunities for the participants to engage in an experience allowing them to discuss topics with their peers, form their own solutions to real-world problems within volunteer groups, and apply what they learned through hands-on activities. The format of the training provided a learning opportunity that followed directives from the current literature, including the importance of action-based learning (Hernez- Broome & Hughes, 2004) and the experiential learning model (Kolb, 1984). Additionally, the ample discussion time and activities match the preferred learning style of the participants' age group (Proctor, 2012).

The facilitators were only able to cover a portion of the competencies and skills in the allotted amount of time. However the leaders were provided a handout and overview of all 41 competencies and skills, and trained on techniques to encourage followers on a deeper level and give them a sense of purpose, with the goal of increased organizational commitment and trust through confidence and conviction (Hernez- Broome & Hughes, 2004). All in all, the training worked to equip leaders with the necessary skills to handle various scenarios within the organization, as suggested by Chait et al. (2011).

The findings from the pre-test were a bit unexpected, and contradictory to current research stating there is a lack of leadership within non-profit and volunteer-based organizations (Cooperation, 2007b; Gibelman & Gelman, 2001). The results of the pre-test indicated the volunteer leaders are already demonstrating the leadership competencies and skills at a high level. This finding created the potential for a ceiling effect and indicated there was no real room for improvement on the post-test assessment following the training.

As anticipated, the results of the post-test assessment revealed an overall increase of the leader's demonstration of the competencies and skills taught during the training; however, the increase from pre- to post-test assessment was not significant enough to attribute the gain to the training itself. This key finding suggests that volunteer training in this capacity may not be worth non-profit and volunteer-based organizations' already limited time and resources. Moreover, this finding is particularly interesting as the literature states organizations continue to fund leadership development with no indication of the actual impact on their volunteer workforce (Kincaid & Gordick, 2003; Martineau & Hannum, 2003).

Recommendations for Practitioners

Although there were several limitations restricting the findings of this study, practitioners can glean valuable information from what was uncovered. The outcome of this study does not bode

well for the idea that volunteer leader training will positively impact non-profit and volunteer-based organizations. However, it is recommended that practitioners continue to explore avenues that show investment in the volunteers who serve their organizations.

Although the training in this study did not include the follow-up workshops or activities that involved both volunteers and paid-staff, as suggested by Jamison (2003), it is recommended that an effort be made to provide opportunities for volunteers to collaborate with paid staff in skill-building activities. In addition, resources should be provided to volunteer leaders periodically, as a reminder of the organizations goals and their roles in achieving them.

If a volunteer leader training is the goal for identifying leaders within a group of volunteers, the director might consider selecting individuals with leadership potential, rather than those who are already showcasing those leadership skills. In addition, as Browne (2014) stated, some volunteers may not have the desire to step-up and take on a larger role within the group. Special care should be taken to identify volunteers who are willing and able to lead the group, or the potential for volunteer burn-out, or even drop-out, could result from the efforts. If the organization is experiencing a lack in non-profit leadership, expanding volunteer's ability to lead can combat retention problems and encourage more volunteers to continue their service (Culp et al., 2009; Cooperation, 2007b). Moreover, it is recommended that directors devote time to identify leadership competencies and skills that match the needs of the organization and the strengths of the volunteer leaders (Hernez-Broome & Hughes, 2004; Intagliata et al., 2000).

As a practitioner it is important to remember that assessment and evaluation of volunteer leaders is imperative in their growth as a leader, and the success of the organization. Based on the findings of this study a stand-alone peer evaluation may not be sufficient in gauging the performance of volunteer leaders. For this reason, it is recommended that practitioners employ a 360-degree evaluation method of the volunteer's leadership ability (Culp et al., 2009; Hernez-Broome, &Hughes, 2004). To conduct this type of evaluation multiple people from all levels of the organization provide feedback on the performance of the volunteer leader.

Recommendations for Further Research

Similar to the recommendations for practitioners, the limitations and exploratory design of this study led to multiple recommendations for further research. Due to the abundance of literature suggesting a need for leadership in non-profit and volunteer-based organizations, it is first recommended that this line of inquiry remain open and researchers continue to explore the viability and utility of identifying and training volunteers for leadership roles. Moreover, because leadership training materials are out-of-date and impractical for the structure of non-profit and volunteer-based organizations, along with current literature, it is recommended that efforts are made to provide relevant training materials to organizations who recognize the value of trained volunteer leaders (Paton, et al., 2007).

Turbide and Laurin (2004) proposed a framework for non-profit governance that served as a conceptual framework guiding this study. Although this study referenced the idea of establishing a volunteer "middle-management" or leadership team as a component of non-profit governance (Turbide & Laurin, 2004), the actual impact of a team of that sorts was not tested. It is

recommended that research be conducted to determine the impact of establishing a middle-tier team of volunteer leaders within a non-profit or volunteer-based organization.

Next, the findings from this study highlighted the challenges of collecting ample accurate data from a population that can, by its very nature, be particularly fluid, unpredictable, and inconsistent. For this reason, it is recommended this study be replicated using a different method of instrumentation and data collection. Much like the practitioner recommendations, it is suggested that researchers employ a mixed-methods 360-degree assessment of volunteer leaders' demonstration of leadership competencies and skills (Culp et al., 2009; Hernez-Broome, &Hughes, 2004). However, researchers must be aware of the potential for Hawthorne Effect when developing instrumentation and data collection methods.

Currently, research primarily focuses on the roles of the volunteer leader on the organization. It is recommended that research be conducted to determine the director's current roles in providing opportunities for volunteers to step-up and assume leadership positions. In addition, research should be conducted to determine what efforts are being made to support and evaluate those volunteers who are in leadership roles.

Finally, the limited funding available for this study did not allow for incentives for volunteers to participate. Although the volunteers included in this study willingly donate their time and services to the organization, without incentives for them to join the study, some participants were hesitant to commit, or lost interest partially through the duration of the study. It is recommended that compensation for volunteers to participate in future research studies be provided. Compensation can include both monetary and non-monetary incentives.

References

Boyd, B. L. (2003). Identifying competencies for volunteer administrators for the coming decade: A national Delphi study. Journal of Agricultural Education, 44(4), 47-56

Chait, R. P., Ryan, W. P., & Taylor, B. E. (2011). Governance as leadership: Reframing the work of nonprofit boards. John Wiley & Sons.

Collins. J. (2001). *Good to Great*. Harper Business: New York.

Connors, T. D. (Ed.). (2011). *The volunteer management handbook: Leadership strategies for success* (Vol. 235). John Wiley & Sons.

Cooperation of National & Community Service. (2007). Volunteering reinvented: Human capital solutions for the nonprofit sector. Retrieved from http://www.nationalservice.gov/pdf/07_0719_volunteering_reinvented.pdf

Conger, J. A. (1999). Charismatic and transformational leadership in organizations: An insider's perspective on these developing streams of research. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *10*(2), 145-179.

Cornforth, C. (Ed.). (2003). The governance of public and non-profit organizations. Routledge.
Day, D. V. (2001). Leadership development:: A review in context. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *11*(4), 581-613.

Delaney, C. R. (2012). *The influence of the "power of the ask" on volunteer levels in the United States.* Retrieved from https://login.proxy.library.msstate.edu/login?url=http://search.proquest.com/docview/1012372699?accountid=34815

Dillman, D. A. (2011). Mail and Internet surveys: The tailored design method--2007 Updated with new Internet, visual, and mixed-mode guide. John Wiley & Sons

Gibelman, M., & Gelman, S. R. (2001). Very public scandals: Nongovernmental organizations in trouble. *Voluntas: International Journal of Voluntary and Nonprofit Organizations*, *12*(1), 49-66.

Goleman, D., Boyatzis, R., & McKee, A. (2013). *Primal leadership: Unleashing the power of emotional intelligence.* Harvard Business Press.

Grant, H. M., & Crutchfield, L. (2008). The hub of leadership: Lessons from the social sector. *Leader to Leader*, *2008*(48), 45-52.

Hernez-Broome, G., & Hughes, R. J. (2004). Leadership Development: Past, Present, and Future. *Human Resource Planning*, *27*(1), 24-32.

Intagliata, J., Ulrich, D., & Smallwoood, N. (2000). Leveraging leadership competencies to produce leadership brand: Creating distinctiveness by focusing on strategy and results. *People and Strategy*, *23*(3), 12.

Kincaid, S. B., & Gordick, D. (2003). The return on investment of leadership development: Differentiating our discipline. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research*, *55*(1), 47.

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

Lemons, L. L. (2013). *Do I stay or do I go? A mixed-methods study of factors of attrition as reported by leavers of secondary agriculture programs* (Doctoral dissertation).

Martineau, J., & Hannum, K. (2004). Evaluating the impact of leadership development: A professional guide (No. 187). Center for Creative Leadership.

Northouse, P. (2013). Leadership: Theory and practice (6th ed.). Thousand Oaks, California: Sage Publications, Inc.

Paton, R., Mordaunt, J., & Cornforth, C. (2007). Beyond nonprofit management education: Leadership development in a time of blurred boundaries and distributed learning. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*.

Proctor, J., (2012, December 5). How to teach baby boomers [Web log post]. Retrieved from http://boomersnextstep.com/careers/how-to-teach-baby-boomers

Rosenburg, S. (2013, April, 18). Volunteering: History of an American value. Retrieved from http://blogs.volunteermatch.org/engagingvolunteers/2013/04/18/volunteering-history-of- an-american-value/

Sankar, Y. (2003). Character not charisma is the critical measure of leadership excellence. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, *9*(4), 45-55.

Small, E. E. (2007). Shared leadership: A social network analysis (Order No. 3286953). Available from ProQuest Dissertations & Theses Full Text. (304830042). Retrieved from http://search.proquest.com/docview/304830042?accountid=34815

Texas AgriLife Extension. (n.d.). Empowering volunteers to lead extension educational programs [PowerPoint slides]. Retrieved from odfiles.tamu.edu/odfiles/volunteer/.../empowering_volunteers.pptx

Tuckey, M. R., Bakker, A. B., & Dollard, M. F. (2012). Empowering leaders optimize working conditions for engagement: a multilevel study. Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 17(1), 15.

Turbide , J., & Laurin, C. (2014). Governance in the Arts and Culture Nonprofit Sector: Vigilance or Indifference?. *Administrative Sciences*, *4*(4), 413-432.
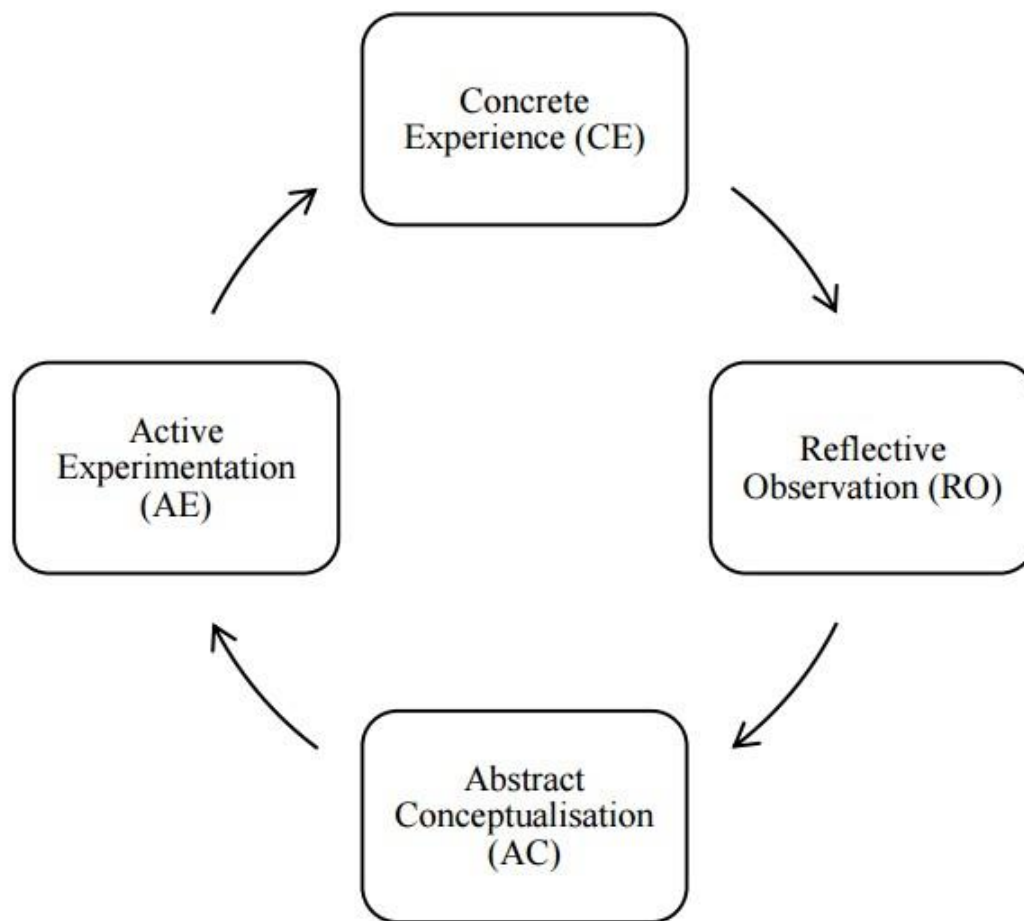
Appendix A

Figure 2. Kolb's Experiential Learning Model

Effect of Instructor Transformational Leadership on Student Learning Behavior

Alaba Apesin, Ph.D.
Saint Michael's College

Abstract

This study provides an insight into the relationship between instructors' transformational-leadership behaviors and students' learning behaviors. It investigates the effects of transformational teaching on student's motivation, positive attitude, and participation. Eight mathematics instructors and coordinators from a historically Black Institution were interviewed using semi-structured interviewing method to analyze this relationship. These participants provided their perceptions on the effect of their transformational-leadership behaviors on their students. The interview transcripts were analyzed by using thematic coding and guided by themes generated from existing research on transformational leadership (Bass, 1985). The findings indicated that instructors' transformational-leadership behaviors significantly influence students' learning behaviors.

Introduction

In this global economy, a nation's wealth is based on its ability to educate, attract, and retain a knowledgeable workforce. A talented workforce is important for economic competitiveness, technological advancement and innovations (Weber & Duderstadt, 2004). The educational institutions especially universities and colleges are the resource that can provide such competitive advantage. Statistical data indicate that ninety percent of the fastest growing jobs in a knowledge-driven economy will require some postsecondary education (U.S. Department of Education, 2006). However, the decline in the literacy and skill levels of college graduates over the last decade poses a big challenge (U.S. Department of Education, 2006). American businesses are having difficulties recruiting talented workforce because of skill gap and job fit problems among graduates (Gonzalez, 2011). There is increasing criticism about the quality of teaching in higher institutions as a result of their failure to adequately develop students (Pounder, 2014). For instance, a study conducted by Norton, Sonnemann, and Cherastidtham, 2013 on Australian students indicated that the students "rarely report being pushed to do their best work, are often not actively participating in classes, and have little interaction with academic staff outside of class" (p. 1). Another study conducted on American students indicated a relationship between instructor transformational teaching and student motivation and learning (Noland & Richards, 2014). Since the quality of teaching is important to student performance and their future potentials, higher institutions must provide teaching pedagogies that meet these needs (Pounder, 2014). These have resulted in reforms in higher institutions and increased expectation for higher student performance and quality teaching (Davies, 2005).

A more student-centered and innovative teaching pedagogy is needed to bridge the gap. This includes implementing effective teaching techniques that meet students' present and future needs, and encouraging active students' participation in their learning process. Studies show that instructors who exhibit transformational-leadership behaviors in their classrooms can improve their quality of teaching and subsequently influence students' performances. This is because

instructor transformational leadership correlate with the quality of teaching which influence student behavior towards learning, and student behavior correlates with performance in college (Allen, Robbin & Sawyer, 2010; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2006; Pounder, 2014). Furthermore, instructor transformational-leadership behavior is a significant predictor of student motivation, participation and attitude towards learning (Noland & Richards, 2014; Pounder, 2014). However, more researches are needed to increase this body of knowledge and analyze the impact of specific transformational-leadership factors on specific student learning behaviors (Bolkan & Goodboy, 2009; Sun & Leithwood, 2012).

In addition, transformational leadership research in educational context are primarily centered on the school leaders and not the instructors who have direct influence on student learning (Beauchamp, Barling, & Morton, 2011; Davies, 2005). Furthermore, most literature are limited to students' perceptions of the impact of instructors' transformational-leadership behaviors in the classroom. It is important to include instructors' perceptions because they hold the unique position of understanding and improving the impact of their different leadership behaviors on students' performances (Leithwood & Jantzi, 2006). These needs and the growing importance of instructors' leadership behaviors on students' performances led to the development of this research. Since quality of teaching correlates with instructor transformational-leadership behavior and student performance correlate with student motivation, attitude, and participation (Bolkan & Goodboy, 2009; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2006), this study investigates mathematics instructors' perceptions of their transformational-leadership behaviors on their student motivation, positive attitude and participation.

Literature Review

Instructors' Leadership Behaviors

Instructors can use different leadership styles to improve the learning outcomes of their students (Belisle, 2004). In their meta-analysis, Robinson, Lloyd and Rowe (2008) described instructional and transformational leadership as the leadership concepts that dominated empirical research in the educational leadership in K-12. In higher institutions, studies indicate that instructors need to use transformational-leadership behaviors to revolutionize teaching and increase students' performance (Pounder, 2014). The changing global environment resulting from increasing technological advancement and information abundance have transformed the traditional role of instructors to that of expert curriculum builders, networkers and partnership builders who will prepare students for the future and are responsible for improving students' learning (Belisle, 2004; Canston, 2000). Instructors need to be transformational leaders in order to succeed and be effective in their new roles (Belisle, 2004). They can exhibit transformational leadership through different behaviors. For instance, 166 undergraduates from a midsized Eastern university indicated satisfaction in the following observed transformational-leadership behaviors exhibited by their instructors (Bolkan & Goodboy, 2011).

- Charisma or idealized influence can be observed through instructor's interest and confidence in students, enthusiasm, humor, caring, availability, and content relevance.

- Individualized consideration can be observed through instructor's availability, individualized feedback, personalized content, verbal immediacy, promoting participation, and conveying interest.
- Intellectual stimulation can be observed through instructor's interactive teaching styles, challenging students, encouraging independent thoughts, promoting participation, humor and content relevance.

Student Learning.

Traditional cognitive standardize testing is no longer adequate in predicting student's performance because it does not include the equally important non-cognitive learning behaviors. This study focuses on the learning behaviors that affect student performance. They include motivation, positive attitude, and participation, which increase students' academic performances, and enhance their abilities to use cognitive skills such as GPA and intellectual abilities (Sandberg & Bradley, 2011; Allen, Robbins, & Sawyer, 2010; Noland & Richards, 2014). Students' behaviors toward learning are necessary for academic success and cognitive skill development because they facilitate cognitive learning (Sandberg & Bradley, 2011). As students' motivation, positive attitudes, and participation increases, their cognitive learning increases (Nonaka & Takeuchi, 1995). This study focus on these variables (i.e., motivation, positive attitude and participation), which are called students' learning behaviors or behaviors toward learning.

- Motivation represents students' efforts to increase their academic knowledge and skills (Bolkan & Goodboy, 2009)
- Positive attitude represents students' receptiveness toward learning a particular course (Noland & Richards, 2014).
- Participation describes the comments or questions that students raise in class, which indicate their interests and likelihood to perform better in exams (Bolkan & Goodboy, 2009).

Transformational-Leadership Behavior and Non-Cognitive Learning Outcome.

Teaching evaluation is widely used to measure an instructor's teaching performance. Instructors that exhibit transformational leadership behaviors in the classroom are perceived as effective because they enhance their student learning behaviors such as motivation, positive attitudes and participation. These learning behaviors increase students' efforts toward their learning process and their likelihood to succeed in college (Gomez, 2006). The study conducted by Bolkan and Goodboy (2009) on 165 college students found that charisma (or idealized influence) indicated high correlation with motivation (.85) and behaviors (.75), while individualized consideration indicated high correlation with motivation (.75) and behaviors (.69). Noland and Richards' (2014) study on 255 college students indicated a positive correlation between transformational teaching and student motivation (.53**). Likewise, their multiple regression analysis indicated that transformational leadership accounted for 28% of the variance in student motivation [$R2$ =.282, $F(1, 254) = 99.22$, $p < .01$)]. The beta weight indicated that individualized consideration ($\beta = .23$, $p < .01$) and inspirational motivation ($\beta = .23$, $p < .01$) were the only two factors that explained the variance in student motivation. Another extant literature on the effects of instructors' transformational leadership is Bolkan and Goodboy's (2011) content analysis on the

open-ended questionnaire completed by 166 college-students. These students reported that instructors promote students' participation through intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration. Finally, Pounder's (2008) study on 281 final-year business students that evaluated teaching and effectiveness of classroom leadership, indicated a correlation between classroom leadership and student performance, but no correlation between teaching evaluation and student performance. While most extant researches focus on students' perceptions, this study investigates instructors' perceptions on the impact of their transformational-leadership behaviors on their students' motivation, positive attitudes, and participation.

Hypotheses

1. The instructor's transformational-leadership behavior (charisma, individualized consideration and intellectual stimulation) positively influences students' motivation towards learning the course.
2. The instructor's transformational-leadership behavior (charisma, individualized consideration and intellectual stimulation) positively influences students' positive attitudes towards learning the course.
3. The instructor's transformational-leadership behavior (charisma, individualized consideration and intellectual stimulation) positively influences students' participation in all course works.

Methods

Participants

The participants, who were selected through purposive sampling, were mathematics instructors and coordinators from a historically Black Institution. These instructors provided their unique perceptions on the effect of their transformational leadership behaviors on their students. They were two females and six males, two Caucasians, one African American, and four naturalized American citizens. Their college teaching experiences ranged from two to thirty years, with a majority having over ten years' experiences. Four of the participants are course coordinators and curriculum developers for the mathematics department.

Procedure

Before conducting the study, each participant was informed about the purpose of the project, his or her rights and the ethical considerations (voluntary participation, confidentiality, anonymity and informed consent) followed to protect his or her privacy. Eight mathematics instructors were interviewed using a semi-structured interview protocol that focuses on the impact of their leadership behaviors on their students' motivation, positive attitudes and participation. The protocol development was guided by Bolkan and Goodboy (2011), Noland and Richard (2014) Pounder (2014) revisions of transformational-leadership factors as shown below:

- Charisma or idealized influence denotes instructor's concern for student progress, including the ability to build relationship with students, influence them, and instill confidence in them. This behavior is exhibited through having confidence in students,

caring and treating them with respect or as equals, and successfully communicating course relevance to them.

- Individualized consideration denotes instructor's effort to treat students as individuals by being available to students, knowing and showing interest in them, understanding their histories and needs, providing special consideration and encouraging their participation.
- Intellectual stimulation denotes instructor's effort to promote creative thinking, problem-solving and intelligence building through independent and creative thinking, challenging students, implementing student-focused and interactive teaching, and providing conducive class atmosphere.

Students' learning behaviors were guided by the Bolkan and Goodboy (2009), and Noland and Richards (2014) descriptions of the following performance-enhancing learning indicators:

- Motivation represent students' efforts and desires to increase their knowledge and skills in a particular course.
- Positive attitudes represent receptiveness toward learning a particular course, in a particular context.
- Participation represents the contributions that students make in class or group assignments.

Although the interview questions was based on the above contents, participants were prompted with additional questions to provide in-depth information of their perceptions on the subject matter. Each audiotaped interview, which took about forty-five minutes, was transcribed and reviewed by the respective participants (i.e. member checking).

Data Analysis

The researcher conducted thematic analysis on the interview transcripts to identify themes or phrases that exhibit transformational leadership behaviors (such as charisma or idealized influence, individualized consideration, and intellectual stimulation), and student learning behaviors (such as motivation, positive attitude and participation). The thematic coding were guided by prior research conducted by Bolkan and Goodboy (2011), Noland and Richards (2014), and Pounder (2014). The identified themes or phrases for each construct (i.e., transformational leadership and student learning behaviors) are indicated on table 1 and 2 respectively.

Results

The participants provided 160 responses on transformational-leadership behaviors with 62 responses on charisma, 72 responses on individualized consideration, and 26 responses on intellectual stimulation. As shown in table 1, the instructors frequently exhibited four dimensions of transformational-leadership behaviors by promoting participation (14.38%), implementing interactive teaching styles (13.75%), caring about students (11.88%), and relating course contents to students' lives (11.25%). As shown on table 2, most instructors indicated that their individualized consideration had the greatest influence on student motivation (40.54%), positive attitude (10.81%) and participation (16.22%). Charisma influenced student motivation (13.51%)

and positive attitudes (8.11%), and intellectual stimulation influenced student motivation (5.40%) and positive attitudes (5.40%). Instructors attributed the high level of student motivation to promoting class participation, content relevance, and interactive teaching style. Likewise, they believed that students' positive attitudes can be increased through class participation, content relevance, and group works.

Table 1

Frequency of Instructors Transformational-Leadership Behaviors.

Transformational Leadership Behaviors	Themes/Codes	Sample Comments	Frequency	Relative Frequency (%)
1. Charisma or Idealized Influence	• Interested and confident about students	"1 try to establish a good rapport with my students,"	14	8.75
	• Enthusiastic about teaching	"I show my students my own enthusiasm for teaching…"	3	1.88
	• Cares about students	"Those who want to pass; I look for many ways to help them pass."	19	11.88
	• Relates course content to students' lives	"I always make sure they know how we use everything and I talk about their different disciplines...if they think that the career they are going into can use this, they feel they can…"	18	11.25
	• Treats students as equals	"…treat others with the respect you'd like to be treated…"	6	3.75
	• Relates course to personal experiences	"…we share stories from my side and their side so that they can see that we are speaking the same language,"	2	1.25
2. Individualized Consideration	• Available outside class time for students	"My office is open all the time, so whenever they come I attend to them…"	8	5.00
	• Provides individualized feedback	"…talking to them individually."	14	8.75
	• Know students by their names	"…I am able to call their names after a few days in class…"	10	6.25
	• Allow students' inputs in the teaching delivery.	"I frequently take printouts of the problems they send to me…as class begins, going over those problems."	3	1.88
	• Convey interest in students	"…monitor or follow-up the progress of the individual."	1	0.63

	• Provide special consideration		"For instance, you can give a student an opportunity to make up one missing assignment or quiz…"	8	5.00
	• Recognize student history		"A young man had Ds and Fs in all his tests…went through all the questions and he got a B+ in his finals."	5	3.13
	• Promote student participation		"I make them work in groups a lot and facilitate the group."	23	14.38
3. Intellectual Stimulation	• Implement interactive teaching style		"The whole math redesign that I have done is to foster self-reliance…to use their textbooks…features of websites…"	22	13.75
	• Stimulate independent thinking among students		"…and you will tell me what to do step by step."	1	0.63
	• Challenge students intellectually		"...I do several study guides with my students."	2	1.25
	• Provide a conducive class atmosphere		"…make it a very nurturing and safe atmosphere, where everyone make mistakes."	1	0.63

Table 2

Influence of Instructors' Leadership Behaviors on Students' Motivation, Positive Attitudes and Participation.

Non-Cognitive Learning Outcomes	Themes/Codes	Examples	Influencing Leadership Behaviors	Frequency	Relative Frequency (%)
• Motivation	Students' efforts to increase their academic knowledge and skills	"They frequently send problems to me through the internet…I do those first of all as class begins" "…you want the class to be interactive… that's what plays a big role in motivation…" "By letting them have input and evaluating that input, I find they introduce me to many unique ways of thinking…"	Charisma	5	13.51
			Individualized Consideration	15	40.54
			Intellectual Stimulation	2	5.40
• Positive Attitude	Students' receptiveness	"I notice that there is a big difference in the	Charisma	3	8.11

			attitude among many of the students in class when they see one of their own students going to the board and actually solving the problem."	Individualized Consideration	4	10.81
				Intellectual Stimulation	2	5.40
•	Participation	toward learning a particular course				
		Students' questions, comments and contributions	"I stop the example and randomly select one of my students to complete it. Sometimes if the students are doing well at solving it, they can volunteer to participate…the students are starting to get prepared."	Charisma		
				Individualized Consideration	6	16.22
				Intellectual Stimulation		

Discussion

This study support other researches that indicate that instructors' transformational-leadership behaviors significantly influence students' learning behaviors such as motivation, positive attitudes and participation. The following responses validates the findings:

- Participant four stated that "finding different ways that connects what I am teaching them to real life will help with their motivation…, you want the class to be interactive … that what plays a big role in motivation…"
- Participant one influences students' attitude towards learning the course by establishing "a good rapport with my students, I try to learn their names early… call their names after a few days in class and they are kind of impressed with that" and participant two influences their attitude by trying "to take interest in what they are doing…one of the things I tell my students on the first day of class is that their questions take priority over my agenda…they frequently send problems to me…I do those first of all as class begins…"
- Participant six encourages students' participation by "…trying to get students involved in the discussion …even when students feel reluctant to participate…this is an opportunity to go back to the topic and then the students will start paying attention " and participant eight encourages participation by asking "…student's input, …have students explain things to each other…make them work in groups a lot and I facilitate the group…I find that they introduce me to many unique ways in thinking about things that I haven't thought about and I like that."

These emphasize the significance of promoting participation, interactive teaching style, and content relevance to student learning behaviors and performances (Sun & Leithwood, 2015; Bolkan & Goodboy, 2011; Noland & Richards, 2014). Overall, the mathematics instructors were able to increase their student motivation, attitude and participation by exhibiting transformational-leadership behaviors. Interestingly, group activities also increase student participation and improve their attitudes toward learning.

Limitations and Recommendations

This study used non-probabilistic purposive sampling technique that focused on eight mathematics in a mid-eastern university, which limited the extent to which it can be generalized. By focusing on only instructors' perceptions, the researcher was not able to determine students' perceptions on the effectiveness of each instructor's transformational-leadership behavior. Furthermore, other forms of leadership (such a transactional leadership) styles exhibited by some instructors were not discussed. Future studies should focus on extending the investigation to more instructors and students from different fields of study and departments, and from multiple institutions. In addition, there is a need for quantitative and qualitative studies that examine the effect of instructor's transformational leadership on students' performance in different cultural context and the relationship between group works and students' learning behaviors.

References

Allen, J., Robbins, S. B., & Sawyer, R. (2010). Can measuring psychosocial factors promote college success. Applied Measurement in Education, 23, 1-22.

Bass, B. M. (1985). Leadership and performance beyond expectation. New York: Free Press. Beauchamp, M. R., Barling, J., & Morton, K. L. (2011). Transformational teaching and adolescent self-determined motivation, self-efficacy, and intentions to engage in leisure time physical activity: A randomised controlled pilot trial. Applied Psychology: Health and Wellbeing, 1-24.

Belisle, C. H. (2004). The teacher as leader: Transformational leadership and the professional teacher or the teacher-liberian. Canadian Association for School Libraries, 1-10.

Bolkan, S., & Goodboy, A. K. (2009). Transformational leadership in the classroom: Fostering student learning, student participation, and teacher creadibility. Journal of Instructional Psychology, 36(4), 296-306.

Bolkan, S., & Goodboy, A. K. (2011). Behavioral Indicators of transformational leadership in the college classroom. Quanlitative Research Reports in Communication, 12(1), 10-18.

Canston, N. C. (2000). Teachers as leaders: A critical agenda for the new millenium. Asia-Pacific Journal of Teacher Education, 28(2), 123-132.

Davies, B. (Ed.). (2005). The essential of school leadership. Thousand Oak, CA: SAGE Publications Inc.

Gomez. (2006). Leadership development: Student-specific characteristics as predictors of retention and attrition in an online doctoral leadership program (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from ProQuest Disertations and Theses. (UMI No. 3202606)

Gonzalez, J. (2011, July 22). More partnership between colleges and industry could produce better-prepared workforce. Retrieved from http://chronicle.com/article/More-Partnerships-Between/128293

Leithwood, K., & Jantzi, D. (2006). Transformational school leadership for large-scale reform: Effects on students, teachers, and their classroom practices. School Effectiveness and School Improvement, 17(2), 201-227.

Noland, A., & Richards, K. (2014). The relationship among transformational teaching and student motivaton and learning. The Journal of Effective Teaching, 14(3), 5-20.

Nonaka, I., & Takeuchi, H. (1995). The knowlege-creating company. New York, NY: Oxford University Press.

Norton, A., Sonnemann, J., & Cherastidtham, I. (2013, July). Taking university teaching seriously. Grattan Institute. Retrieved from https://grattan.edu.au/wp-content/uploads/2013/07/191_Taking-Teaching-Seriously.pdf

Pounder, J. (2014). Qualty teaching through transformational classroom leadership. Quality Assurance in Education, 22(3), 273-285.

Pounder, J. (2008). Transformational classroom leadership: A novel approach to evaluating classroom performance. Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education, 33(3), 233-243.

Robinson, V. M., Lloyd, C. A., & Rowe, K. J. (2008). The impact of leadership on student outcomes: An analysis of the differential effects of leadership types. Educational Administration Quarterly, 44(5), 635-674.

Sandberg, C. T., & Bradley, K. D. (2011). Proactive identification of academic difficulty of undergraduates - A survey to measure the non-cognitive variables. Midwestern Educational Research Association (1-24).

Sun, J., & Leithwood, K. (2012). Transformational school leadership effects on student achievement. Leadership and Policy in Schools, 11(4), 418 - 451.

Sun, J., & Leithwood, K. (2015). Leadership effect on student learning mediated by teacher emotions. Societies, 566-582. doi:10.3390/soc5030566

U.S. Department of Education. (2006). A test of leadership: Charting the future of U. S. higher education. Washington, D. C.: U.S. Department of Education.

Exploring the Lived Experiences of Becoming and Being a Leadership Educator: A Phenomenological Inquiry

Daniel Jenkins
University of Southern Maine

Abstract

Little is known about the leadership educators who work in more than 2,000 leadership programs worldwide. This phenomenological study of 13 experienced leadership educators from four states and 11 universities explored the lived experiences of becoming and being a leadership educator in higher education. Four sub themes emerged from participants' understanding of becoming a leadership educator: (a) Impact; (b) Serendipity; (c) Fake it till you make it; and (d) Developing others. And, six sub themes emerged from participants' understanding of being a leadership educator: (a) A helping field; (b) Trial & error; (c) Creating a safe space; (d) Modeling the way; (e) I'm loving it; and (f) Agitators.

My Story

In the first year of my doctoral program, I was offered a chance opportunity to teach an introductory leadership course. Having only taught political science courses at a community college for a year, I knew little about teaching leadership, and had taken only one undergraduate course—nine years prior—on the subject. I drew on my love for teaching, experiences as an overinvolved undergraduate (e.g., student government, Greek life), brief careers and odd jobs in finance, hospitality, and state and local government. When I first entered that classroom in 2008, armed with the second edition of *Exploring Leadership: For College Students Who Want to Make a Difference* (Komives, Lucas, & McMahon, 2006) and the associated *Instructor's Guide* (Owen, Komives, Lucas, & McMahon, 2007), it all seemed to click. My evaluations affirmed that I was enthusiastic and effective, but I was confused as to the preparation and experiences that brought me to be so. I wondered if my peers in the field had experienced more training or preparation, whether they had been more formally or perhaps doctorally prepared to teach leadership, and what life experiences they brought to their classrooms.

Introduction and Background

Over the last 25 years a handful of postsecondary leadership programs exploded into more than 2,000 academic undergraduate and graduate degree programs as well as co-curricular and student affairs programming in the form of retreats, training, or other workshops (Brungardt, Greenleaf, Brungardt, & Arensdorf, 2006; ILA Directory of Leadership Programs, 2017). To boot, tens of thousands of full- and part-time faculty, student affairs professionals, and academic administrators are delivering the courses, programs, and workshops that make up these experiences (Jenkins, 2014). Yet, we know little to nothing about the lived experiences of these "leadership educators" who educate, teach, coach, instruct, or facilitate in higher education instructional and/or programmatic roles in credit or non-credit based programs in the context of leadership (Harding, 2011; Seemiller & Priest, 2015).

Harding and Matkin (2012) conducted the only known published phenomenological inquiry of educators' experiences teaching leadership. Yet, their study was limited to leadership educators who taught in undergraduate leadership development programs only. More recently, Seemiller and Priest (2015; in press) explored the professional identities of leadership educators. Seemiller and Priest (2015) developed a Leadership Educator Professional Identity Development (LEPID) conceptual model and later (in press) expanded on this model by analyzing stories from participants of a professional leadership educator development experience. Additionally, there are only a handful of quantitative studies that include demographic data such as leadership educators' gender, terminal degrees, length of teaching experience, and institutional role (Jenkins 2012, 2013; Jenkins & Owen, 2016; Owen, 2012), as well as instructional and assessment strategy preferences in face-to-face (Jenkins, 2012, 2013) and online (Jenkins, 2016) programs. Yet, these studies only skim the surface of a rapidly expanding community of professionals. This study aims to add new knowledge to our understanding of this vastly underexplored area.

The purpose of this phenomenological study was to describe the lived experiences of becoming and being a leadership educator in higher education. The following questions guided this study:

1. What drew individuals to the work of leadership education?
2. What does the preparatory journey of becoming a leadership educator look like?
3. What is it like to be a leadership educator?

Review of the Literature

The literature on leadership educators in higher education is sparse. Accordingly, this literature review will include only the most salient qualitative and quantitative research that specifically explored the experiences of or described leadership educators in higher education.

Qualitative Studies

Two research teams have explored the experiences of leadership educators. Harding and Matkin (2012) sought to expand what was known about the role educators play in development leadership capacity in undergraduate leadership development programs. Their phenomenological study of 12 leadership educators at colleges and universities in the Midwest led to four emergent themes: (a) I teach leadership. What does that mean? (b) Not dancing alone in the learning community; (c) Helping students make a difference; and (d) The educator's journey: A place of becoming (Harding & Matkin, 2012, p. 12). Then, Seemiller and Priest (2015, in press), explored the professional identities of leadership educators. Accordingly, they developed the LEPID conceptual model and later expanded on it by analyzing stories from participants of a professional leadership educator development experience. According to Seemiller and Priest (in press), leadership educators' identity development reflects a consistent and linear progression through the identity spaces outlined in the LEPID model—Exploration (Will it fit for me?), Experimentation (Does it fit for me?), Validation (Do others think it fits?), and Confirmation (How do I validate others?) (Seemiller & Priest, 2015)—and can be viewed through three distinct dimensional lenses: (a) experiential; (b) cognitive; and (c) emotional experiences.

Quantitative Studies

Literature related to leadership program content, design, and delivery, and the influence of these considerations on learning and leadership development of students is steadily increasing (Seemiller & Priest, 2015). Yet, literature describing the nature of the work of leadership educators has been limited to demographics (e.g., Jenkins 2012, 2013; Jenkins & Owen, 2016; Owen, 2012), portrayals of instructional and assessment strategy preferences (e.g., Jenkins, 2012, 2013, & 2016), or embedded within larger inquiries into programmatic best practices (e.g., Allen & Hartman, 2009; Eich, 2008; Jenkins, 2012; Owen, 2012). From this data, we generalize that leadership educators in higher education are mostly white, may be male or female, have terminal degrees in areas other than leadership, and have more than five years teaching experience. Yet, this information tells us nothing about the meaning of the experiences of leadership educators.

Method

A phenomenological method was used. Specifically, the research sought to describe the common meaning for leadership educators of their lived experiences becoming and being a leadership educator (Creswell & Poth, 2018). An interview protocol structured in the format suggested by Brinkmann & Kvale (2015) and Rubin and Rubin (2012) and consisting of 17 questions and 12 sub questions was used. The protocol was piloted with three leadership educators not included in the sample to ensure the questions were relevant to the study and correctly guided the process.

Participants

A snowball sample of 13 leadership educators—eight men and five women—from four states and 11 universities, participated in this phenomenological study. According to Creswell and Poth (2018), a snowball sample requires that the researcher identifies cases of interest from people who know people who know that cases are information-rich. During the fall of 2014, the researcher contacted 25 preeminent leadership educators in their network and asked them to "recommend three exemplary leadership educators to participate in interviews" who had "taught an undergraduate- or graduate-level academic credit-bearing leadership studies course in the last two years." 15 of the 25 individuals contacted provided at least two potential participants. The researcher then invited potential participants who were either (a) recommended more than once; and/or (b) lived within a reasonable proximity of certain metro areas that the researcher could access with available funds. Participants ranged from adjunct faculty and professional staff or administration to tenured and tenure-track faculty as well as department head.

Procedure

After receiving the recommendations through the snowball sampling method, the researcher contacted 19 potential participants via e-mail, citing the individual who had referred them, and asked for their voluntary participation in the study. Four of the 19 potential participants opted out and three others could not be accommodated by their own or the researcher's schedule. The researcher was a recipient of an internal university research grant which funded travel between January and April of 2015 to each participant's university and interviewed them on their campus, and most often, in their workspace. Interviews ranged in length from 76 to 131 minutes and the average interview lasted 86 minutes. The same researcher conducted all 13 interviews.

After obtaining informed consent, the researcher had each participant complete a short questionnaire of 15 questions related to their demographics, education, and teaching experience (see Table 1). No incentives were provided. Then, each participant was asked to verbally respond to interview protocol questions. This study includes the following protocol questions: (a) three questions and two sub questions related to participants' journeys towards becoming a leadership educator and (b) four questions and five sub questions related to participants' experiences being leadership educators (see Table 2). The remaining questions and sub questions in the protocol were related to instructional design and are not included here.

Table 1

Participant Demographics

Participant Code	Gender	State	Degree & Discipline	Current Position	Yrs. in current position	Yrs. teaching leadership	Yrs. in higher education
M1	M	IL	Ph.D.; Comm. Studies / Org. Comm. / Leadership	Assoc. Dir.; Clinical Assoc. Prof.; Engineering	7	11	8
G1	M	IL	Ph.D.; Public Affairs	Dir.; Clinical Assoc. Prof.; Engineering	8	28	28
D1	M	IL	Ph.D.; Counseling	Assoc. Prof.; Higher Ed.	8	15	15
R1	M	IL	Ph.D.; Higher Postsecondary Ed.	Asst. Prof.	4	11	17
A1	M	OH	Ph.D.; Leadership & Change	Assoc. Prof.; Management	7	15	8
S1	M	MD	Ed.D.; Ed. Leadership	Senior Lecturer; Engineering	.5	7	33
L1	F	OH	Ph.D.; Higher Ed. Admin	Dir. of non-profit; Adjunct	2.5	25	25
H1	F	OH	Doctorate, Org. Leadership		3.5	9	20
R2	F	MD	M.A.; Higher Ed. & Student Affairs	Ph.D. student; graduate coordinator; Adjunct; Ed.	2	8	9
M2	M	DE	Ph.D.; Ed. Psych.	Assoc. Prof.; Org. & Comm. Leadership	10	15	15
B1	F	OH	Ed.D.; Ed. Policy, Planning, & Leadership (Higher Ed)	Senior Lecturer; Higher Ed. & Student Affairs	3.5	10	17.5
L1	F	OH	Ph.D.; Ed. Leadership	Chair & Prof.; Leadership Studies	16	14	40
O1	M	MD	Ph.D.; College Student Program (College of Ed.)	Assistant Director; Adjunct	1	12	22

Table 2

Interview Protocol: Scope, Questions, and Sub-Questions

Scope	No.	Question/Sub-Question
	1	How did you decide to become a leadership educator? What drew you to the work? (Critical incidents? Crucibles?)
	1(a)	Why do you do what you do? What motivated you to be a leadership educator?
Participants' journeys to becoming a leadership educator.	2	How did you come to work in your current position at [Institution]?
	2(a)	How do you feel your prior education, training, experiences, etc., prepared you to be successful as a leadership educator in this role? How does this compare to your peer leadership educators? [Can you give an example?]
	3	Think back to your first experience as a leadership educator (course, workshop, etc.). How did you know what to do? What influenced your practice? [If not stated: Were you ever a student in a leadership course? If so, please describe the course environment for me.]
	1(b)	How would you describe your professional work? [What is it like to be a leadership educator?]
	1(c)	How do you think it might be described by someone from outside the profession?
	1(d)	In what ways do you contribute to the profession?
Participants' experiences being a leadership educator.	4	In general, how would you describe the classroom environment of one of your leadership classes?
	5	What is teaching leadership like? [In what way?]
	5(a)	How do you see the relationship between teaching leadership and how you manage (or facilitate learning in) the classroom?
	14(a)	Please tell me about any other professional development opportunities you have sought out or participated in.
	15	As you think about your practice as a leadership educator now, what is different? What influenced that change? (Or) What has been the biggest influence on how you currently practice leadership education?
	16	What keeps you in this leadership educator role?

Data Analysis

A phenomenological method (Colaizzi, 1978; Moustakas, 1994; Polkinghorne, 1989) was employed. In this method, the researcher—and one graduate assistant who was recruited to assist in analyzing the interview transcripts for themes—read the transcripts while simultaneously listening to participants' corresponding audio interviews to obtain an overall feeling for them. Then, building on the data from the research questions, the researcher followed the steps of horizontalization (Moustakas, 1994), went through the interview transcripts using NVIVO and highlighted "significant statements," sentences, and quotes that provided understanding of how the participants experienced becoming and being a leadership educator, and developed clusters of meaning from these significant statements into themes (Creswell & Poth, 2018).

Reliability and validity. Commonly identified reliability techniques utilized in this study include the recording of detailed field notes, an audio recorder for accuracy, and intercoder agreement from the researcher and an outside coder, with the latter technique being the most critical process (Creswell & Poth, 2018; Silverman, 2013). The outside coder analyzed data independently and then met with the researcher to discuss codes. There were no significant discrepancies, and any small differences were discussed and resolved to create one set of themes. Additionally, the researcher sought out two peer debriefer faculty to provide an external check of the research process (Creswell & Poth, 2018)—a prolific, published qualitative scholar from the institution where the researcher completed his doctorate and an experienced qualitative scholar from the researcher's home college—to vet the questionnaire and interview protocol questions, method, and proposed analysis process. Both the researcher and debriefers kept written accounts of these "peer debriefing sessions" (Lincoln, 1985).

Limitations. The findings of this study should be interpreted with caution. This sample was limited to three geographic regions, which may limit the transferability of findings to other parts of the U.S. and abroad. All participants in this study were Caucasian and taught in the U.S.; the perspective of underrepresented populations and individuals who teach abroad are missing and may be different. There was no distinction between participants' educational attainment, yet those who had significant experience outside of higher education were critical of those who had not. Further research, which considers these limitations, may have different outcomes.

Findings

After coding and analyzing the data, the two major themes of becoming and being a leadership educator emerged. The meaning of becoming a leadership educator, that is, how they understand their attraction to teaching leadership to college students, includes four subthemes: (a) Impact; (b) Serendipity; (c) Fake it till you make it; and (d) Developing others. The meaning of being a leadership educator, that is, how participants understand their experiences teaching leadership, includes six subthemes: (a) A helping field; (b) Trial & error; (c) Creating a safe space; (d) Modeling the way; (e) I'm loving it; and (f) Agitators.

Becoming. The following four subthemes describe the meaning of becoming a leadership educator.

Theme 1A: Impact. In this theme, participants described their inherent need to make an impact on others' lives.

> *I wanted to have a real impact and a real significance. I wanted the fact that I was here on earth to have some type of ripple effect, in a positive way and that's what I feel like this job gives me.* -M1

Participants believed they would make more of a difference in leadership education than in other academic fields as well as careers outside higher education.

Absolutely loving it and feeling like I was having much more impact being in the classroom as opposed to advising students in extracurricular activities outside or working with Directors –S1

Theme 1B: Serendipity. In this theme, participants described serendipitously finding their way to leadership education, often as "autobiographical work" resulting from early impressions or experiences leading others, working with bad leaders, and a curiosity about the process of leadership development and terminology. Additionally, many participants began their leadership educator journey as graduate students or in entry-level student affairs roles where new or imagined leadership programs required architecture or development (respectively). The following three excerpts illustrate these coincidences:

Then I worked in the first year experience office here at [institution] for 8 years… and while I was in the first year experience office so really after being there a year and most of the responsible for a lot of first year programming we got a donor who came to us and said I want to give $40,000 to your office and I want it to be geared towards leadership development for first year students. -B1

So we both thought that it would make sense for me to try to bring an academic component into student affairs… so we started talking to people in this new program here … in the engineering school, and I had some friends that were in the faculty … and then they said well why don't you develop this leadership theory course… we don't have one and it would be really great. So, I developed that, got it approved, and started teaching part-time starting around 2005 –S1

And, the following two excerpts illustrate participants' conceptions of autobiographical work*:*

When I was younger I think was really where I started to realize that that there was more to leadership education than just being in charge of people right, and started to really take an interest in some of the theory –R2

I have found that most of us do autobiographical work. So, for me I got interested in this in the experiences I was having as I was growing up… in High School … I was the smart kid who wasn't friends with very many people. My girlfriend, junior year, for some reason, convinced me to run for class president. That was probably the first experience for me personally that gave me the indication I might be able to do some of this stuff, okay, like. I did alright, I had to give a speech. like on the intercom in front of all the, it was so nerdy I mean back then but I didn't think of it at that point of time. I was ready. That was probably the gateway –R1

Theme 1C: Fake it till you make it. Participants landed some opportunity to teach early in their careers, most frequently in graduate school or in entry-level student affairs positions. However, few had any formal teaching preparation or educational coursework preparing them to do this work. Moreover, most of the participants had very little training specific to leadership studies. In fact, only one of the participants had taken a leadership course at the same academic level they were currently teaching:

I feel that I fell prey to trying to legitimize myself as an instructor and the graduate experience… so my first year I… have to do research or an article critique… cuz I felt like you had to do that in a graduate class, right? … it was useless… but they didn't have enough content knowledge or background knowledge… it was really an exercise… of what I thought a graduate experience should be… so I ended up canning that... So, I've created too many assignments in a class that just don't… you know, assignments that are more hoops… I feel like there's hundreds of examples of assignments where I'm like, yup, that didn't work at all. -D1

Yeah it was a disaster [laughing]. Paul told me if he could give money back to every student he taught for the first 7 years he would do it because he feels so badly about it and he has won every teaching award you could win, and when he said that I was like yeah, I have lived that too. –G1

I had a sense of maybe how to play with it to kind of enhance the development of the students instead of just kind of in a very rote way mechanically going through the steps of the lab and really I mean in terms of teaching classes I just imitated what I had seen other professors do, I didn't really have any other I didn't have any, I hadn't done it enough to have any sense of my own style and what else do you go on you just kind of, I got to get up there and I got to teach to this class I'll just do what I think I'm supposed to do and then gradually you kind of find out what you're good at what you're not good at and I think I'm still in the stage of finding out what I'm not good at that's going longer than I expected, but the list is a lot longer it's kind of deeper well than I thought it would ever be… -M1

Theme 1D: Developing others. In this theme, participants shared their common experiences, backgrounds, and interests—personally, educationally, and professionally--in development theory and/or practice including human (e.g., counseling), human resource, psychological, social, leadership, and student development, as well as public or student affairs. Correspondingly, participants spoke often about their commitment to developing people and organizations. Through an NVIVO text query for the term "development," within the questions related to participants' journeys to becoming a leadership educator, the following words preceded "development": (a) cognitive; (b) intellectual; (c) self; (d) organizational; (e) personal; (f) professional; identity; (g) student; (h) training; (i) psychological; (j) resources; (k) human; (l) social; and (m) adult. The following excerpts illustrate this trajectory:

Where I do get very passionate is that the tenets around leadership devolvement around social action, community good, personal development and human capacity building align with my espoused values… so they're a vehicle to do that work. –D1

I think my psychology background also fed into that very nicely, and consequently while I was getting my doctorate in educational leadership with a concentration in psychology, I just became really interested in how leaders develop and their own self-concept how they see themselves as a leader. –H1

And so, the more that I was studying you know college student development which is rooted in the psychological development, human development processes right, there's a lot of what we study in this, in programs like this. The more that I recognized how what a tight link there is between the way that we develop as people and the way that we work with others, and the way that we make decisions about you know critical incidents. The way that we engage with organizations, how we understand the importance of something bigger than ourselves right? – R2

Being. The following six subthemes describe the meaning of being a leadership educator.

Theme 2A: A helping field. This subtheme represents participants' commitment to developing people and organizations as well as their need to impact the lives of others for the greater good. They described their work as a selfless profession-- it was others, not them, who they wanted to impact--but cited being influenced by strongly held beliefs or values.

> *It's nice to get it in and of itself, but it's also nice to get it because it's just a kind of a confirmation that I'm having the impact I hope to have and that I really am it kind of confirms the whole reason I got into this, that okay it really is working out that way. So, there is that, there's just knowing that so you're just helping somebody in the middle of their life. –M1*

Specifically, it was the impact participants wanted to continue to make on their students, the world, and their communities; they hoped to change the trajectory of others for the better.

> *The impact on individuals, people and communities. I don't need to know that I was sort of Mayor of Chicago and there is going to be biographies written about me I need to know that I have helped change that trajectory of people's lives. –G1*

Theme 2B: Trial & error. Many of the participants described how, while they may have learned from or observed their mentors in action, had little or no training in teaching or leadership studies. They brought their passion for the idea of leadership with them to their classroom, which was most often an educational laboratory:

> *So, it is a series of experiments. It is just a bunch of experiments, trial error, what hits, what doesn't, asking them for their feedback … it is about getting that special sauce to that recipe in place and just like some leaders have a recipe in place where it connects with a larger percentage of the people… I believe it is the same thing for instructional design. –A1*

> *Yeah, I feel like there's been so many… cuz you experimented and you're like, woop, that didn't work! –D1*

> *I'm better now than I was that first semester and I'll be better next semester than I was this semester and there is always the reason I can have the plan b, plan c, plan d in my pocket because I've tried enough from variations of different things to know what works,*

what might work, what can I change, I've done that before I just tried that, your toolbox grows and your repertoire increases through teaching more, -O1

I would say that to anyone who has only ever taught leadership in a formal classroom experience, that there are different expectations and this is a different environment if you're going to translate that into teaching the same stuff and co-curricular experience, right? So, I think being thrown into the classroom, having been only a co-curricular practitioner, you know, for most of my initial training… and having to adapt and learn what this looks like, you know, what that looks like in this new space has been huge for me. And, likewise, my experience in the classroom has made me rethink how I do things co-curricular too. -R2

I mean I still have infinite more to learn but one of the things that I am personally proud of has been how much I have learned about the theory and practice of leadership through my own informal study compared to where I was 18 years ago as a new GA for teaching this class. So knowledge and the skill of being able to, I mean you learn so much stuff from experience like all these bad examples that I am coming up with they are beautiful failures because I can take exactly that learning experience and apply it in a really powerful way in a lot of different areas. –R1

Theme 2C: Creating a safe space. Many of the participants described how they created a safe space in their classrooms. They felt that their classrooms should be a safe space for experimentation and reflection as well as conversations about turbulent issues, social justice, and identity exploration. Participants saw themselves as advocates:

If you have an underrepresented identity and you are asked you know be in a safe space, you don't always feel safe it is not reality. In any group setting you can't trust everybody in the group. So anyway, I think I do a lot to create the safe space or brave space early on in the semester, talk about how we are going to share stories, do some sharing of stories early on to set the tone. –B1

As a result, I tend to try to give them a lot of both me and each other in that like immediate here and now way and so to give them space to try out an idea and watch different facilitations styles and to just really be part of intellectual community. –H1
There has to be this role of inquiry, there has to be dialogue; there has to be space for each individual to voice what they think and practice some new ways of being. -L1

And give them a culture in the classroom that allows them to fail, but learn from that failure" -S1

Theme 2D: Modeling the way. Participants described modeling leadership through the way they taught or facilitated learning in the classroom, i.e., they saw teaching as a type of leading. This is because they either had great role models who they sought to emulate as part of the leadership/teaching process and/or they were modeling the leadership they wanted students to exhibit. Two participants said it best:

> *In a way, I think teaching is not leading but it is a type of leading. But leading is always teaching because you are demonstrating by who you are, you are vicariously teaching others what it is to be a leader. -M1*

> *What's interesting about teaching leadership is that you're not just teaching content, you're also – through the course design and the way you teach, you're also modeling the leadership you want students to exhibit. To some degree the classroom is a lab for doing leadership itself. ...if I believe that inclusion is an important leadership trait, then I as an instructor for class need to be modeling inclusion. –O1*

Theme 2E: I'm loving it. In this sub theme, participants articulated a deep affection for their work from teaching and learning to their research and students:

> *I love what I'm doing now... I love what I do... I love, being in a community that supports that kind of work... I'd be bored to death if I was doing something else... I don't want to be or do bureaucratic or... administrative... I feel like what I'm doing has always mattered and I feel like what I do now matters even more. –S1*

> *It is exhilarating, it is a lot of fun. I walked in to my lecture last night from 6.30 to 9.15, I was psyched, I was jazzed up and "I am on" and so I love having conversation, I love reading, I love writing, I love all aspects of that puzzle. And I view the classroom as an opportunity to experiment and to learn and to grow and to be challenged and to challenge. –A1*

> *I can't believe I get paid to do this. I love spending my time this way. I literally just said this on Saturday when I was with a group of graduates. I mean, I see the world through leadership, so the fact that I get paid to look at it that way when I just naturally do it, it's exciting, it's challenging, it's energizing, it teaches me all the time that as much as I may be educating others, I'm being constantly educated. -M1*

Theme 2F: Agitators. In this subtheme, participants explained how they were constantly agitating their students' thinking, making a difference, and helping other people to rethink, develop, engage, dive deep, and experience learning about leadership. The following excerpts illustrate how participants helped students examine, discover, and understand their talents, strengths, and purpose:

> *If we do this activity here, this will complement this, this will agitate that... if we do this assignment its gonna benefit students who learn this way so how do we create another assignment that challenges people over here... lay out a class as a puzzle that has a constant state of challenge...push them to grow and then offset it. –D1*

> *My job isn't to tell students what they think. My job is to expose students to ideas and make them think. Not what they need to think about, or what they need to believe. I have a lot of back and forth with people in leadership education about this. It's not about telling students you need to believe this but it's about giving the information and poking them. Poking them with a stick like agitator, like stirring the pot a little bit, stirring it up*

and making them consider. Making them say oh I hadn't thought about that. That's a new idea I hadn't considered that. Getting them to have conversations with each other so that they get exposed to different points of view. And they come out the other end different than when they started. –O1

Discussion

Participants in this study described the meaning of becoming and being a leadership educator. Participants described how their pursuit toward a helping or development-focused field ultimately, and often serendipitously, led them to leadership education. Seemiller and Priest (in press) describe this stage as the "Pre-Exploration Leadership Experience" where the emerging leadership educators' experiences shaped their identities and beliefs, "resulting in their desire to create open access to leader experiences for students, correct mistakes they made as leaders, and give to students the opportunities they had or wished they had" (p. 12). Entry-level or graduate assistantships posts in student affairs were a common springboard for doing this work. Likewise, participants' early impressions of leadership in high school or in undergraduate or community activities and experiences, often with key mentors in place, mirror Heath and Matkin's (2012) "The educator's journey: A place of becoming" theme, which highlighted external experiences. Participants shared meaning of being a leadership educator describes a rewarding, helping field with a lot of creative authority. Heath and Matkin's (2012) themes of "Being authentic" and "Helping students make a difference," were also repeated here. This study's sub theme of "Modeling the way" speaks to the authenticity of leadership educators. An important part of teaching leadership is modeling or walking the talk (Heath and Matkin, 2012). From there, leadership educators created safe classroom environments to experiment, discuss complex social issues, and empower students to make a difference in their lives and communities.

Identity Development

Recent inquiry into the professional identity development of the leadership educator (i.e., Seemiller & Priest, 2016, in press) provide impetus for further exploration. Participants in this study recounted a narrative in line with what Heath and Matkin's (2012) described as leadership educators' internal journey or "The essence." M1 articulated this concept beautifully:

> *…there is this element of like developing that identity as a leadership educator. I can't separate right now, like I can't separate [name] from that leadership educator identity. Like, I see elements of my leadership educator side come on in everything I do, right? I think it's made my personal and my professional life equally better, right? I've seen things that are totally unrelated to my work in teaching or running programs. Parts of my life that I totally do differently and approach differently with family, with friends and everything because of my work in leadership education, right? So I think that idea of going through that, your own personal developmental process and being aware of that, reflecting on that is so crucial to how we develop leadership educators in general. And you know I think that's why you and I both do, you know part of why you and I both do what we do with professional associations right, giving people the opportunity to kind of look internally and examine the kind of leadership educator they want to be and what does that mean to them and how are they going to make that their own, right? I think that*

> *internal work is so, so important to what we do and that's where leadership becomes not a skill, or not a program or not you know part of your job description, but it becomes this like this essence, this concept, this idea that is woven into whatever it is that you do, whether you call it leadership program or not, right? So I think we can't count that importance of the identity piece that it's wrapped up in developing yourself as a leadership educator." –R2*

M1's narrative above was echoed by other participants in this study as well as the work of Seemiller and Priest (in press). The leadership educator identity undoubtedly includes a "Confirmation Space" (where more seasoned professional guide less seasoned professional in confirmation their leadership educator identities) and an emerging Community of Practice" of on and off campus peers, members of professional associations, and mentors.

Implications for Leadership Education

Participants in this study tend to learn on the job and few had terminal degrees in Leadership (while some were in related fields, e.g., Educational Leadership, Higher Education Administration). These findings are consistent with the research of Jenkins (2014) who reported that less than 15% of leadership educators who taught academic for-credit leadership courses and had terminal degrees in leadership and Jenkins and Owen (2016) who reported that only two-thirds of leadership educators in undergraduate curricular and co-curricular leadership programs had completed any significant post-baccalaureate coursework in leadership theory or development. Arguably, no dedicated educational pathways or preparatory programs currently exist for the leadership education profession. Instead, we have a hodgepodge of experiences—academic and professional—that led participants in this study to their careers. Accordingly, more training programs like the Leadership Education Academy (http://www.ila-net.org/lea/) as well as dedicated graduate coursework, programs, and terminal degrees are needed.

Future Research and Concluding Thoughts

Our field is still young. Hence, finding career leadership educators with twenty-plus years' experience to share their stories may only present itself at the end of the current decade. Despite the varied and serendipitous pathways of our leadership educators, there is virtually no research that explores the meaning of becoming and being a leadership educator in higher education curricular and co-curricular contexts, and what attracts them to the field. A replication study that included a more diverse sample—ethnically as well as from more diverse institutions of higher education, including, perhaps, outside the U.S.—would add to the understanding of how leadership educators understand and are attracted to higher education. Understanding how leadership educators experience their trajectory towards and within higher education and how the meaning of these experiences sustains their investment in their roles will facilitate the development of creative strategies to prepare, recruit, and retain qualified leadership educators.

References

Allen, S. J., & Hartman, N. S. (2009). Sources of learning in student leadership development programming. *Journal of Leadership Studies, 3*(3), 6-16. doi: 10.1002/jls.20119

Brinkman, S., & Kvale, S. (2015). *InterViews: Learning the craft of qualitative research interviewing* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Brungardt, C., Greenleaf, J., Brungardt, C., & Arensdorf, J. (2006). Majoring in leadership: A review of undergraduate leadership degree programs. *Journal of Leadership Education, 5*(1), 4-25. Retrieved from http://aole.memberlodge.org/Resources/Documents/jole/2006_summer/Jole_5_1_Brungardt_Greenleaf_Brungardt_Arensdorf.pdf

Creswell, J. W., & Poth, C. N. (2018). *Quality inquiry & research design: Choosing among five approaches*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.

Eich, D. (2008). A grounded theory of high-quality leadership programs perspectives from student leadership development programs in higher education. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies, 15*(2), 176-187.

Harding, H. E., & Matkin, G. S. (2012). Educators experiences teaching leadership. *Academic Exchange Quarterly, 16*(3), 12-19.

Harding, H. E. (2011). *A place of becoming: Leadership educators' experience teaching leadership: A phenomenological approach*. (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from http://digitalcommons.unl.edu/aglecdiss/19

International Leadership Association. (2017). Directory of leadership programs. Retrieved from http://www.ilanet.org/Resources/LPD/index.htm

Jenkins, D. M., & Owen, J. E. (2016). Who teaches leadership? A comparative analysis of faculty and student affairs leadership educators and implications for leadership learning. *Journal of Leadership Education, 15*(2), 98-113. Retrieved from http://journalofleadershiped.org/index.php/volume-15-issue-2/433-who-teaches-leadership-a-comparative-analysis-of-faculty-and-student-affairs-leadership-educators-and-implications-for-leadership-learning

Jenkins, D. M. (2016). Teaching leadership online: An exploratory study of instructional and assessment strategy use. *Journal of Leadership Education*, 15(2), 129-149. Retrieved from http://journalofleadershiped.org/index.php/volume-15-issue-2/431-teaching-leadership-online-an-exploratory-study-of-instructional-and-assessment-strategy-use

Jenkins, D. M. (2015). Comparing instructional and assessment strategy use in graduate and undergraduate-level leadership studies: A global study. *Proceedings of the 2015 Association of Leadership Educators Conference*, 596-617. Retrieved from http://leadershipeducators.org/resources/Documents/2015%20ALE%20Conference%20Proceedings.pdf

Jenkins, D. M. (2014, November). *Instructional & Assessment Strategy Use by Leadership Educators: A Global Study*. Individual session presented at the 16th Annual International Leadership Association Global Conference. San Diego, CA.

Jenkins, D. M. (2013). Exploring instructional strategies in student leadership development programming. *Journal of Leadership Studies, 6*(4), 48-62.

Jenkins, D. M. (2012). Exploring signature pedagogies in undergraduate leadership education. *Journal of Leadership Education, 11*(1), 1-27. Retrieved from http://www.journalofleadershiped.org/attachments/article/109/Jenkins.pdf

Komives, S. R., Lucas, N., & McMahon, T. R. (2013). *Exploring leadership: For college students who want to make a difference* (2nd ed.). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass

Lincoln, Y. S. (1985). Emerging criteria for qualitative and interpretive research. *Qualitative Inquiry, 1*, 275-289.

Owen, J. E. (2012). *Examining the design and delivery of collegiate student leadership development programs: Findings from the Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership (MSL-IS), a national report*. Washington, DC: Council for the Advancement of Standards in Higher Education.

Owen, J. E., Komives, S. R., Lucas, L., & McMahon, T. R. (2007*). Instructor's guide for exploring leadership: For college students who want to make a difference second edition*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Rubin, H. J., & Rubin, I. S. (2012). *Qualitative interviewing: The art of hearing data* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Seemiller, C., & Priest, K. L. (in press). Leadership educator journeys: Expanding a model of leadership educator professional identity development. *Journal of Leadership Education*.

Seemiller, C., & Priest, K. L. (2015). The hidden 'who' in leadership education: Conceptualizing leadership educator professional identity development. *Journal of Leadership Education, 14*(3), 132-151. Retrieved from http://journalofleadershiped.org/attachments/article/390/2015_0334_priest.pdf

Silverman, D. (2013). *Doing qualitative research: A practical handbook* (4th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

The Quest for Legitimacy: The Future of Leadership in a Complex World

Katherine Friesen
Iowa State University

Abstract

It is often said that now more than ever leadership education is most needed in our world. Leadership educators seek to identify the knowledge, skills, beliefs, and behaviors students need to be well equipped to practice leadership through teaching and scholarship. However, it is also important to consider how we define our body of work within academia. This conceptual piece takes a moment to consider leadership as a body of knowledge and the role of legitimacy knowledge plays in our ability to engage as leadership educators. By conceptualizing disciplines and exploring legitimacy arguments for leadership studies as a discipline, areas of further inquiry are identified as we continue to learn about and define ourselves as a body of knowledge and practice.

Introduction

Now, more than ever, it is often argued that we are in most need of leadership education. The growing complexity of the world has created new challenges and barriers for the process of leadership. As leadership educators, we continue to encourage students to exercise leadership in the face of these challenges. We do so by educating ourselves and each other, through practice and scholarship, about the knowledge, skills, beliefs, and behaviors our students need to lead the next generation in a complex world (Andenoro et al., 2013). As we continue to consider the how and what of leadership education, we take time to consider the why of leadership education; to think about leadership studies as a body of knowledge and the role legitimacy of knowledge has in our ability to engage as leadership educators. The purpose of this conceptual piece is to explore the notion of disciplinary markers of legitimacy and the implications for leadership studies education as we continue to define ourselves in the face of growing complexity.

Leadership Studies Legitimacy Claims

Since Burns (1978) and Rost (1991) called for the creation of leadership studies education and the development of leadership studies scholarship, leadership as a body of growing knowledge has emerged. This emergence has led many to develop passions and believe in the continued inquiry in and development of leadership and leadership education (Andenoro et al., 2013; Harvey & Riggio, 2011). The emergence of leadership within higher education has also generated many conversations about the disciplinary status of leadership and its legitimacy within academia (Perruci & McManus, 2013; Riggio, 2011; 2013). Riggio (2011) strongly argued that leadership studies is, in fact, a distinct discipline and one worth pursuing legitimacy.

The work of Riggio (2011) and others has identified markers of disciplinary legitimacy in support of leadership studies (Andenoro et al, 2013; Goethels & Sorenson, 2006; Harvey & Riggio, 2011; Komives, Dugan, Owen, & Wagner, 2011; Sowcik, 2013). Markers of legitimacy for disciplines arguably include the establishment of degree programs, textbooks, professional

associations, standards for behavior and knowledge, and accreditation of standards (Abbott, 2001; Kuhn, 1962). Leadership studies programs, including interdisciplinary undergraduate majors, minors, and certificates, and graduate programs, including master's and doctoral degrees, have been developed (Brungardt, Greenleaf, Brungardt, & Arensdorf, 2006; Sowcik, 2013; Stork, Grant, & Darmo, 2015). Books exploring and conceptualizing the multidisciplinary nature of leadership and the development of leadership theory have been written (Bryman, Collinson, Grint, & Uhl-Bien, 2011; Hackman & Johnson, 2009; Harvey & Riggio, 2001; Northouse, 2010; Stogdill & Bass, 1982).

Additionally, Leadership associations, such as the International Leadership Association and the Association of Leadership Education were created, along with the *Journal of Leadership Studies*, *The Leadership Quarterly*, the *Journal of Leadership and Organizational* Studies, and the *Journal of Leadership Education*. Guides for program development and leadership education research have been created in response to the need for curriculum and instructional development (Andenoro et al., 2013; ILA, 2008). Finally, conversations about the assessment and accreditation of leadership programs have been generated through the literature and association presentations, though consensus about these topics has yet to be reached (Perruci & McManus, 2013; Sowcik, 2013).

Though we can identify many markers of legitimacy, there still seems to be dissent among those who identify with, study, and/or educate in the bounds of leadership knowledge about the continued development of leadership studies. Riggio (2013) argued, "There are those both outside the study of leadership (many!) and scholars of leadership (some), who disagree that Leadership Studies is a discipline, and a portion of those would argue it never should or could become one" (p. 10). Those who believe in the legitimacy argument have struggled to agree whether formal assessment, accreditation, and program reviews are needed for legitimacy, let alone what those processes might look like (Perruci & McManus, 2013; Sowcik, 2013). The diversity of leadership programs and educator pathways into leadership seemingly creates diverse and often competing perspectives on leadership studies and education (Brungardt et al., 2006; Stork et al., 2015). The complexity of the bounds of leadership knowledge and the implications of legitimacy within the leadership educator community warrants further consideration.

Conceptualizing Disciplines

Disciplines are bounds of formal knowledge, or rationalized conceptions of the world, established through the empirical study the world's phenomena (Abbott, 2001; Becher & Trowler, 1989; Freidson, 1986; Gerth & Mills, 1946; Kuhn, 1962). They lay claim to a core body of knowledge in which their cultural and social structures determine knowledge, scholar, and curricular development and behavior (Abbott, 2001; Becher & Trowler, 1989; Kuhn, 1962). Cultural structures are the epistemologies, paradigms, methodologies, objects of study, rules and standards for scientific inquiry, and applied knowledge for the teaching and learning of students that demarcate the discipline (Abbott, 2001; Becher & Trowler, 1989). Social structures include the community of scholars, language, journals and associations, physical locations and majors within universities, and audiences regarding resources or respect (Abbott, 2001; Becher & Trowler, 1989). Becher and Trowler (1989) argued that institution type and culture, as well as

nationality within a global world perspective also contribute to the social structures inherent in disciplines.

The history of American higher education has both shaped and been shaped by disciplinary cultural and social structures. Because of this, disciplines have created physical structures within American higher education based on disciplinary programs and majors, as well as a social structure and hierarchy of disciplinary knowledge boundaries (Abbott, 2001; Gumport & Snydman, 2002). Becher and Trowler (1989) and Abbott (2001) both acknowledge the power, legitimacy, and prestige that certain disciplines have gained from the development of knowledge and the undergraduate major. Abbott (2001) argued prestige is given to disciplines "most closely associated with organizing principles—those who exercise the profession's knowledge in its most pure form" (p. 145). Disciplines with high consensus have gained the most power, with markers of strong precision of empirical testing and highly agreed upon content to be delivered to students with the control of academics over teaching (Becher & Trowler, 1989; Berstein, 1971). Physics may be the most identifiable discipline to have such characteristics due to its high consensus and cultural and structural agreement (Abbott, 2001; Becher & Trowler, 1989; Kuhn, 1962).

Bounds of knowledge play a major role in the organization of knowledge and programs on physical institutions. Just as much as the universities impact the disciplines, disciplines, themselves, impact the university; authority, status, prestige, and legitimacy remain, arguably driving legitimacy conversations in leadership. Riggio (2013) referenced Kuhn's (1964) conceptualization of disciplines to argue the emergence of leadership studies and argued that leadership studies must consider developing the academic and educational rigor of leadership studies, as well as the acknowledgement of the transdisciplinary nature of leadership studies. He argued, "The great number of departments or programs with leadership in their name, the greater number of leadership courses, the more faculty whose titles suggest some affiliation with Leadership Studies, the more likely, and the sooner, we will be recognized as a stand-alone discipline" (Riggio, 2013, p. 13). While Riggio's (2013) argument may be important for the external face of leadership studies, this has implications for the conversations and consensus happening among leadership educators. Kuhn's (1962) conceptualization of disciplines reflected tight-fitting, high consensus bodies of knowledge in normal science. However, this conceptualization does not take into account disciplines who do not experience such tight-fitting, high consensus characteristics (Abbott, 2001). Further inquiry to the conceptualization of disciplines is needed to better understand the low consensus, transdisciplinary nature of leadership studies and how this affects our claims of legitimacy.

The Nature of Disciplines

Kuhn's (1962) study of the history of normal science led him to believe that disciplines must develop a paradigm to gain status. A paradigm is the "universally recognized scientific achievements that for a time provide model problems and solutions to a community of practitioners" (Kuhn, 1962, p. xlii). Paradigms gain status when "they are more successful than their competitors in solving a few problems that the group of practitioners has come to recognize as acute" (Kuhn, 1926, p. 24). It is the goal to match the paradigm's facts with its predictions, to further articulate the most agreed upon paradigm (Kuhn, 1962). The level of paradigmatic

agreement and the continued empirical testing are what make disciplines distinct (Kuhn, 1962). Change for disciplines then occur when paradigmatic revolutions deem current paradigm no longer relevant or truthful (Kuhn, 1962).

However, many disciplines have not developed such tight-fitting characteristics as explored by Kuhn, nor did the epistemological assumptions match all disciplines. Establishing a strongly agreed upon paradigm for a discipline as broad as the social sciences is difficult to accomplish (Abbott, 2001). The goal for some disciplines is to identify and collect as much social knowledge as possible (Abbott, 2001). This occurs through what Abbott (2001) defined as fractalization within the discipline. Fractalization happens through accommodation, conflict, and revisiting what was previously discarded, "[Social scientific] revolutions make us know the same things in different ways, and their new knowledge seems to be in some way incommensurable with the old, precisely because it is achieved by a different route" (p. 32). Abbot (2001) argued that full disciplinary status was met when the discipline began hiring their own faculty with discipline specific PhD credentials and provided a disciplinary major.

Taxonomy of Disciplines

The lack of agreement on the characteristics of a true discipline has caused trouble for those trying to make sense of disciplinary identity and impact. Additionally, with the growing increase in scholarship within the disciplines, fractalization and further paradigmatic exploration has created disciplinary specialisms that further expand knowledge boundaries (Abbott, 2001; Kuhn, 1962). Abbott's (2001) basic map of the disciplines acknowledge those not as tight fitting as the normal sciences, or pure disciplines, including value and moral disciplines such as the humanities: English, other various languages, the arts, philosophy, and the classics, and the social sciences: economics, political science, sociology, anthropology, history, and psychology. He also acknowledged the emergence of applied and semi-applied fields, such as education, communication, business, accounting, and engineering (Abbott, 2001). Becher & Trowler (1989) tried to make further sense of differences among disciplines by creating a taxonomy. They grouped disciplines into four categories: hard-pure, soft-pure, hard-applied, and soft-applied according to their cultural and social characteristics (Becher & Trowler, 1989). At a macroscopic level, the taxonomy "consolidate[s] the diverse features identified at the microscopic levels of the individuals and the specialism and at the intermediate level of the discipline" (Becher & Trowler, 1989, p. 176).

Fitting Leadership Studies

Leadership studies is most like Becher & Trowler's (1989) soft-applied disciplines. The nature of knowledge in soft-applied disciplines is functional, with a focus on soft-pure knowledge and practice (Becher & Trowler, 1989). These disciplines often generate protocols and procedures in light of the practice of knowledge they teach (Becher & Trowler, 1989). In soft-applied disciplines "practical know-how tends to be valued more highly than theoretical knowledge" (Becher, 1987, p. 283). Leadership studies draws on many soft-pure disciplines to inform what is known about leadership (Kellerman, 1984; Rost, 1991). Through the General Theory of Leadership (GTOL) project, a team of disciplinarians from political science, psychology, philosophy, communications studies, history, public administration, anthropology, and religion

were convened to develop an overarching theory of leadership (Goethels & Sorenson, 2006). However, they were unable to fully integrate epistemological underpinnings of their home disciplines (Goethels & Sorenson, 2006). The work of the GTOL team did, however, confirm the multidisciplinary nature of leadership studies and revealed that leadership is not a pure discipline.

While leadership studies may seemingly fit in the soft-applied disciplinary structure as identified by Becher and Trowler (1989), the authors did argue the difficulty in being able to develop a taxonomy that honored the differences and similarities among disciplines, "the boundaries between hard/soft, pure/applied knowledge domains cannot be located with much precision, and even when they have been staked out, several of the established disciplines fail to fit comfortably within them" (Becher & Trowler, 1989, p. 39). The way in which disciplines develop rich knowledge of the world and its phenomena is inherently different depending on not only disciplinary cultural and social structures (Freidson, 1986; Gumport & Snydman, 2002). The malleable boundaries between low consensus, loose fitting fields causes competition among disciplines for control and authority of knowledge (Abbott, 2001; Becher & Trowler, 1989). This competition impacts those who work across disciplines in areas such as leadership studies and education (Abbott, 2001; Becher & Trowler, 1989). Claims that leadership studies is a discipline have been made, arguing that the discipline has established many markers of legitimacy (Riggio, 2013). However, while these markers are important for recognizing how far leadership studies has come, more questions are raised as we continue to learn more about the emergence of leadership studies and education, and continue to define the body of leadership knowledge and the practice of that knowledge.

Questions for Leadership Studies and Education

Many markers of legitimacy have been established in the area of leadership studies (Riggio, 2013). Professional associations and annual conferences, scholarly journals, books filled with leadership theory, skills, and behaviors, growth of leadership education and degree granting programs encompass much of the work that has been done to date to legitimize and develop the emerging state of leadership. The quest to legitimize leadership studies as a discipline leaves more questions, as the multidisciplinary nature of leadership, informed by pure disciplines often experiencing competition for bounds of knowledge, creates challenges to our own ability to define ourselves. Following are questions to consider as we continue to think about the future emergence and development of leadership.

First, if leadership studies is a discipline, what cultural and social structures exist in leadership? How do these make us a unique body of knowledge and practice? Cultural structures include the epistemologies, paradigms, methodologies, objects of study, rules and standards for scientific inquiry, and applied knowledge for teaching and learning (Abbott, 2001; Becher & Trowler, 1989). Social structures are the community of scholars, language, journals and associations, degree programs, and audiences (Abbott, 2001; Becher & Trowler, 1989).
Further inquiry into the cultural and social structures are needed to better understand the nature of leadership studies and continue to develop our claims to knowledge and practice of leadership.

Second, not only is leadership studies multidisciplinary in nature (Kellerman, 1984), it lacks a disciplinary home which has caused leadership studies programs to emerge in many different disciplinary and departmental homes within physical institutions (Brungardt et al., 2006; Stork et al., 2015). Programs have emerged in business, agriculture, education, liberal arts, and interdisciplinary homes across institutions (Brungardt et al., 2006; Stork et al., 2015). The diversity of disciplines and program homes arguably contributes to the low consensus, loose-fitting nature of leadership. How do we acknowledge and honor the diversity of disciplines operating among us? How does this help us better understand the low consensus that may be present in leadership?

Last, does leadership studies truly fit in disciplinary conceptualizations or taxonomies? Riggio (2013) used Kuhn's (1962) conceptualization of disciplines to identify leadership studies as a discipline. This conceptualization was developed from the pure nature of normal science. Abbott's (2001) conceptualization of disciplines suggests that not all disciplines experience such tight-fitting, high consensus features of pure disciplines, that fractalization and specialisms create movement within and across disciplines. Additionally, though Becher and Trowler (1989) created a taxonomy of disciplines that though they were able to identify certain disciplines with certain disciplinary types, the process remained difficult. How might trying to fit disciplinary norms and markers hinder our ability to truly learn about ourselves and identify our needs in consideration for future development as an area of knowledge and practice? While not discussed in this paper, future inquiry into the conceptualization of fields and whether they are distinct from disciplines. Many use fields and disciplines interchangeably and Becher and Trowler (1989) did not distinguish between to the two. However, there may be more to discover about leadership studies through further inquiry into fields.

Conclusion

In conclusion, as the world grows in complexity, the more leadership education is being called upon to provide understanding of the process of leadership in the face of barriers and challenges. Leadership education continues to encourage students to practice leadership in the face of these challenges through education and scholarship. Identifying the knowledge, skills, beliefs, and behaviors students need to lead in the coming generations is crucial. While we consider how we are educating and what we are teaching, we pause to consider the why of leadership studies with attention to the body of knowledge that informs our understanding of leadership studies and the role legitimacy of knowledge has in our ability to engage as leadership educators. By conceptualizing disciplines and exploring the legitimacy of leadership studies as a discipline, three questions are posed for further consideration as we continue to define ourselves as a body of knowledge and practice needed in the face of a growing complex world.

References

Abbott, A. (2001). *Chaos of disciplines*. Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press. Andenoro, A.

C., Allen, S. J., Haber-Curran, P., Jenkins, D. M., Sowcik, M., Dugan, J. P., &

Osteen, L. (2013). *National Leadership Education research agenda 2013-2018: Providing strategic direction for the field of leadership education*. Retrieved from Association of Leadership Educators website: http://leadershipeducators.org/ResearchAgenda.

Becher, T. (1987). The disciplinary shaping of the profession. In B. R. Clark (Ed.), *The academic profession: National, disciplinary, and institutional settings* (pp. 269-303). Berkley, CA: University of California Press.

Becher, T., & Trowler, P. (2001). *Academic tribes and territories: Intellectual enquiry and the culture of disciplines*. Philadelphia, PA: McGraw-Hill Education.

Bernstein, B. (1971). On the classification and framing of educational knowledge. In M. F. D. Young (Ed.). *Knowledge and Control*, pp. 47-69. London: Collier Macmillan.

Brungardt, C., Greenleaf, J., Brungardt, C., & Arensdorf, J. (2006). Majoring in leadership: A review of undergraduate leadership degree programs. *Journal of Leadership Educators, 5*(1), 4-25.

Bryman, A., Collinson, D., Grint, K., Jackson, B., & Uhl-Bien, M. (2011). *The SAGE handbook of leadership*. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications. Burns, J. M. (1978). *Leadership*. New York, NY: Harper & Row.

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

Freidson, E. (1986). *Professional powers: A study of the institutionalization of formal knowledge*. Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.

Gerth, H. H., & Mills, C. (1946). From Max Weber: Essays in sociology. New York, NY: Oxford University Press, Inc.

Goethals, G. R., & Sorenson, G. L. J. (2006). *The quest for a general theory of leadership*. Cheltenham, UK: Edward Elgar.

Gumport, P. J., & Snydman, S. K. (2002). The formal organization of knowledge: An analysis of academic structure. *The Journal of Higher Education, 26*(2), 135-146.

Hackman, M. Z., & Johnson, C. E. (2009). *Leadership: A communication perspective.* Long Grove, IL: Waveland Press, Inc.

Harvey, M., & Riggio, R. E. (2011). *Leadership studies: The dialogue of disciplines*. Cheltenham, UK: Edward Elgar.

International Leadership Association (ILA). (2008). *Guiding questions: Guidelines for leadership education programs*. International Leadership Association Annual Conference: Los Angeles, CA. http://www.ila-net.org/Communities/LC/GuidingQuestionsFinal.pdf

Kellerman, B. (1984). *Leadership: Multidisciplinary perspectives*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, Inc.

Komives, S. R., Dugan, J. P., Owen, J. E., Slack, C., & Wagner, W. (2011). *The handbook for student leadership development*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Kuhn, T. S. (1964). *The structure of scientific revolutions*. Chicago, IL: University of Chicago press.

Northouse, P. G., (2010). *Leadership: Theory and practice*. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications.

Perucci, G., & McManus, R. M. (2013). The state of leadership studies. *Journal of Leadership Studies, 6*(3), 49-54.

Riggio, R. E. (2011). Is leadership studies a discipline? In M. Harvey & R. E. Riggio Editor (Eds.), *Leadership studies: The dialogue of disciplines* (pp. 9-19). Cheltenham, UK: Edward Elgar.

Riggio, R. E. (2013). Advancing the discipline of leadership studies. *Journal of Leadership Education, 12*(3).

Rost, J. C. (1991). *Leadership for the twenty-first century*. Westport, CT: Praeger.

Sowcik, M. (2013). Exploring the legitimacy, maturity, and accountability of leadership studies programs: A movement toward "good" practices. *Journal of Leadership Studies, 6*(3), p. 47-72.

Stogdill, R. M., & Bass, B. M. (1982). *Stogdill's handbook of leadership: A survey of theory and research, revised and expanded*. New York, NY: The Free Press.

Stork, E., Grant, A. J., & Darmo, L. (2015). Leadership graduate degree programs: A comparative review and analysis of value propositions. *Journal of Leadership Studies, 9*(2), 19-38.

A 15-Year Perspective of the *Journal of Leadership Education*

Katelyn Mize, Barry Boyd, & Jennifer Strong
Texas A&M University

Abstract

Perspective analysis of research journals provide important information about topic areas being researched, most common methodologies, and sometimes indicate trends that guide future research in the field. This 15-year analysis found more articles in JOLE focus on research than any other category. Of those research articles, the vast majority use descriptive or experimental methodology.

Introduction

Perspective analysis of research journals provide important information about topic areas being researched, most common methodologies, and sometimes indicate trends that guide future research in the field. The most recent analysis of the *Journal of Leadership Education* (JOLE) was conducted in 2009 (Edgar, Boyd, Briers and Rutherford). Since that time, JOLE has grown both in numbers of articles submitted and published, as well as in the variety of contributing authors. Because of this rapid growth, the authors deemed another examination of JOLE pertinent. This paper is part of a larger analysis of the past, present, and future of leadership research as displayed in the *Journal of Leadership Education.*

Review of Literature

Critical reviews of professional journals is a needed, yet work intensive undertaking. Goldsmith (1983) states journal reviews provide critical information about a profession that can be quantified, giving insight into the state of the profession and potential directions for new research.

Edgar, Boyd, Rutherford, and Briers (2009) examined the research themes, contributing authors, and research methodologies of manuscripts published during the first five years of publication of the *Journal of Leadership Education* (JOLE). Forty-five articles met the authors' criteria for inclusion in their study. Edgar, et al. found 17 primary research themes and 23 secondary research themes. They interpreted the wide variety of themes as a lack of continuity within the field of leadership education. The themes of Leadership Education and Leadership Development dominated the primary themes with 14 and 11 articles respectively. The remaining 15 themes garnered 3 or fewer articles each. With 18 identified themes, it became clear there was a lot of variety of articles being published in the first five years of JOLE.

In addition to Edgar, et al.'s 2009 examination of JOLE, Moore and Stewart (2015) examined the nature of the sources used by authors of research articles in JOLE. They found that of the 3,497 citations in 125 research features, books and journals comprised almost 87% of the citations. Nine books and five journal articles were cited most often.

In a review of research in *The Leadership Quarterly*, Mumford (2011) noted international author contributions to the journal had significantly increased during his tenure as editor, adding richness to the discussion of leadership through this multicultural perspective. In addition, there had been a growth of contributions from other fields, such as political science, philosophy, and liberal arts. The growth in contributions from these fields has provided a diversity of perspective to leadership research. Mumford also noted that several important themes have recently emerged that merit further research: 1) leader performance, 2) leadership capacity, 3) collective leadership, 4) pro-social behavior, and 5) leader failure.

Purpose

"Journal analysis can provide a means of assessing key factors that usually indicate the research and publishing characteristics of a profession" (Radhakrisha, Eaton, Conroy, & Jackson, 1994, p. 64). The purpose of this study was to examine the content of the past 15 years of articles published in The *Journal of Leadership Education* and categorize them according to each of the four JOLE publication categories and to examine the research methodologies utilized by JOLE authors.

The research questions for this portion of the larger study were to assess the:
1. Frequencies of categories of articles published in JOLE.
2. Frequencies of research methodologies used by JOLE authors.

Theoretical/Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework for this study is grounded in Boulding's (1956) general systems theory. This theory studies the relationships between works of empirical knowledge. Leadership education is a subset of the discipline of leadership, which finds its origins in many fields. The inherent crossover of leadership complicates the ability to see the interconnectedness and to look at past research and future trends. Peter Drucker (1998) suggested:

...in human affairs political, social, economic, and business, it is pointless to try
to predict the future, let alone attempt to look ahead 75 years. But it is possible
and fruitful to identify major events that have already happened, irrevocably, and
that therefore will have predictable effects in the next decade or two. It is possible,
in other words, to identify and prepare for the future that has already happened (p. 16).

General systems theory can help researchers find and report the relationships between diverse research articles and methodologies.

Methods

This study utilized summative content analysis methodology. Content analysis, the systematic sorting many words of text into discernible categories (Patton, 2002) has been found to be a reliable method for analyzing leadership texts (Edgar & Cox, 2010). Volumes and issues 1(1) through 15(3) of the *Journal of Leadership Education* were examined and analyzed using a

modified content analysis for leadership procedure as designed by Insch, Moore, and Murphy (1997). Issues were first examined and articles categorized according to JOLE categories: Research Feature, Theory Feature, Idea Brief, and Application Briefs. Published research articles were further examined using a more structured content analysis. The authors created a list of research methodologies (Fraenkel, Wallen, & Hyun, 2012) and compared that list to the types of research published in JOLE to ascertain the breadth and depth of research.

Only the primary categories of Research Features, Theory Features, Idea Briefs and Application Briefs were examined in this study. Commentaries and Editor's Comments were not included in the analysis for this research. In addition, special issues were also not categorized as part of this study. Because special issues have predetermined themes and often use invited authors, the researchers felt that manuscripts from special issues would skew the findings.

To ensure interrater reliability, categories randomized articles were chosen in each volume and issue by a second researcher and categorized (Patton, 2002). This second analysis yielded a 100% match in categorization.

Results

The first research question was to assess the types of articles being published in JOLE. JOLE currently publishes in three categories: Research Feature, Theory Feature, and Application Brief. In previous years, a fourth category, Idea Brief, was also included. The Idea Brief Category was included in the tabulations to include those manuscripts previously submitted in this category. Category rankings are reported in Table 1.

Table 1
Frequencies and Percentages of Articles Published by Category

Category	f	%
Research	193	54.0
Application Brief	98	27.5
Theory	39	11.0
Idea Brief	16	0.5
Total	356	100

The number of Research articles published is almost double the number of Application Briefs. Manuscripts that discuss new and emerging Theory are represented in 39 articles. Idea Briefs constitute 16 articles. The limited number of Idea Brief articles may indicate why this category was eliminated by the JOLE managing board. The high number of research articles may indicate that more academic faculty are submitting manuscripts than leadership practitioners. Research articles are one criteria by which faculty pursuing tenure and promotion are measured. In addition, the number of research manuscripts published in Volumes 1-5 are one-third the number published in volumes 11-15. The number of application briefs published was double in the last five issues over those published in the first 5 issues. This may be due to an influx of new authors submitting to JOLE.

Research question two sought to categorize the typologies of research found in the Research, Research Features, and Research and Theory Features articles published in JOLE in the last 15 years. Fraenkel, et al.'s (2012) categorizations of types of research was used to categorize the articles. Table 2 details the frequencies of the typologies.

Table 2
Frequencies and Percentages of Research Methodologies

Category	*f*	*%*
Descriptive	67	34.7
Experimental	35	18.1
Causal-Comparative	32	16.6
Quasi-Experimental	16	08.3
Phenomenology	9	04.7
Evaluation	8	04.1
Historical	4	02.1
Ethnography	0	00.0
Grounded Theory	0	0.00
Case Study	0	0.00
Narrative Analysis	0	0.00
Total	193	100

Descriptive, or basic, research is the most utilized research methodology by authors in JOLE. It is the most frequent method by almost two times the second most frequent, experimental design. Causal-Comparative design was the third most frequent methodology followed by phenomenology, and historical. There were no research articles in JOLE found that used Grounded Theory, Case Study, or Narrative Analysis as the fundamental research method.

Discussion/Recommendations/Conclusion

JOLE is the premier journal whose focus is on the study and application of leadership education. Because of its focus, there are many categories of articles used by the readership. Research and Application categories are the most frequent published in the journal. Research in leadership education should inform best practices. Because the number of research manuscripts is double the number of application manuscripts, it is recommended JOLE pursue more manuscripts that apply the findings of its published research.

Descriptive, or basic research is the most utilized research methodology used by JOLE authors with Experimental being the second most frequent. It is recommended that future JOLE authors look to other types of research methods to fill the literature gaps that descriptive research creates. Many research studies that use descriptive statistical analysis do so because of small populations. It is recommended leadership educators collaborate to increase their sample populations. It is also recommended that authors explore more and diverse qualitative methods as well.

The authors will continue this examination of manuscripts published in JOLE by examining context as it relates to the NLERA and articles published in JOLE. The question of variation in context (i.e. higher education, administration, students, agriculture, and community

development) is intriguing and deserves further investigation. Future research and discussion will also focus on the purpose and goals of the journal and if there are correlations between the NLERA and the goals of JOLE. Additional research will also look at research methods used in research manuscripts published in JOLE.

References

Boulding, K. E. (1956). General systems theory: The skeleton of science. *Management Science, 2*(3), 197-208.

Drucker, P. F. (1998). *The leader of the future*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, Inc.
Edgar, L. D., Boyd, B. L., Rutherford, T. & Briers, G. E. (2009). Research Themes, Authors, and Methodologies in the Journal of Leadership Education: A Five-Year Look. *Journal of Leadership Education, 8*(2), 147-166.

Edgar, L. D., & Cox, C. (2010). Citation structure: An analysis of the literature cited in the *Journal of Leadership Education* from 2002 to 2006. *Journal of Leadership Education, 9*(1), 87-104).

Fraenkel, J. R., Wallen, N. E., & Hyun, H. H. (2012). *How to design and evaluate research in education*, (8th Ed.). New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.

Goldsmith, E. B. (1983). An empirical analysis of the Home Economics Research Journal. *Home Economics Research Journal, 1*(3), 207-213.

Insch, G. S., Moore, J. E., & Murphy, L. D. (1997). Content analysis in leadership research: Examples, procedures, and suggestions for future use. *Leadership Quarterly, 8*(1), 1-25.

Moore, L. L. & Stewart, A. (2015). An empirical analysis of the literature cited in the *Journal of Leadership Education*. *Journal of Leadership Education, 14*(1),174-187. DOI: 1012806/V14/I1/R11.

Mumford, M. D. (2011). A hale farewell: The state of leadership research. *The Leadership Quarterly, 22*(1), 1-7.

Patton, M. (2002). *Qualitative research and evaluation methods* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Radhakrishna, R. B., Eaton, D., Conroy, C., & Jackson, G. (1994). An empirical analysis of literature cited in the Journal of Agricultural Education. *Journal of Agricultural Education, 35*(1), 61-65.

What skills do volunteer leaders need? A Delphi study

Carley C. Morrison & Laura L. Greenhaw
Mississippi State University

Abstract

Non-profit and volunteer-based organizations are tasked with meeting the needs of their communities with limited resources. Today, more than ever, these organizations are stretched to their limits increasing the workload for paid staff. Training volunteers to lead the volunteer efforts is one way to spread the workload throughout the organization. Although there are guidelines for leadership development in for-profit organizations, there is limited literature pertaining to specific competencies and skills volunteer leaders in non-profit and volunteer-based organizations should possess. This study, employing Delphi methodology, was conducted with volunteer directors in the community to identify leadership competencies for volunteer leaders. At the conclusion of three rounds of iteration, 42 competencies were identified.

Introduction/Literature Review

Nonprofit volunteers and for-profit employees differ in their reasoning and motivation for engaging in their respective jobs (Boezeman & Ellemers, 2014; Cnaan & Cascio, 1999; Pearce, 1993). For this reason, leadership styles directed at for-profit organizations are not appropriate for nonprofit organizations (Farmer & Fedor, 2001). Moreover, the traditional single leader model is becoming less affective as the demands of nonprofit organizations increase. Small (2007) suggests

> Traditionally, leadership theories have focused on vertical leadership, in which a person who has been appointed to a position of authority exerts downward influence on subordinates. However, appointed leaders are not the only ones who can demonstrate leadership behavior. In team situations, team members can exert influence on each other and share the leadership process. (p. 5)

The transition toward team work structures, particularly in capacity-limited non-profit organizations, can present a challenge in providing the leadership necessary to achieve organizational success. Volunteer-based organizations must identify ways to provide the requisite leadership for their volunteers to accomplish personal and organizational goals.

> Volunteer leadership remains a vast untapped resource for nonprofits not only to expand capacity for service and volunteering but also to provide a strategy for addressing the retention challenge facing volunteer managers…In addition, these leadership roles, if properly supported, cultivate the consciousness, capabilities, and commitment in volunteers, and create lifelong advocates for causes and the change that citizens seek to make in their communities. (Cooperation, 2007b, p. 15).

Programs led by volunteers have a greater impact on communities (Texas AgriLife, n.d). Nonprofit organizations provide opportunities for individuals to give back to their community.

However, retaining those volunteers is a challenge faced by nonprofit organizations across the globe. At times the volunteer can be less invested in the mission of the organization than the paid staff, causing the volunteer to leave rather than return to work towards a common goal (Cooperation, 2007b). According to the Cooperation of National and Community Service (2007a) "one out of three volunteers who volunteer in one year do not volunteer the next year" (p. 1). Moreover, 65.4 million individuals volunteered in 2005, with only 44.5 million returning in 2006 (Cooperation, 2007a).

Northouse (2013) describes leadership as "a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal" (p. 5). Boyd (2003) revealed numerous competencies and skills leaders of nonprofit organizations should possess to effectively facilitate the operation of the organization. Some of these competencies include: organizational leadership, systems leadership, organizational culture, personal skills, and management skills (Boyd, 2003). However, this study focused on paid nonprofit administrators and directors as the leaders of the nonprofit organization. Tuckey, Bakker, and Dollard (2012) state there is limited literature specific to volunteer leader competencies, identification of volunteer leaders, and the outcome of volunteer leadership on the organization as a whole.

Conger (1999) was one of the first researchers to separate the roles of organizational leaders and managers. Moreover, transactional leadership (task vs. relationship) used to be the driving force behind leadership development efforts, however now the attention is on transformational leadership. Transformational leadership has the ability to influence followers on a deeper level and gives them a sense of higher purpose, leads to greater organizational commitment, and instigates trust through confidence and conviction (Hernez- Broome & Hughes, 2004). Topics such as a leader's emotional connectedness, authenticity, credibility, and trustworthiness have all gained the attention of researchers as leadership development continues to gain popularity in academia (Sankar, 2003; Goleman & Boyatzis 2002; Collins, 2001).

In terms of evaluating volunteer leaders' competencies and skills, there has been a shift from direct feedback from the director to more of a 360-degree evaluation (Culp, Brown, Hall, McDonough, Ragland, Weaver, & Whitson, 2009; Hernez-Broome, &Hughes, 2004). This type of evaluation requires multiple people from all levels of the organization to provide feedback on one person's ability to perform a task (Culp et al., 2009). The benefits of this type of assessment, compared to traditional methods, include: enhanced communication between all parties, clearer understanding of roles and expectations, a stronger organization or program, better utilization of the leaders skills, increased leader self-esteem, and increased retention of the leader (Culp et al., 2009). Moreover, this assessment method requires a short turnaround period from evaluation to feedback. "Therefore, the evaluation instrument must be simple enough to require little orientation, so that individuals will easily understand how to complete it" (Culp et al., 2009, para. 6).

Volunteer leaders differ from the paid nonprofit administrators or directors in that a volunteer leader is a non-paid individual with a formally defined role within the organization. A volunteer leader takes charge and ownership in coordinating projects and programs that build community assets, meet community needs, and provide volunteers with a positive experience so that they

continue their journey of service while helping to carry out the mission of the non-profit organization (Jamey Bachman, personal communication, February 9, 2016).

As demands on nonprofit organizations continue to increase, volunteer leaders will have to step-up and assume more responsibility to ease the workload of the paid directors and administrators. The purpose of this study was to determine what competencies and skills nonprofit directors and administrators desire in volunteer leaders within their organizations. The following objective guided this study:

1. Define the competencies and skills desired by directors and administrators in volunteer leaders of nonprofit organizations.

Methods

The Delphi method was used to determine specific competencies desired in a volunteer leader. A Delphi study asks the opinions of experts in the field of study through multiple rounds of survey instrumentation (Linstone & Turoff, 2002). The questionnaires are designed to allow the experts to hone their responses in multiple rounds compared to the responses of the other experts in the panel (Adler & Ziglio, 1996). The Delphi method originated from a study conducted by the Rand Corporation in the 1950s known as "Project Delphi" which pursued the opinions of experts (Pierce, 2007). This method was selected to obtain consensus regarding unique competencies and skills of effective volunteer leaders in non-profit organizations using directors from a diverse collection of non-profit organizations across the nation.

To insure anonymity, none of the participants' responses were linked to them by name. This essential feature of the Delphi method levels the field of panelists and reduces the influence of others on individual responses (Gines-Rivera, 2010). Multiple rounds of instrumentation allow participants to independently form, and revise, their responses slowly over a period of time (Rowe & Wright, 1999). Figure 1 displays the Delphi methodology as a controlled flow of information involving a logical series of questionnaires and feedback to panel participants after each round of iteration.

Phase One Problem
Identified Expert Panel
Identified Instrument
Development
Data Collected and Analyzed

Phase Two
Instrument Two is Developed and Fed Back to Panel
Data Collected and Analyzed

Phase Three
Instrument Three is Developed and Fed Back to Panel
Data Collected and Analyzed

Phase Four Consensus
Achieved Present Results

Figure 1. Steps for conducting a Delphi study.

Delphi Sample

There is no rule of thumb for how many panelists should be included in a Delphi study (Mullen, 2003). However, researchers have expressed concerns about "bias resulting from low response

rates and high attrition rates" (Mullen, 2003, pg. 41). It is recommended that a 70% response rate between iterations should be achieved to maintain statistical rigor (Bradfor, 1996). In addition, Reid (as cited in Mullen, 2003) notes that larger panels increase the drop-out rate, suggesting panels of 20 tend to retain their numbers.

This process involved a snowball sample of directors in various non-profit volunteer organizations representing Starkville, MS, area affiliates of local, state, and national non-profit and volunteer-based organizations. The first round began with a contact list of 150 directors provided by Volunteer Starkville, in Starkville, MS. At the conclusion of the first round instrumentation, respondents were asked to provide a list of additional experts (Hsu & Sandford, 2007; Ludwig, 1994). The additional contacts were added to the 150 directors from the first round email list for rounds two and three.

The Delphi participants were selected for their expertise in the field, as well as, "a related interest in the topic being examined and a willingness to commit and participate in the research study" (Gines-Rivera, 2010, p. 53). Selecting the experts to participate in the Delphi is regarded by many as the most important step of the process because of their influence on the strength of the study (Gines-Rivera, 2010; Hsu & Sandford, 2007; Yousuf, 2007a; Gordon & Pease, 2006; Okoli & Pawlowski, 2004; Dawson & Brucker, 2001). The panelists for the Delphi study were contacted via e-mail to obtain consent to participate in each round of iteration. All identifying information pertaining to the panelists remained confidential.

Delphi Instrumentation, Data Collection, and Analysis

Panelists' opinions were gathered over three rounds of iteration using researcher developed questionnaires with open ended and rank order questions. The questionnaires were administered through Qualtrics online survey software. The number of rounds conducted in a Delphi study is dependent upon the desired outcomes of the research and the make-up of the panelists (Gines-Rivera, 2010; Skulmoski, Hartman, & Krahn, 2007). However, the more rounds conducted, the higher the drop-out rate of the participants (Skulmoski et al., 2007). Three rounds were used in this study. Before the panel responded to each round of iteration they were informed about the scope of the study and any risks associated with participating. The panelists indicated their voluntary consent to participate by completing each instrument.

Round one questionnaire asked respondents 1) In a volunteer organization, what are the most important leadership competencies a volunteer leader should possess?, and 2) In a volunteer organization, how should volunteer leaders be assessed on these leadership competencies? The two initial questions were followed by a place for respondents to report their names, organizations, and titles. Demographic information was collected only to determine who responded to multiple rounds of iteration during the data collection period. Participants were given two weeks to respond to round one of the Delphi.
To increase participation, an email reminder was sent one week after the first questionnaire was distributed to the panel (Dillman, 2011). Results from the first round questionnaire were analyzed three weeks after first contact was made. A list of competencies a volunteer leader should possess was compiled from the responses, along with a list of how they should be

assessed. Similar terminology was combined to a common competency (Schmidt, 1997). The initial questions were distributed to the additional contacts provided by the experts and the same procedure was followed to compile one list from the first round of the Delphi study. A total of 20 experts participated in the first round.

The questionnaire for the second round of the Delphi was developed from the responses on the round one questionnaire (Skulmoski et al., 2007). This questionnaire listed the competencies and assessment techniques identified in the first round in descending order with the most common competency or assessment technique listed first and the least common listed last. During the second round, the participants were asked to confirm, assess, and reevaluate their initial responses. In addition, the 20 panelists were then asked to indicate at what level they agreed with each competency using a 5-point rating scale where 5 = "strongly agree" and 1 = "Strongly disagree". All participants were then asked to make additional suggestions of competencies not included in the round two list (Okoli
& Pawlowski, 2004). To increase participation, an email reminder was sent one week after the second questionnaire was distributed to the panel (Dillman, 2011). At the conclusion of round two, 16 respondents participated.

The results of round two were analyzed three weeks after the questionnaire was administered. For this study, consensus on a competency was defined by a mean value of
4 or higher on the 5-point rating scale (Mayberry, 2009). Descriptive statistics (means, median, mode, and standard deviation) were used to analyze round two. The same procedures and data analysis methods were used for round three of the Delphi, with the exception of the option to add additional competencies. Round three was distributed to the 20 original respondents with a response rate of 100%. At the conclusion of round three, the statistical average of the opinions in the final round were calculated to ensure the views of every panelist were reflected (Yousuf, 2007b). At the conclusion of three rounds of iteration, 42 competencies were identified.

Results

Round I

Panelists (n=20) produced a list of 82 competencies and skills volunteer leaders should possess. Similar terminology was combined into a single term and a list of 45 competencies was produced as a result of round one as seen in Appendix A. Several competencies and skills were repeated by multiple respondents while others were only listed once.

Additionally, the panelists provided 18 ways to assess volunteer leaders on their ability to demonstrate the identified leadership competencies and skills. Some measures of assessment were only recorded by one respondent while others were repeated by multiple panelists. The responses were combined to reflect 16 independent assessment measures. Those measures are listed in Appendix B.

Round II

The instrument used for the second round of the Delphi was developed from the list of leadership competencies and skills, and assessment measures identified by the panel of experts in the first round. The items were listed under their corresponding question with a 5-point rating scale where 1 = very unimportant, 2 = unimportant, 3 = neither important nor unimportant, 4 = important, and 5 = very important. Respondents were also given the opportunity to provide additional responses to each question.

An email with the link to the round-two online questionnaire was sent using the initial listserv with the addition of contacts provided by the round one respondents. Panelists were asked to respond within three weeks for the second round. A reminder email was sent after one week to encourage participation. Sixteen panelists participated in round II (n = 16).

Analysis of round two data indicated that all competencies met the original criteria of a mean of 4 to be included in round three of the Delphi. In order to pare down the list of competencies, the cut off mean was increased to 4.25 or greater. The descriptive statistics for each item included in the Delphi II are listed in Appendix C.

Dependability was the most important competency identified by panelists in round II (M = 5.00, SD = 0.00, Mode = 5). Patience and a service-oriented attitude followed as also being important competencies for a volunteer leader to possess (M = 4.75, SD = 0.45, Mode = 5); (M = 4.75, SD = 0.58, Mode = 5). The panel rated: identifying weaknesses in other volunteers, intuition, meet the needs of other volunteers, and goal-oriented as the least important competencies and skills, therefore eliminating them from the Delphi III (M = 4.19, SD = 0.75, Mode = 4); (M = 4.13, SD = 0.72, Mode = 4); (M = 4.13, SD = 0.81, Mode = 4); (M = 4.06, SD = 1.00, Mode = 4). Additionally, the item persistent (M = 4.40, SD = 0.51, Mode = 4) was combined with patience to form one item. Respondents listed conflict resolution, critical thinking, and trustworthiness as additional terms for round three. Trustworthiness was combined with possess integrity, and conflict resolution and critical thinking were added to the round three instrument for a total of 42 items.

With regards to what measures should be used to assess volunteers' leadership competencies and skills, the panelists indicated nine of the 16 items were very important. The panelists rated tactical goals that can be measured (M = 4.19, SD = 0.66, Mode = 4), membership numbers and attendance at events (M = 4.19, SD = 0.83, Mode = 4), questioning (M = 4.06, SD = 0.68, Mode = 4), self-evaluation with a rubric (M = 3.88, SD = 0.62, Mode = 4), prior experience (M = 3.81, SD = 0.75, Mode = 4), time spent in leadership role (M = 3.81, SD = 0.75, Mode = 4), and interviews (M = 3.81, SD = 0.83,

Mode = 4) below a mean value of 4.25, therefore those items were removed from the third round of the Delphi study. There were no additional assessment measures listed by the respondents, therefore no items were added to instrument for round three of the Delphi. Appendix D displays the descriptive statistics for the assessment measures.

Round III

The items from round II that met the adjusted criteria of a mean of 4.25 or higher were listed in random order to formulate the Delphi III instrument. The panel of experts were again asked to rate the remaining competencies and assessment measures on a scale of 1 to
5 where 1 = very unimportant, 2 = unimportant, 3 = neither important nor unimportant, 4 = important, and 5 = very important. The instrument contained 42 competencies and skills and nine assessment measures.

An email with the link to the round-three online questionnaire was sent using the initial listserv with the addition of contacts provided by the round two respondents. Panelists were asked to respond within three weeks for the third round. A reminder email was sent after one week to encourage participation. 20 panelists participated in round III, however, two respondents were deemed outliers and removed from the study leaving 18 panelists (n = 18).

For data analysis, the original removal criteria of a mean value of 4 was reinstated for the final round of the Delphi study. Based on this criteria the panel of experts reached consensus on all 42 leadership competencies and skills. Table 1 lists the ratings and descriptive statistics for the competencies and skills, in rank order.

Table 1

Results of Delphi III: Descriptive statistics from panelists who rated the leadership competencies and skills that volunteer leaders need to successfully lead volunteer groups in their non-profit organizations

Volunteer Leadership Skills and Competencies	N	M	SD	Mode
1. Dependable	18	4.94	0.24	5
2. Respect for others	18	4.78	0.43	5
3. Good Listener	18	4.72	0.46	5
4. Commitment	18	4.67	0.49	5
5. Positive Attitude	17	4.65	0.49	5
6. Able to work with minimal guidance and supervision	18	4.61	0.61	5
7. Communication skills	18	4.61	0.50	5
8. Punctual	18	4.61	0.50	5
9. Consideration	18	4.56	0.51	5
10. Service-oriented Attitude	18	4.56	0.51	5
11. Knowledge of organization's operating procedures	18	4.56	0.62	5
12. Ability to encourage	18	4.50	0.51	5

Note. Responses based on a 5-point rating scale with 5 = very important and 1 = very unimportant.

Results of Delphi III (continued)

Volunteer Leadership Skills and Competencies	N	M	SD	Mode
13. Dedication	18	4.50	0.51	5
14. Initiative	18	4.50	0.51	5
15. Kindness	18	4.50	0.51	5
16. Possess integrity	18	4.50	0.51	5
17. Willingness to serve	18	4.50	0.62	5
18. Willingness to go above and beyond	17	4.49	0.69	4
19. Conflict Resolution	18	4.44	0.51	4
20. Organized	18	4.44	0.51	4
21. Compassion	18	4.44	0.62	5
22. Leadership	18	4.44	0.62	5
23. Recruit and mentor new volunteers	18	4.44	0.62	5
24. Resourceful	18	4.44	0.62	5
25. Willingness to give oneself	18	4.44	0.62	5
26. Identify strengths of other volunteers	18	4.44	0.70	5
27. Resiliency	18	4.44	0.70	5
28. Patience	17	4.41	0.51	4
29. Ability to teach	18	4.39	0.61	4
30. Critical thinking	18	4.39	0.61	4
31. Delegate and support team activities to achieve organizational goals	18	4.39	0.61	4
32. Lead by example	18	4.39	0.61	4
33. Ability to motivate	17	4.35	0.49	4
34. Enthusiastic	17	4.35	0.61	4
35. Ability to network with others	18	4.33	0.69	5
36. Personality	18	4.33	0.69	5
37. Scheduling and related documents	18	4.28	0.75	4
38. Driven	18	4.22	0.65	4
39. Must have back-up plans and incentives for those who volunteer	18	4.22	0.81	5
40. Assessment and evaluation skills	18	4.17	0.71	4
41. Facilitate participation by local internal and external stakeholders	18	4.17	0.71	4
42. Confident	17	4.06	0.75	4

Note. Responses based on a 5-point rating scale with 5 = very important and 1 = very unimportant.

As in round two, dependability received the highest rating in round three (M = 4.94, SD = 0.24, Mode = 5). Respondents also rated respect for others and good listener as competencies and skills that are important for volunteer leaders to possess (M = 4.78, SD = 0.43, Mode = 5); (M = 4.72, SD = 0.46, Mode = 5). Confident, facilitate participation by local internal and external stakeholders, and assessment and evaluation skills received the lowest rating, but still met the original criteria for consensus among the panel of experts (M = 4.06, SD

= 0.75, Mode = 4); (M = 4.17, SD = 0.71, Mode = 4); (M = 4.17, SD = 0.71, Mode = 4). The panel of experts also reached consensus on all nine measures for assessing volunteers' leadership skills and competencies. Follow-through received the highest rating as being the most important measure for assessing volunteers leadership skills and competencies (M = 4.83, SD = 0.38, Mode = 5). The descriptive statistics for all measures of assessment are listed in Table 2.

Table 2

Results of Delphi III: Descriptive statistics from panelists who rated the measures of assessing leadership competencies and skills in volunteer leaders

Volunteer Leadership Assessment Measures	N	M	SD	Mode
1. Follow-through	18	4.83	0.38	5
2. Ability to obtain quality volunteers	18	4.67	0.49	5
3. How well they communicate with general volunteer population	18	4.61	0.50	5
4. Return rate of volunteers	18	4.50	0.51	5
5. Interactions with other volunteers	18	4.44	0.51	4
6. Responsiveness of general volunteer population to react to leader's call to action	18	4.39	0.50	4
7. Confidence in skills taught	18	4.33	0.49	4
8. Feedback from general volunteer population	18	4.33	0.49	4
9. Observations	18	4.33	0.59	4

Note. Responses based on a 5-point rating scale with 5 = very important and 1 = very unimportant.

Conclusion and Recommendations

A panel of 20 volunteer directors contributed to the development of the 42 competencies identified over three rounds of iteration. Although the questionnaire was distributed to experts across Mississippi, actual respondents represented affiliates of state, national, and international organizations based in the Starkville area. Therefore, the results of this Delphi conducted as a preliminary stage of a larger study should not be generalized past the scope of this research. However, it should be noted, the desired 20 member panel, as suggested by Reid (as cited by Mullen, 2003), and a 70% response rate ($n \geq 16$) was achieved increasing statistical findings of the Delphi study (Bradfor, 1996).

Over three rounds of iteration 82 competencies were combined with like terms, or eliminated for not meeting the determined criteria, to a final list of 42 competencies and skills volunteer leaders should possess. For the purpose of training and assessment two competencies were absorbed by similar items (kindness, and commitment) and one item was divided into two terms for added clarity (Delegate team activities to achieve organizational goals and Support team activities to achieve organizational goals) leaving
41 competencies and skills. Although current literature suggests there is a lack of leadership in non-profit and volunteer-based organizations (Cooperation, 2007b; Gibelman & Gelman, 2001), the results of the Delphi suggest the panelists have specific expectations for the volunteers who lead their organizations. Tuckey et al., (2012) states there is limited literature on the specifics of

volunteer leader competencies, creating a noted limitation of this study. However, it is important, and encouraging, to note a handful of competencies identified by the panel of experts matched items mentioned by various other researchers in the field (Sanker, 2003; Goleman et al., 2002; Collins, 2001). The panelists all identify competencies such as integrity, emotional connectedness (compassion), authenticity (willingness to serve), and respect for others as components of an effective leader. Also, the identified list contained competencies and skills that are operational as well as leadership-based supporting Bowers's (2012) statement about organizations relying on volunteers to undertake both types of roles.

Practically speaking, 41 leadership competencies and skills can be overwhelming and hard to digest for a volunteer stepping up into a leadership position. Even with the addition of a factor analysis to this study, no item could be removed from the assessment. Because all of the items loaded onto one factor, it can be concluded that all 41 competencies and skills describe an aspect of leadership, supporting the objective of the study to determine what leadership competencies and skills volunteer directors' desire in their volunteer leaders.

With regards to what measures should be used to assess leadership competencies and skills in volunteer leaders, the experts reached consensus on nine items. These items included: leader follow-through, communication with general volunteer population, return rate of volunteers, confidence in skills taught, feedback for other volunteers, observations, interactions with other volunteers, responsiveness of general volunteer population to react to leader's call to action, and ability to obtain quality volunteers. These assessment measures match the components of a 360-degree evaluation by multiple individuals from all levels of the organization, a method that is gaining popularity in the non-profit and volunteer-based sector (Culp et al., 2009; Hernez-Broome, &Hughes, 2004).

Recommendations for Practitioners

Because the list of competencies and skills is so extensive, it is recommended that practitioners identify items from the list that fit their particular volunteer leaders and the organization as a whole, supporting Hernez-Broome and Hughes (2004) notion that the volunteer leadership goal is to capitalize on the leader's strengths while reducing their weaknesses. This recommendation supports suggestions by Intagliata et al. (2000), that not all leadership competencies will support the organization's specific goals, and Henez- Broome and Hughes (2004) conclusion that it is impractical for all leadership to possess the same set of skills. Therefore it is unrealistic to expect mastery of all competencies and skills identified by the Delphi.

Recommendations for Further Research

This Delphi study should be replicated to determine its applicability on a larger scale. Because the panel of experts only represented organizations in the Starkville area, one cannot assume the competencies and skills identified apply to volunteer leaders in all non-profit and volunteer-based organizations. Moreover, because the criteria for elimination was raised in the second round replication is needed to confirm the inclusion of the 41 competencies and skills identified by this study.

The panel was comprised of directors from non-profit and volunteer- based organizations. The Delphi instrument included questions asking the respondents to state their names, affiliated organizations, and position titles for the purpose of monitoring data collection, however, no other demographic information was collected. When replicating this study care should be taken to gather demographics for further analysis. Demographic information can be analyzed to determine if age, gender, years in supervisory position, or organization affiliation impact what leadership skills the directors look for in their volunteer leaders.

References

Adler, M., & Ziglio, E. (1996). Gazing into the oracle. The Delphi method and its application to social policy and public health. London, England

Boezeman, E. J., & Ellemers, N. (2014). Volunteer leadership: The role of pride and respect in organizational identification and leadership satisfaction. Leadership, 10(2), 160-173.

Bowers, K. M. (2012). *An exploration of the leadership behavior of volunteer leaders* Retrieved from https://login.proxy.library.msstate.edu/login?url=http://search.proquest.com/docvi ew/1115317132?accountid=34815

Boyd, B. L. (2003). Identifying competencies for volunteer administrators for the coming decade: A national Delphi study. Journal of Agricultural Education, 44(4), 47-56.

Bradfor, B. D. S. (1996). The Delphi method: a useful tool for the allied health researcher. *British Journal of Therapy and Rehabilitation*, *3*(12).

Cnaan, R. A., and Cascio, T. A. (1999) Performance and commitment: Issues in management of volunteers in human service organizations. Journal of Social Service Research. 24, 1 – 37.

Conger, J. A. (1999). Charismatic and transformational leadership in organizations: An insider's perspective on these developing streams of research. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *10*(2), 145-179.

Cooperation of National & Community Service. (2007a, April). Issue brief: Volunteer retention. Retrieved from http://agweb.okstate.edu/fourh/focus/2007/may/attachments/VIA_brief_retention.pdf

Cooperation of National & Community Service. (2007b, July). Volunteering reinvented: Human capital solutions for the nonprofit sector. Retrieved from http://www.nationalservice.gov/pdf/07_0719_volunteering_reinvented.pdf

Culp III, K., Brown, J., Hall, C., McDonough, K., Ragland, K., Weaver, C., & Whitson, K. (2009). 360-Degree evaluations: A new tool in Extension programming. *Journal of extension*.

Dawson, M. D., & Brucker, P. S. (2001). The utility of the Delphi method in MFT research. The American Journal of Family Therapy, 29, 125-140.

Dillman, D. A. (2011). Mail and Internet surveys: The tailored design method—2007 Updated with new Internet, visual, and mixed-mode guide. John Wiley & Sons

Farmer, S. M., & Fedor, D. B. (2001). Changing the focus on volunteering: An investigation of volunteers' multiple contributions to a charitable organization. Journal of Management, 27(2), 191-211.

Gines-Rivera, A. (2010). A needs assessment of pastoral counselors in Honduras: A Delphi study (Doctoral dissertation). Available from ProQuest Dissertations and Theses database. (UMI No. 3405789) Hanneman, R. A. & Riddle, M. (2005). Introduction to social network methods. Riverside, CA: University of California, Riverside.

Goleman, D., Boyatzis, R., & McKee, A. (2013). *Primal leadership: Unleashing the power of emotional intelligence*. Harvard Business Press.

Gordon, T., & Pease, A. (2006). RT Delphi: An efficient, "round-less" almost real time Delphi method. Technological Forecasting & Social Change, 73, 321-333

Holloway, J. B. (2012). Leadership Behavior and organizational climate: An empirical study in non-profit organization. Emerging Leadership Journeys, 5(1), 9-35.

Hsu, C. C, & Sanford, B. A. (2007). The Delphi technique: Making sense of consensus. Practical Assessment, Research & Evaluation, 12, 1-8.

Hernez-Broome, G., & Hughes, R. J. (2004). Leadership Development: Past, Present, and Future. Human Resource Planning, 27(1), 24-32.

Intagliata, J., Ulrich, D., & Smallwoood, N. (2000). Leveraging leadership competencies to produce leadership brand: Creating distinctiveness by focusing on strategy and results. *People and Strategy*, *23*(3), 12.

Linstone, H. A., & Turoff, M. (2002). The Delphi Method. Techniques and applications, 53.

Ludwig, B. G. (1994). Internationalizing extension: An exploration of the characteristics evident in a state university extension system that achieves internationalization 92 (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from http://etd.ohiolink.edu/sendpdf.cgi/Ludwig%20Barbara%20G.pdf?osul146146542

Mayburry, T. (2010). *Identification of industry needs with hospitality management curriculum development: A delphi study* (Order No. 3405197). Available from ProQuest Dissertations & Theses Global. (250941918). Retrieved from https://login.proxy.library.msstate.edu/login?url=http://search.proquest.com/docvi ew/250941918?accountid=34815

Mullen, P. M. (2003). Delphi: myths and reality. *Journal of health organization and management*, *17*(1), 37-52.

Northouse, P. (2013). Leadership: Theory and practice (6th ed.). Thousand Oaks, California: Sage Publications, Inc.

Okoli, C, & Pawlowski, S. D. (2004). The Delphi method as a research tool: An example, design considerations, and applications. Information and Management, 42, 15-29.

Pearce, J. L. (1993) Volunteers: The organizational behaviour of unpaid workers. London/New York: Routledge

Pierce, I. J. (2007). The unique and essential characteristics of effective ethical leadership in for-profit and not-for-profit organizations: A delphi study (Order No. 3253616). Available from ProQuest Dissertations & Theses Global. (304722896). Retrieved from http://search.proquest.com/docview/304722896?accountid=34815

Rowe, G., & Wright, G. (1999). The Delphi technique as a forecasting tool: Issue and analysis. InternationalJournal of Forecasting, 75(4), 353-375. Schneider B. 1975. Organizational climates: an essay.Pers. Psychol. 28:447–79

Sankar, Y. (2003). Character not charisma is the critical measure of leadership excellence. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, *9*(4), 45-55.

Schmidt, R. C. (1997). Managing Delphi surveys using nonparametric statistical techniques. Decision Sciences, 28,163-11 A.

Skulmoski, G. J., Hartman, F. T., & Krahn J. (2007). The Delphi method for graduate research. Journal of Information Technology Education, 6, 1-21.

Small, E. E. (2007). Shared leadership: A social network analysis (Order No. 3286953). Available from ProQuest Dissertations & Theses Full Text. (304830042). Retrieved from http://search.proquest.com/docview/304830042?accountid=34815

Texas AgriLife Extension. (n.d.). Empowering volunteers to lead extension educational programs [PowerPoint slides]. Retrieved from odfiles.tamu.edu/odfiles/volunteer/.../empowering_volunteers.pptx

Tuckey, M. R., Bakker, A. B., & Dollard, M. F. (2012). Empowering leaders optimize working conditions for engagement: a multilevel study. Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 17(1), 15.

Yousuf, M. I. (2007a). The Delphi technique. Essays in Education, 20, 80-89.

Yousuf, M. I. (2007b). Using experts' opinions through Delphi technique. Practice, Assessment, Research, & Evaluation, 4, 1-8.

Appendix

Appendix A

Table 3

Results of Delphi I: What competencies do volunteer agencies desire in volunteer leaders?

Volunteer Leadership Skills and Competencies
1. Dependable
2. Driven
3. Possess integrity
4. Communication skills
5. Ability to network with others
6. Resourceful
7. Service-oriented Attitude
8. Willingness to go above and beyond
9. Resiliency
10. Ability to motivate
11. Ability to encourage
12. Identify strengths in other volunteers
13. Identifying weaknesses in other volunteers
14. Goal-oriented
15. Enthusiastic
16. Willingness to give oneself
17. Patience
18. Organized
19. Facilitate participation by local internal and external stakeholders
20. Recruit and mentor new volunteers
21. Delegate and support team activities to achieve organizational goals
22. Dedication
23. Commitment
24. Willingness to serve
25. Lead by example
26. Confident
27. Knowledge of organization's operating procedures
28. Personality
29. Intuition
30. Leadership
31. Compassion
32. Meet the needs of other volunteers
33. Initiative
34. Able to work with minimal guidance and supervision
35. Scheduling and related documentation
36. Kindness

Note. Items are listed in order from most frequent to least frequent.

Results of Delphi I (continued)

Volunteer Leadership Skills and Competencies
37. Consideration
39. Persistent
40. Must have back-up plans and incentives for those who volunteer
41. Ability to teach
42. Positive attitude
43. Assessment and Evaluation Skills
44. Punctual
45. Good listener

Note. Items are listed in order from most frequent to least frequent.

Appendix B

Table 4

Results of Delphi I: In a volunteer organization, how should volunteer leaders be assessed on these leadership competencies?

Volunteer Leadership Assessment Measures
1. Observations
2. Follow-through
3. Interactions with other volunteers
4. How well they communicate with general volunteer population
5. Questioning
6. Return rate of volunteers
7. Tactical goals that can be measured
8. Time spent in leadership role
9. Ability to obtain quality volunteers
10. Feedback from general volunteer population
11. Self-evaluation with a rubric
12. Prior experiences
13. Interviews
14. Confidence in skills taught
15. Membership numbers and attendance at events
16. Responsiveness of general volunteer population to react to leader's call to action

Note. Items are listed in order from most frequent to least frequent.
Note. Items are listed in order from most frequent to least frequent.

Appendix C

Table 5

Results of Delphi II: Descriptive statistics from panelists who rated the leadership competencies and skills that volunteer leaders need to successfully lead volunteer groups

Volunteer Leadership Skills and Competencies	N	M	SD	Mode
1. Dependable	16	5.00	0.00	5
2. Patience	16	4.75	0.45	5
3. Service-oriented attitude	16	4.75	0.58	5
4. Driven	16	4.69	0.48	5
5. Possess integrity	16	4.69	0.48	5
6. Positive attitude	16	4.69	0.48	5
7. Delegate and support team activities to achieve organizational goals	16	4.63	0.50	5
8. Lead by example	16	4.63	0.50	5
9. Punctual	16	4.63	0.50	5
10. Resourceful	16	4.63	0.50	5
11. Respect for others	16	4.63	0.50	5
12. Commitment	16	4.56	0.51	5
13. Compassion	16	4.56	0.51	5
14. Good Listener	16	4.56	0.51	5
15. Able to work with minimal guidance and supervision	16	4.56	0.63	5
16. Organized	16	4.56	0.63	5
17. Recruit and mentor new volunteers	16	4.53	0.64	5
18. Initiative	16	4.50	0.63	5
19. Willingness to serve	16	4.50	0.63	5
20. Communication skills	16	4.50	0.52	4.5
21. Consideration	16	4.50	0.52	4.5
22. Dedication	16	4.50	0.52	4.5
23. Kindness	16	4.50	0.52	4.5
24. Knowledge of organization's operating procedures	16	4.50	0.52	4.5
25. Ability to teach	16	4.44	0.63	5
26. Leadership	16	4.44	0.63	5
27. Identify strengths in other volunteers	16	4.44	0.73	5
28. Willingness to give oneself	16	4.44	0.73	5
29. Ability to encourage	16	4.44	0.51	4
30. Persistent+	15	4.40	0.51	4
31. Assessment and Evaluation Skills	16	4.38	0.89	5
32. Confident	16	4.38	0.50	4
33. Willingness to go above and beyond	16	4.34	0.63	5
34. Scheduling and related documentation	16	4.31	0.79	5

Note. Responses based on a 5-point rating scale with 5 = very important and 1 = very unimportant.
Note. + indicates an item combined with a like term and eliminated.
Note. * indicates items eliminated due to a M < 4.25.

Results of Delphi II (continued)

Volunteer Leadership Skills and Competencies	N	M	SD	Mode
35. Must have back-up plans and incentives for those who volunteer	16	4.31	0.70	4.5
36. Resiliency	16	4.31	0.70	4.5
37. Ability to motivate	16	4.31	0.60	4
38. Ability to network with others	16	4.31	0.60	4
39. Enthusiastic	16	4.31	0.60	4
40. Facilitate participation by local internal and external stakeholders	16	4.25	0.93	5
41. Personality	16	4.25	0.68	4
42. Identifying weaknesses in other volunteers*	16	4.19	0.75	4
43. Intuition*	16	4.13	0.72	4
44. Meet the needs of other volunteers*	16	4.13	0.81	4
45. Goal-oriented*	16	4.06	1.00	4

Note. Responses based on a 5-point rating scale with 5 = very important and 1 = very unimportant.
Note. + indicates an item combined with a like term and eliminated.
Note. * indicates items eliminated due to an M < 4.25.

Appendix D

Table 6

Results of Delphi II: Descriptive statistics from panelists who rated the measures of assessing leadership competencies and skills in volunteer leaders

Volunteer Leadership Assessment Measures	N	M	SD	Mode
1. Confidence in skills taught	16	4.56	0.51	5
2. Follow-through	16	4.56	0.51	5
3. How well they communicate with general volunteer population	16	4.56	0.62	5
4. Interactions with other volunteers	16	4.56	0.63	5
5. Responsiveness of general volunteer population to react to leader's call to action	16	4.50	0.63	4
6. Ability to obtain quality volunteers	16	4.44	0.63	5
7. Observations	16	4.44	0.51	4
8. Return rate of volunteers	16	4.38	0.62	4
9. Feedback from general volunteer population	16	4.31	0.60	4
10. Tactical goals that can be measured*	16	4.19	0.66	4
11. Membership numbers and attendance at events*	16	4.19	0.83	4
12. Questioning*	16	4.06	0.68	4
13. Self-evaluation with a rubric*	16	3.88	0.62	4
14. Prior experiences*	16	3.81	0.75	4
15. Time spent in leadership role*	16	3.81	0.75	4
16. Interviews*	16	3.81	0.83	4

Note. Responses based on a 5-point rating scale with 5 = very important and 1 = very unimportant.

Note. * indicates items eliminated due to a M < 4.25

Emotional Intelligence: Performance matters – or does it?

Justin C. Matus
Wilkes University

Introduction

The purpose of this study is to examine the relationship between Emotional Intelligence (EI) and performance, specifically work performance. EI has been defined variously as a combination of self-awareness, awareness of other's emotions and the ability to self-regulate one's own emotions. A more formal definition was offered by Salovey and Mayer (1990) who state, "We define emotional intelligence as the subset of social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one's own and other's feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one's thinking and actions" (p. 189). The importance of the EI construct was further thrust into mainstream management thinking in the book entitled *Emotional Intelligence* (Goleman 1995) followed by the widely read and often cited article in The Harvard Business Review, entitled *What Makes A Leader?* (Goleman 1998).

Since Goleman's book and follow up article, it is fair to say that the EI construct has been widely embraced by mainstream managers and management consultants as a valid construct and indeed, a necessary ingredient for the successful manager. The reasoning is fairly straightforward and follows the basic logic that people with a high level of EI are better leaders and therefore produce better results. This relationship has been studied rather extensively over the past twenty five or so years. While a number of excellent studies have attempted to validate both the EI construct and the nexus of EI and performance, no single study has carefully and objectively measured the performance of a manager.

There have been proxy measures of a manager's performance such as subordinate's rankings of managers (Wong & Law, 2002), (Kerr, Garvin, Heaton & Boyle, 2006), (Barbuto, Gottfredson & Searle, 2014), but like many other studies of EI they side step the fundamental question. An ambitious meta-analysis by O'Boyle, Humphrey, Pollack, Hawver and Story (2011) suggests that EI "exhibited substantial relative importance in the presence of the Five Factor Model and intelligence when predicting job performance" (p. 788). However, as pointed out in a comprehensive review of the EI literature Matus (2015) posited:

> … these meta-analyses are built upon a seemingly shaky platform drawn from the literature which is filled with qualifying statements, limitations and the usual requisite calls for further research (Cote, S. and Miners, C., 2006; Brackett, M. A. & Mayer, J. D., 2003; Murphy, K., 2009). Yet the researcher teams in both these examples forge ahead, plugging into their model data gleaned from a virtual hodge-podge of populations and methodologies with no regard for the underlying weaknesses in the original studies.

Cote and Miner (2006) state, "despite the popular interest, there is a paucity of studies on how emotional intelligence is related to job performance". This study attempts to address this shortfall.

Methods

This study was designed to directly measure the subject's EI, job performance and business aptitude. Business aptitude is used as a control variable. The study's population was drawn from volunteers enrolled in an MBA capstone business strategy course. Data was collected over the course of two and half years from several sections of an MBA capstone course. Typical class size was between eighteen and twenty-two students. A goal was to achieve a total sample size of approximately one hundred subjects. The study used three instruments to measure the variables of interest. Basic demographic data for each subject was also collected.

The first construct, EI, was measured using the EQ-1 2.0, an on-line, self-administered instrument, widely regarded as a reliable and valid measure of the EI construct. It takes approximately 20-30 minutes to complete the 133 item questionnaire. The EQ-I 2.0 is based on the original Bar-ON EQ-I developed by Reuven Bar-on, copyright 1997. Subjects completing the EQ-I 2.0 receive an overall EI score, five composite scores and from those five composite scores, another fifteen subscales. Scores range from 60 to 140. This study will focus on the overall EI score.

The second instrument used to measure job performance is the Business Strategy Game (BSG), an on-line business simulation. The BSG is a robust and complex simulation which allows each student to manage their own company in a competitive environment. In the BSG simulation, players are pitted against one another as they all attempt to gain market share and earn the maximum amount of profit during each round of decisions. The total number of players may vary, with a maximum of 12 students in a given simulation. During this study, there were typically between 6 to 12 students competing against one another. The game is played over the entire semester, about twelve to fifteen weeks. Each week, the students earn a score for the week as well as a cumulative, overall score. The cumulative, overall score is the measure used for job performance. Scores range from 0 to 100. Using the BSG is an objective and direct performance measure since the simulation and scoring are all contained within the context of the computer program. There is no opportunity for evaluator bias to enter into the scoring and all performance results are based on the efficacy of the business decisions the player makes. These decisions include things like pricing, compensation, employee training, charitable donations, advertising, etc. Put simply, the decisions the student-player must make emulate all the management and leadership decisions a manger would have to make in the real business world.

The third and final instrument used, is the Business Field Exam (BFE), a standardized test developed and administered by Educational Testing Service (ETS). The field exam is an on-line, 3 hour exam, consisting of 124 multiple choice questions reflecting the content of a typical MBA program. Students receive a total score on a scale of 220-300. The BFE has been widely used and is considered reliable and valid (ETS 2017).

Data

Data was analyzed using IBM SPSS 23. Tables 1 and 2 present descriptive statistics. The average age of the sample (n = 93) was 29. 53% of the population were female, 47% were male. The mean score for the BSG game was 84, std. deviation was 25.13. The mean score for the

BFE was 247.96, std. deviation was 13.12. The mean score for EI was 103.10, std. deviation was 12.75. Mean scores by gender are also presented for BSG, BFE and EI.

Table 1

Gender		Age	BSG	BFE	EI
female	Mean	28.8883	76.5571	246.5102	104.7347
	N	49	49	49	49
	Std. Deviation	5.56936	26.00800	11.31946	12.71609
male	Mean	29.7688	92.5909	249.5909	101.2955
	N	44	44	44	44
	Std. Deviation	6.24416	21.44291	14.85483	12.70704
Total	Mean	29.3049	84.1430	247.9677	103.1075
	N	93	93	93	93
	Std. Deviation	5.88234	25.15153	13.12933	12.75987

Table 2

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	female	49	52.7	52.7	52.7
	male	44	47.3	47.3	100.0
	Total	93	100.0	100.0	

Table 3 presents regression analysis results with gender, BFE scores and EI scores as independent variables and BSG scores as the dependent variable.

Table 3 Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.445[a]	.198	.171	22.90554

a. Predictors: (Constant), Gender, BFE, EI

Table (cont'd) 3ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	11504.078	3	3834.693	7.309	.000[b]
	Residual	46695.090	89	524.664		
	Total	58199.168	92			

a. Dependent Variable: BSG
b. Predictors: (Constant), Gender, BFE, EI

Table 3 (cont'd) Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
1	(Constant)	-83.993	49.597		-1.693	.094
	BFE	.530	.183	.276	2.891	.005
	EI	.287	.189	.145	1.517	.133
	Gender	15.388	4.834	.307	3.183	.002

a. Dependent Variable: BSG

The results of the regression analysis suggest that gender and BFE scores predict success in the Business Strategy Game simulation, however Emotional Intelligence does not. The model has a modest R square of .198, with BFE's beta of .276 (sig = .005) and gender's beta of .307 (sig. = .002). EI does not enter the model significantly with a beta of .145 (sig. = .133). A post hoc t-test of BFE, BSG and EI scores by gender is presented in table 4 below.

Table 4 Independent Samples Test

		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
BSG	Equal variances assumed	2.643	.107	-3.222	91	.002
BFE	Equal variances assumed	2.797	.098	-1.131	91	.261
EI	Equal variances assumed	.148	.701	1.303	91	.196

There were no statistically significant differences in BFE or EI scores, however there was a statistically significant difference in BSG scores (p = .002) between men and women.

Discussion

This study addressed the question if Emotional Intelligence predicts performance, specifically in managing a business in a simulated environment. The evidence suggests that EI does not predict success in this simulated business game, however business aptitude as measured by the Business Field Exam and gender do predict success. Like many other studies, the challenge seems to be measuring performance. This study sought to use an objective, albeit, proxy measure of one's managerial, if not entrepreneurial skill. As with any simulation, there are limits as to what and how things like performance are measured. In this study each student earns an individual score for how well they played the game which is determined by a variety of different inputs with different weights. No doubt there is an element of uncertainty in which the student player operates, and the game is played over a relatively short period of time. Moreover, the game has not been developed specifically as a measure of managerial skill per se, and is as much meant to be a learning tool encouraging trial and error, experimentation and risk taking. These elements may also explain some of the performance differences between the sexes and suggest future study as well.

As for the EI construct, I will suggest that its value as an employment screening tool is suspect. The literature is rich with a variety of positions on its import and value, so I will not debate the merits here. Rather, I will suggest that the EI construct be held fast for now and that more research with stronger direct measures of a manager's performance be evaluated in relationship to one's EI. The current study is modest in size, the sample population is rather narrow in terms of age, experience and discipline. We may find that in different cultures or different industries a stronger or weaker relationship between EI and performance.

References

Barbuto, J., Gottfredson, R. and Searle, P. (2014). An Examination of Emotional Intelligence as an Antecedent of Servant Leadership. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, Vol 21 (3), 315-323.

Brackett, M. A. & Mayer, J. D. (2003). Convergent, Discriminant and Incremental Validity of Competing Measures of Emotional Intelligence. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin* Vol. 29, (9), 1147-1158.

Brackett, M. A., Mayer, J. D. & Warner, R. M. (2004). Emotional Intelligence and its relation to everyday behavior. *Personality and Individual Differences*, Vol. 36, 1387-1402.

Cote, S. and Miners, C. T. H. (2006). Emotional intelligence, cognitive intelligence, and job performance. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, Vol. 51, No. 1 1-28.
Educational Testing Service. (2017). Retrieved from https://www.programworkshop.com

Goleman, D. (1995) *Emotional Intelligence*. New York: Bantam Books

Goleman, D. (1998). What makes a leader? *Harvard Business Review*, Nov-Dec, 1998.

Kerr, R., Garvin, J., Heatoon, N & Boyle E. (2006). Emotional Intelligence and leadership effectiveness. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 27 (4), 265-279.

Matus, J. C. (2016). Emotional Intelligence: A Review of the Literature. *The Transnational Journal of Business.* Vol 1, No. 1, 53 -65.

Murpy, K. (2009). Emotional Intelligence: A disappointing decade. *The American Journal of Psychology*, Vol. 122, No. 1, 131-134.

O'Boyle, E., Humphrey, R., Pollack, J., Hawver, T. and Story, P. (2011). The relationship between emotional intelligence and job performance: a meta-analysis. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 32, 788-818.

Salovey, P. and Mayer, J. D. (1990). Emotional intelligence. *Imagination, Cognition and Personality*, Vol. 9, No. 3, 185-211.

Wong, C. and Law, K. (2002). The effects of leader and follower emotional intelligence on performance and attitude: An exploratory study. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 13, 243-274.

Personality Types, Generations, and Gender: A Closer Look at the Graduates of an Agricultural and Natural Resource Leadership Development Program

Valerie McKee, Hannah Carter, & Kayla Waldorff
University of Florida

Abstract

Since 1989, the Wedgworth Leadership Institute for Agriculture and Natural Resources (WLIANR) has provided leadership programming for opinion leaders working in the agriculture and natural resource industries in Florida. All participants have received the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) personality instrument. This study sought to describe the personalities of WLIANR participants through personality types and preferences as well as in context to generation and gender. Frequencies showed that participants predominantly preferred extraversion (60.3%), sensing (70.3%), thinking (75.8%), and judging (66.2%). Cross-tabulations revealed few differences between the personalities of participants regardless of their generation. A large gap exists between males who prefer the thinking preference (84.4%) and females (55.4%) who prefer thinking. The psychodynamic approach to understanding leadership, the trait approach, and what is understood about culture and leadership were used to understand the findings.

Introduction

The population is projected to exceed 9 billion people by the year 2050 (United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs, 2015). The challenges associated with this projection will require a new breed of complex adaptive problem solvers and leaders. There are many ways to observe these challenges through the lenses of health, the environment, economics, social systems and food production. Solving the challenges facing 2050 will not require one big innovation but rather many ideas produced by many different kinds of leaders. Understanding that Florida is considered an agriculturally diverse state, the leaders developed within Florida's agriculture and natural resource industries are poised with the opportunity to address the complex challenges of both our present time and our future. Therefore, the selection, preparation, and development of leaders in Florida's agriculture and natural resource industries is important to address future, complex challenges.

Since the mid-1960s, agricultural and natural resource leadership development programs (ANR LDPs) have sought to develop leaders working in the ANR industry (W.K. Kellogg Foundation, 2000). With programs in 41 states in and seven other countries, ANR LDPs make a substantial impact in their communities and the ANR industry (KARL Program, n.d.). Graduates of LDPs have reported increased involvement in public service, understanding of outside perspectives, success in their careers, and greater influence in public policy within the ANR industries (W.K. Kellogg Foundation, 2000). In 1989, the WLIANR was created in Florida (Wedgworth Leadership Institute for Agriculture and Natural Resources, n.d.). This ANR LDP "is designed for people within agriculture and natural resources who have experienced leadership roles and aspire for greater leadership responsibilities in the private and/or public sectors at the community, state, national, or international levels" (Wedgworth Leadership Institute for

Agriculture and Natural Resources, n.d.). The 22-month program is broken into 12 unique study and travel seminars. Each cohort of participants that goes through the program is denoted as a "class." On average, ANR LDPs have a similar scope and structure, lasting 22 months long with 12 seminars and 30 participants.

Participants are selected through an extensive process. In order to be eligible for the program, participants must: be at least 25 years of age, be a citizen of the U.S. and a resident of Florida for one year upon the time of the application deadline, earn a substantial percentage of his or her income from Florida agriculture, natural resources or related areas, and display strong leadership potential (Wedgworth Leadership Institute for Agriculture and Natural Resources, n.d.) After completing an extensive application process requesting information about individual's leadership experience and involvement in their industry and community, nominated individuals will be invited to attend one of three regional orientation seminars throughout Florida to learn more about the program and to participate in a judged panel discussion. Upon completion of the regional seminars, a selection panel of WLIANR alumni, the program staff, and stakeholders come together to determine the new WLIANR class. Determining factors for the WLIANR class are based on the strength of participants' applications and panel discussion, geographical location in Florida, and representation of careers in Florida agriculture and natural resources. In view of this selection process, participants of WLIANR classes may be considered opinion leaders, as they are often recognized in their community and industry as up-and-coming leaders or voices of great influence. Up to 30 men and women are invited to participate in each WLIANR class. Demographic information from the applications of participants is kept on file for future correspondence. From Class I to Class X, there are a total of 276 participants of WLIANR.

The curriculum model for WLIANR is a cumulative learning experience that allows participants to gain an understanding of themselves and their role in local, state, and global policy and agriculture (Wedgworth Leadership Institute for Agriculture and Natural Resources, n.d.). Participants in WLIANR first focus on developing self-awareness and interpersonal leadership through discussion and personal assessments around critical thinking, communication styles, and personality types. Then, WLIANR participants engage in seminars focused on local leadership where urban interface and local policies are discussed. The program focus shifts to state policy and higher leadership positions where state-wide agricultural policy and involvement is brought forth. Finally, WLIANR emphasizes global leadership through a final seminar that takes place in an international location of a developed or developing country.

While the program has existed for nearly 30 years only slight changes have been made to the selection process, curriculum, and seminar structure. This program is now targeting participants of a completely different generation than the generation it was first created for. Furthermore, the learning styles and personalities of the participants have not been studied to determine possible gaps in the program's curriculum and seminar structure.

The purpose of this research is to gain a better understanding of the interpersonal characteristics of WLIANR participants. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to use the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) to describe the personality attributes of the WLIANR participants. Knowledge of participants' personality types and personality preferences can influence how program

concepts are designed, presented, and taught, which in turn can increase the effectiveness of WLIANR in the future. To accomplish this task, this research will describe the MBTI personality preferences, personality types, and generations of WLIANR participants using frequencies and cross-tabulations. The following research objectives guided this study:

1. To describe WLIANR participants through their MBTI preferences and types.
2. To describe WLIANR participants MBTI personality in context to generation.
3. To describe WLIANR participants MBTI personality in context to gender.

This study aligns with the third priority of the National Leadership Education Research Agenda: The Psychological Development of Leaders, Followers, and Learners (Andenoro, Allen, Haber-Curran, Jenkins, Sowcik, Dugan, & Osteen, 2013). Knowing that leadership education and programming is grounded in the psychological development of those served, it is crucial to observe and explore the intrapersonal variables that exist in the WLIANR so that programming practices can be improved upon and participant outcomes are better understood.

Literature Review

Lamm, Carter, and Lamm (2014) determined that the demographics of individuals who voluntarily participate in ANR LDPs lack diversity. An evaluation of 8 ANR LDPs from the southern region found that 74.3% of their graduates are male and 25.7% are female (Lamm et al., 2014). Among those same graduates, the average age at the time of graduation from the programs were as follows: 45.9% graduated at the age of 30 to 39, 29.8% graduated at the age of 50 to 59, 13.4% graduated under the age of 30, 9.4% graduated at the age of 50 to 59, and 1.6% graduated at the age of 60 to 69. In regards to race and ethnicity, the same study found that 92.2% of graduates identify themselves as White, 2.6% of graduates identify as Black or African American, 2.2% of graduates identify as Hispanic/Latino/Chicano, 1.6% of graduates identify as American Indian or Alaska Native, and 0.1% of graduates identify as Asian or Pacific Islander.

However, while research has been conducted on the demographic information of those involved in ANR LDPs, there is a lack of research documenting the shared intrapersonal characteristics, such as generational similarities or personality types, of these individuals. Leadership programming can provide better leadership development for the different generations in the workplace through a better understanding of their personality characteristics and the learning style differences between generations (Johnson & Romanello, 2005; Arsenault, 2004).

Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework used to understand the findings of this study was formed from the psychodynamic approach to understanding leadership, the trait approach to leadership, and what is known about culture and leadership (Northouse, 2016). The psychodynamic approach to understanding leadership includes understanding the interpersonal characteristics of leaders and followers (Northouse, 2016). This approach focuses on the motivations and drivers of human actions which contributes to the relationship between an internal reality and the apparent reality in group dynamics (Neumann & Hirschhorn, 1999).

In the psychodynamic approach, leadership focuses on the "inner theatre," or "the stage filled with people who have influenced, for better or worse, our experiences in life" (Northouse, 2016,

p. 301) and leader-follower relationships. This approach provides researchers with the lens to evaluate hidden social dynamics within a group or organization (Northouse, 2016). Because of these relationships, particular qualities develop over a lifetime and contribute to our ambitions, strengths, weaknesses and other aspects of our personality. Much of human behavior is a result of deep-seated experiences and patterns from throughout a lifetime. This approach helps researchers understand how the shared or similar experiences of people can result in the display of similar values, behaviors, and characteristics.

The trait approach to leadership focuses on understanding the traits of the leader and who has these traits (Northouse, 2016). This approach can be used for personal awareness and development of leadership strengths. The trait approach to leadership has received many criticisms; the most common criticism is that an individual with leadership traits and is a leader in one situation might not be a leader in another situation. This approach does not take situations in account. The MBTI is one instrument used to assess traits of individuals within organizations.

In regards to culture and leadership, Northouse (2016) defines culture as "the learned beliefs, values, values, rules, norms, symbols, and traditions that are common to a group of people" (p. 428). It is because culture is shared among a group that makes culture unique, dynamic, and transmitted to others (Northouse, 2016). Understanding the cultural differences between groups of people provides insight into the leadership development process of these groups as well as the leadership process between groups.

Generational Theory

According to Howe and Strauss (2007), generations are shaped by events or circumstances according to the phase of life its members are experiencing. Generations are valuable due to the observable historical patterns they share which lend itself to a useful tool to predict future trends. Three attributes that more clearly identify generations than years of birth are: perceived membership self-perception of membership within a different generation starting in youth; common location in history, significant world events that happen during formative years; and common beliefs and behaviors, attitudes and behaviors that characterize generations (Howe & Strauss, 2000). Participants of WLIANR are a part of one of the following generations: the silent generation, Baby Boomers, Generation X and Millennials.

Howe and Strauss (2007) defined the individuals born in the years of 1925 and 1942 as the Silent Generation. Influenced by the Great Depression and World War II this generation became America's civil-rights activists and focused on discussion and inclusion. They have increasing disengagement and increasing dependence on government programming that generations who follow will not have.

Baby Boomers are typically classified as individuals born in the years of 1946-1964 (Lancaster & Stillman, 2002). According to Lancaster and Stillman (2002), Baby Boomers are optimistic. This generation was influenced by Martin Luther King, Jr., and John F. Kennedy, Jr. who showed promise that anything was possible and that they could change the world. In their work lives, Baby Boomers are hard workers seeking personal gratification, self-improvement and personal growth.

Generation Xers, of birth years 1965 to 1980, are resourceful and independent yet, skeptical and practical (Lancaster & Stillman, 2002). The creation of the Internet, the collapse of the Soviet Union and the widespread development of technology and media influenced this generation. Lancaster and Stillman (2002) determined that Generation Xers are aware of diversity, self-reliant and are seeking to have fun at work.

Born between the years of 1981 and 1999 is the generation of Millennials who have strong morals, an optimistic outlook and are achievement focused (Lancaster & Stillman, 2002). Being shaped by events like September 11, Columbine and the Columbia Space Shuttle disaster, this generation feels the need to take positive action when things go awry. In a work environment, this generation is self-assured, believes in serving their community, and seeks collaboration.

The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator

A person's personality can be effectively assessed through the MBTI personality instrument (Myers et al., 2009). MBTI is rooted in Carl G. Jung's theory of psychological types. The MBTI instrument determines a personality type based on the individual's responses to items related to four personality dichotomies. The four personality dichotomies are: extraversion (E) or introversion (I), sensing (S) or intuition (N), thinking (T) or feeling (F), and judging (J) or perceiving (P). Based on the responses within each of the four dichotomies, individuals are sorted into one of 16 personality types.

The first of the personality dichotomies is the extraversion or introversion dichotomy (Myers et al., 2009). This dichotomy refers to the way individuals orient and derive their energy. Individuals who prefer extraversion derive energy from occurrences in the external environment and orient themselves outwardly towards people and events. Extraverts find themselves desiring to act on the outside environment, affirm its significance and increase its effects. Extraversion provides individuals with an eagerness to interact with the outside world and a ease with communication and social skills. On the other hand, individuals who prefer introversion derive their energy from their internal experiences and orient their energy towards thoughts and experiences within them. Introverts tend to stay within the internal state and to direct their focus on its stability. Individuals with introversion are inclined to find clarity of concepts, ideas and experiences. Introverts may also find themselves preferring solitude, privacy and a desire to think things through before acting. The American population is about evenly split with approximately 50% extraverts and 50% introverts (Tieger & Barron, 2007).

The second personality dichotomy includes the preferences for sensing or intuition; these preferences explain the way individuals perceive information about things, events, people, or ideas (Myers et al., 2009). The sensing preference refers to perceptions that can be observed through the senses. When placed in a situation of choice, individuals with the sensing preference are inclined to choose the selection that will appeal to their five senses. Sensing individuals derive enjoyment from the present moment, practicality and details. The intuition preference refers to perceptions of possibilities, relationships, and meanings through insight (Myers et al., 2009). Intuition may surface in individuals through "hunches." This allows individuals to see beyond what is happening in the present moment and to become futuristic towards possible

events. Characteristics that surround the intuition personality preference include creativity, imaginative and pattern-seeing. The American population has a higher percentage of sensing types (65%) compared to intuitive types (35%) (Tieger & Barron, 2007).

The thinking and feeling dichotomy relate to how individuals make judgments or engage in decision-making (Myers et al., 2009). The thinking preference engages in decision-making through logical connections. This preference lends itself to being objective and making impersonal choices. Individuals who have the thinking preference rely on impartiality and neutrality; they excel at making decisions and analyzing situations. The feeling preference allows individuals to make decisions based on merit and the values of situations (Myers et al., 2009). These individuals tend to be more in tune with their personal values and feelings towards different topics. They also anticipate the effects of decisions at hand on the other individuals involved. The American population is evenly split with approximately fifty percent thinking types and fifty percent feeling types (Tieger & Barron, 2007). However, there are significant differences in gender within this dichotomy; according to Tieger & Barron (2007), males make up 65% of thinkers within the American population, while females make up 65% of feelers.

The last dichotomy to be described is for the preferences of judging or perceiving, which explains an individual's orientation towards the outside world (Myers et al., 2009). Individuals who have the judgment preference in the outer world come to conclusions more quickly and seek closure and organization. The judgment preference is characterized as being time-oriented, well-structured, and loyal to systems, traditions, and order. Individuals who have the perceiving preference are more attuned to new information. Individuals with this preference are typically curious, adaptable and spontaneous. The perceiving preference is characterized as being flexible and open in their outlook and attitude. The American population has a greater percentage of judging types (60%) than perceiving types (40%) (Tieger & Barron, 2007).

The internal consistency and reliability of the four MBTI scales has been found to be "quite high" in all samples available to date (Myers et al., 2009). The reliability of the MBTI assessment has been calculated through a test-retest reliability measure, which is an estimate of the stability of the assessment over time. A sample of 39 individuals was tested 50 years after their original test date and 21% (n=8) of the test population had the same personality type. The test-rest reliabilities of the MBTI instrument show a pattern of consistency over time, with levels of agreement much greater than by chance. The chance of the individual receiving the same personality type based on chance is 6.25%. When a change in type is reported after a re-test, it typically occurs with one preference where the original preference was marginal or unclear.

The validity of the MBTI assessment is directly related to the ability of the personality inventory to reflect Jung's theory of personality types (Myers et al., 2009). Research reflects the validity of whole types, as well as individual dichotomies. Research was conducted among individuals with evidence proving the validity of whole types due to couple compatibility, reactions to stress, and other characteristics that are clearly defined through the whole types, but are not identifiable from knowledge of individual preferences. Analysis of each of the 16 types has shown that each type can be uniquely described with descriptors and adjectives.

Methods

Every class of WLIANR has received facilitation of the MBTI instrument. The assessment and debriefing of the MBTI is provided to participants at the first seminar of the program. The MBTI types for each participant were also kept on file; however, unfortunately the MBTI types for both Class I and VI were unable to be located for the purposes of this study. Thus, of the 276 total participants of WLIANR, this study was only able to use information from 219 participants from Classes II, III, IV, V, VII, VIII, IX, and X.

Participants were given a generation label according to their birth year as determined by Lancaster and Stillman (2002); "Baby Boomers" were born in the years between 1946 and 1964, "Generation X" was born between 1965 and 1980, and "Millennials" were born between 1981 and 1999. The statistical analysis package known as Statistical Package for the Social Science (SPSS) was used to organize the data for each participant, including the participant's gender, generation label, and MBTI preferences and type. Frequencies were used to collect information on the participants. Cross tabulations were created to examine frequencies of generations versus personality preferences as well as personality types. Cross tabulations were also created to examine frequencies of gender versus personality preferences as well as personality types. Table 1 displays the demographics of the participants of this study, including their gender and generation label.

Table 1
Demographics of Participants (n = 219)

	n	%
Gender		
Male	154	70.3
Female	65	29.7
Generation		
Baby Boomers	89	40.6
Generation X	79	36.1
Millennial	51	23.3

Other secondary demographic information was obtained from archived and reported data. According to the demographic date collected in a program evaluation study conducted by Lamm and Carter (2014), 93% of WLIANR participants indicated they are white, 2% of participants indicated they are Hispanic/Latino/Chicano, 2% indicated they are American Indian or Alaska native, and 3% reported "Other." Furthermore, more than one-third of participants of the program reported having earned a Bachelor's degree, while nearly 31% of participants reported having earned a Master's degree.

Results

The purpose of this study was to use the MBTI to describe the personality attributes of the WLIANR participants. The following research objectives guided this study:
1. To describe WLIANR participants through their MBTI preferences and types.
2. To describe WLIANR participants MBTI personality in context to generation.
3. To describe WLIANR participants MBTI personality in context to gender.

WLIANR participants were described through frequencies of the eight MBTI personality preferences: extraversion, introversion, sensing, intuition, thinking, feeling, judging, and perceiving. Frequencies were also used to describe participants according to the 16 MBTI types represented. The findings for the first objective of this study are displayed in Table 2.

Table 2
Participants' MBTI Preference and Type Frequencies

	n	%
Energy Expression		
Extravert	132	60.3
Introvert	87	39.7
Perceiving Information		
Sensing	154	70.3
Intuition	65	29.7
Processing Information		
Thinking	166	75.8
Feeling	53	24.2
Orientation to the World		
Judging	145	66.2
Perceiving	74	33.8
MBTI types		
ESTJ	55	25.1
ISTJ	36	16.4
ESTP	18	8.2
ISTP	15	6.8
ENTP	15	6.8
ENTJ	13	5.9
ISFJ	11	5.0
ESFJ	11	5.0
INTJ	9	4.1
ENFP	8	3.7
ESFP	7	3.2
INFJ	6	2.7
INFP	5	2.3
INTP	5	2.3
ENFJ	4	1.8
ISFP	1	.5

Table 2 displays both the individual and collective traits from the WLIANR participants' MBTI preferences and types. Participants in general were more likely to be extraverts, with 60.3% (*n* = 132) of respondents identifying as such. In regards to how participants perceive information, the majority of respondents have the sensing preference (70.3%, *n* = 154), while only 29.7% (*n* = 65) of respondents have the intuition preference. Over three-fourths (75.8%, *n* = 166) of participants process information as thinkers, as opposed to as feelers (24.2%, *n* = 53). As well, 66.2% (*n* =145) of respondents had a preference for judging as opposed to the perceiving preference

(33.8%, $n = 74$). The MBTI type of ESTJ was the most prevalent type amongst participants with over 25% ($n = 55$) percent identifying as this personality type. The sensing-thinking types of ESTJ, ISTJ, ESTP, and ISTP are the four most recognized personality types for participants, accounting for 56.5% of all the participants in this study.

Participants were described through cross-tabulations of the frequencies of the eight MBTI personality preferences in context to their labeled generations. Cross-tabulations were also used to describe participants by the 16 MBTI types and generation labels. The findings for the second objective of this study are displayed in Table 3.

Table 3
Cross-Tabulations of Generations and MBTI type

	Baby Boomers		Generation X		Millennial		Total	
	n	%	*n*	%	*n*	%	*n*	%
Energy Expression								
Extravert	51	57.3	49	62.0	32	62.7	132	60.3
Introvert	38	47.7	30	38.0	19	37.3	87	39.7
Total	89	100	79	100	51	100	219	100
Perceiving Info								
Sensing	55	61.8	61	77.2	38	74.5	154	70.3
Intuition	34	38.2	18	22.8	13	25.5	65	29.7
Total	89	100	79	100	51	100	219	100
Processing Info								
Thinking	69	77.5	60	75.9	37	72.5	166	75.8
Feeling	20	22.5	19	24.1	14	27.5	53	24.2
Total	89	100	79	100	51	100	219	100
Outside Orientation								
Judging	55	61.8	58	73.4	32	62.7	145	66.2
Perceiving	34	38.2	21	26.6	19	37.3	74	33.8
Total	89	100	79	100	51	100	219	100
MBTI Type								
ESTJ	21	23.6	22	27.9	12	23.4	55	25.2
ISTJ	11	12.4	17	21.5	8	15.7	36	16.4
ESTP	7	7.9	7	8.9	4	7.8	18	8.2
ISTP	8	9.0	2	2.5	5	9.8	15	6.9
ENTP	7	7.9	5	6.3	3	5.9	15	6.8
ENTJ	6	6.7	4	5.1	3	5.9	13	5.9
ISFJ	3	3.4	5	6.3	3	5.9	11	5.0
ESFJ	3	3.4	6	7.6	2	3.9	11	5.0
INTJ	6	6.7	2	2.5	1	2.0	9	4.1
ENFP	5	5.6	2	2.5	1	2.0	8	3.7
ESFP	1	1.1	2	2.5	4	7.8	7	3.2
INFJ	4	4.5	1	1.3	1	2.0	6	2.7
INFP	2	2.2	2	2.5	1	2.0	5	2.3
INTP	3	3.4	1	1.3	1	2.0	5	2.3

ENFJ	1	1.1	1	1.3	2	3.9	4	1.9
ISFP	1	1.1	0	0	0	0	1	.4
Total	89	100	79	100	51	100	219	100

Table 3 shows the cross tabulations between participants' generation labels and participants' MBTI preferences. Table 3 also shows the cross tabulations of participants' generations and their MBTI types. This table shows that in general Generation X and Millennial participants have closer percentages to each other compared to Baby Boomer participants. There was a 0.7% difference in the percentages of Generation X extraverts (62.0%, $n = 49$) and Millennial extraverts (62.7%, $n = 32$), as compared to Baby Boomer extraverts (57.3%, $n = 51$). A larger gap is seen in the percentage of Baby Boomers with the sensing preference (61.8%, $n = 55$) compared to those of Generation X with the sensing preference (77.2%, $n = 61$) and those of the Millennial generation with the sensing preference (74.5%, $n = 38$). Participants with the thinking preference are closer in percentages when comparing generation groups; Baby Boomer thinkers were represented with 77.5% ($n = 69$), Generation X thinkers were represented with 75.9% ($n = 60$), and Millennial thinkers were represented with 72.5% ($n = 37$). Generation X had the largest percentage of the judging preference with 73.4% ($n = 58$) of participants identifying with the judging preference; there was at least a ten percent gap between Generation X judging types and Baby Boomer judging types (61.8%, $n = 55$) and Millennial judging types (62.7%, $n = 32$). All three of the generations shared the same top two most common MBTI types of ESTJ and ISTJ.

Finally, WLIANR participants were described through cross-tabulations of the frequencies of the eight MBTI personality preferences in context to gender. Cross-tabulations were also used to describe participants by the 16 MBTI types and gender. The findings for the third objective of this study are displayed in Table 4.

Table 4
Cross-Tabulations of Gender and MBTI Type

	Male		Female		Total	
	n	*%*	*n*	*%*	*n*	*%*
Energy Expression						
Extravert	95	61.7	37	56.9	132	60.3
Introvert	59	38.3	28	43.1	87	39.7
Total	154	100	65	100	219	100
Perceiving Info						
Sensing	108	70.1	46	70.8	154	70.3
Intuitive	46	29.9	19	29.2	65	29.7
Total	154	100	65	100	219	100
Processing Info						
Thinking	130	84.4	36	55.4	166	75.8
Feeling	24	15.6	29	44.6	53	24.2
Total	154	100	65	100	219	100
Outside Orientation						
Judging	99	64.3	46	70.8	145	66.2
Perceiving	55	35.7	19	29.2	74	33.8
Total	154	100	65	100	219	100

MBTI Type						
ESTJ	41	26.6	14	21.5	55	25.2
ISTJ	27	18.5	9	13.8	36	16.4
ESTP	16	10.4	2	3.1	18	8.2
ISTP	11	7.1	4	6.2	15	6.9
ENTP	13	8.4	2	3.1	15	6.8
ENTJ	11	7.1	2	3.1	13	5.9
ISFJ	5	3.2	6	9.2	11	5.0
ESFJ	5	3.2	6	9.2	11	5.0
INTJ	7	4.5	2	3.1	9	4.1
ENFP	4	2.6	4	6.2	8	3.7
ESFP	3	1.9	4	6.2	7	3.2
INFJ	2	1.2	4	6.2	6	2.7
INFP	4	2.6	1	1.5	5	2.3
INTP	4	2.6	1	1.5	5	2.3
ENFJ	1	0.6	3	4.6	4	1.9
ISFP	0	0	1	1.5	1	.4
Total	154	100	65	100	219	100

Table 4 shows the cross tabulations between participants' gender and participants' MBTI preferences and types. This table shows similar percentages of male participants who prefer extraversion (61.7%, $n = 95$) and female participants who prefer extraversion (56.9%, $n = 37$). There were close percentages of male participants with the sensing preference (70.1%, $n = 108$) and female participants with the sensing preference (70.8%, $n = 46$). There was a larger number of males are thinkers than there are of females that tested as thinkers (84.4% males, $n = 130$; 55.4% females, $n = 36$) of WLIANR participants. More female participants, percentage wise, preferred the judging preference (70.8%, $n = 46$) than male participants (64.3%, $n = 99$).

Conclusions

Over 50% of participants possess the combination of sensing and thinking preferences. People who prefer both sensing and thinking tend to focus on facts, use non-personal analysis, become practical and matter-of-fact, and have abilities in technical areas with facts and objects (Myers et al., 2009). This finding seems consistent with the understanding of the careers represented by participants in the WLIANR program, which include careers in production agriculture, sales, food safety, finances, and government (Wedgworth Leadership Institute for Agriculture and Natural Resources, n.d.). Compared to the American population, there are greater percentages of participants who are extraverts (60.3% compared to 50%), sensing types (70.3% compared to 65%), thinking types (75.8% compared to 50%), and judging types (66.2% compared to 60%) (Tieger & Barron, 2007).

WLIANR is now programming for a new generation. Yet, the opinion leaders nominated and selected to be in the program are steadily possessing similar MBTI personalities across generations. There are different possibilities for why this could be. This could perhaps speak to the opinion leadership process in Florida's agriculture and natural resource industries; perhaps the same personality characteristics are recognized as admirable and leadership-worthy in these

industries. The trait approach to leadership (Northouse, 2016) could help in understanding this possibility; certain traits associated with certain personality types could be considered to be more leader-like in these industries in Florida and thus deserving of program nomination and selection.

Another possibility for why there are common personality types of participants across generations could be explained by what is understood about culture and leadership and the psychodynamic approach to understanding leadership (Northouse, 2016). The agriculture industry is known for its makeup of family operations; 99% of all farms in the United States are family-owned and operated (United States Department of Agriculture, n.d.). Among the 276 WLIANR participants, 54 individuals are family members of other participants as siblings, spouses, cousins, or sons and daughters. While the literature disagrees as to whether personality can be considered solely a result of the environment or if genetics play a role, the notion can be considered that the common developmental experiences and relationships of participants may lead to similar development personality development. The culture that is passed down by generations within the agriculture and natural resource industries could explain why its leaders have similar characteristics.

A third conclusion for why similar personalities are found across generations of WLIANR participants is that while the agriculture and natural resource industries in Florida have evolved over time, the same types of personalities are drawn to these careers. The literature shows that there are correlations between personality type and specific career fields (Myers et al., 2009).

Male and female participants of WLIANR were found to have similar percentages in personality preferences except for within the thinking and feeling dichotomy. There are more female participants with the feeling preference (44.6%) by percentage than male participants with the feeling preference (15.6%). This is still a lower percentage of female feelers when compared to Americans who prefer feeling (65%) (Tieger & Barron, 2007). It is possible that the traits associated with the feeling preference are better accepted as leadership traits of female leaders than they would be of male leaders who are nominated and selected to be in WLIANR. The trait approach to leadership (Northouse, 2016) and what is known about gender and leadership could be helpful in understanding this possibility.

Recommendations

Future research opportunities exist as a result of this study. While this study can speak to the common personality types and preferences across generations, the social constructs developed around the types and preferences in context to generation cannot be captured through quantitative methods. Thus, there is a need to explore the differences that exist among participants in their understanding and expression of the traits identified by the MBTI as they relate to their generation. This exploration would require qualitative methods to follow-up with this study's findings.

It is quite possible that other ANR LDPs have conducted the MBTI with their participants. These findings can be compared to what is known about WLIANR participants to determine conclusions about the personalities of ANR LDP participants. Also, other leadership trait assessments are administered to ANR LDP participants, such as the True Colors personality

assessment and the Kirton Adaption-Innovation (KAI) Inventory. The results of these assessments are kept on file and could be used as data to compare and to explore what has been found in this study.

Lastly, this study can and should be repeated in the future as the number of Millennial program participants increases; this would provide a stronger comparison of the generations represented in this program. It is possible that significant statistical differences exist if there was a greater population of participants to study.

From a programming standpoint, the WLIANR program director should first and foremost keep in mind the learning styles of the MBTI personality types in the program design. For example, knowing the predominance of both sensing and thinking types, it would be helpful to incorporate and frame program activities that will engage these personalities. These activities could emphasize information perceived through the five senses, details that are tangible and can be practically understood and applied, and opportunities to use logical analysis. While the director should still work to engage all learning styles, it is helpful to be aware of the dominant learning preferences of program participants. It is also helpful for the program director to know the pattern of personalities in WLIANR as the director adapts programming for the next generation of participants. Even as the personalities of the next generation of participants might be similar to those of former generations of participants, modern educational tools and strategies can be used to target the needs and motivations of these same personalities in different ways.

The findings of this study also bring into question why there is the pattern of certain personalities among WLIANR participants. As discussed in this paper, it is possible that certain personality types are attracted to careers in agriculture and natural resources and thus influencing the pool of opinion leaders selected to participate in this program. It is also possible that the culture, relationships, and experiences of individuals in these careers in Florida collectively influences the leadership process and desired leadership traits of the industries' opinion leaders, thus contributing to the pattern of personalities seen in this program. However, the researchers leading this study would still encourage the program director and the WLIANR selection committee to seek ways to bring diverse perspectives into the program through participant selection and programming design. Although the opinion leaders of the agriculture and natural resource industries in Florida share many characteristics and experiences, it does not negate the importance of exposing these leaders to new ideas and other perspectives as they prepare to address the complex problems of our future.

References

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

Arsenault, P. M. (2004). Validating generational differences. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal, 25*(2), 124–141. doi:10.1108/01437730410521813

Howe, N. and Strauss, W. (2000). *Millennials rising: The next great generation.* New York: Vintage Books.

Howe, N., & Strauss, W. (2007). The next 20 years. *Harvard business review*, *85*, 41-52.

KARL Program (n.d.). *IAPAL Directory*. Retrieved from http://karlprogram.com/resources/iapal-directory/.

Johnson, S. A., & Romanello, M. L. (2005). Generational diversity. *Nurse Educator, 30*(5), 212-216. doi:10.1097/00006223-200509000-00009

Kaufman, E., Rateau, R., Carter, H., & Strickland, L. (2012). What's context got to do with it? An exploration of leadership development programs of the agricultural community. *Journal of Leadership Education, 11(1),* 121-139.

Lamm, K. W. & Carter, H. S. (2014). Wedgworth Leadership Institute for Agriculture and Natural Resources Program Evaluation. Gainesville, FL: University of Florida.

Lamm, K. W., Lamm, A. J., & Carter, H. S. (2014). Opinion leadership development: Context and audience characteristics count. *Journal of Agricultural Education, 55*(2), 91-105. doi:10.5032/jae.2014.02091

Lancaster, L. C. and Stillman, D. (2002). *When generations collide. Who they are. Why they clash. How to solve the generational puzzle at work.* New York: Collins Business.

Myers, I. B., Mccaulley, M. H., Quenk, N. L., & Hammer, A. L. (2009). *MBTI manual: A guide to the development and use of the Myers-Briggs type indicator instrument.* (3rd ed.) Mountain View, CA: CPP, Inc.

Neumann, J. E. , & Hirschhorn, L., (1999). The challenge of integrating psychodynamic and organizational theory. *Human Relations*, 52(6).

Northouse, P. G. (2016). *Leadership: theory and practice* (7th ed.). Los Angeles, CA: Sage.

Tieger, P. D., & Barron, B. (2007). *Do what you are: Discover the perfect career for you through the secrets of personality type* (4th ed.). New York, NY: Little, Brown and Company.

United States Department of Agriculture. (n.d.) *Farming and farm income.* Retrieved from https://www.ers.usda.gov/data-products/ag-and-food-statistics-charting-the-essentials/farming-and-farm-income/

W.K. Kellogg Foundation. (2001, October). *The legacy of the ag leadership development program: Rich heritage cultivates future opportunities*. Retrieved from www.wkkf.org/~/media/ECECC15737E84FAFAFAB08CC1BCFEA6F.ashx

Wedgworth Leadership Institute for Agriculture and Natural Resources. (n.d.). *Program overview.* Retrieved from
http://wedgworthleadership.com/about-the-program/program-overview/

United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs. (2015, July 29). *World population projected to reach 9.7 billion by 2050.* Retrieved from
http://www.un.org/en/development/desa/news/population/2015-report.html

Longitudinal Effects of Session Racial Diversity within a Student Leadership Immersion Program

David M. Rosch & Jasmine Collins
University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign

Vernon Walls
LeaderShape, Inc.

Abstract

This study examined the impact of racial diversity on students within a leadership immersion program. A total of 667 participants in sessions coded as either "High," "Moderate," or "Low" in regard to the degree of racial diversity within the session served as the sample for our present study. Longitudinal results show that an increased degree of racial diversity within a session is associated with a measurable increase in durable leadership capacity gains made within these sessions, particularly in regards to leader self-efficacy and motivation to lead. Students of color and White students displayed few differences in scores when analyzed in the context of the degree of session diversity. Results suggest the training effects of a leadership initiative may be augmented by the recruitment of a racially diverse group of students.

Introduction

Postsecondary institutions have long been in a unique position to not only reflect societal values, but to shape them as well. While changing demographics within society have prompted increasing attention on the importance of diversity in higher education (Gutiérrez, 2011; Hurtado, 2007), the mission of postsecondary institutions to produce the nation's future leaders (Cress, Astin, Zimmerman-Oster, & Burkhardt, 2001; Dugan & Komives, 2007) has largely failed to meet this diversity imperative. There remains a substantial lack of women and racial minorities holding leadership positions in the nation's most influential public and private sectors (Alliance for Board Diversity, 2013; National Urban Fellows, 2012). Given the press to increase the diversity among the nation's leaders, a need exists for leadership educators to understand the effects that racial diversity within a program can have on student leadership development, especially in the degree that such diversity affects non-White participants. The present study examines the impact of structural racial diversity within a leadership program, specifically the LeaderShape Institute, on the longitudinal leadership development of university students who participate within them.

Benefits of Structural Racial Diversity and Interracial Interaction

In response to the landmark University of Michigan affirmative action cases, research intended to demonstrate beneficial outcomes of racially diverse post-secondary environments has exploded. One prominent line of inquiry concerns developmental outcomes for university students in association with structural diversity. Structural diversity refers to the numerical representation of various racial and ethnic groups (Hurtado, Milem, Clayton-Pederson, & Allen, 1998). Past research suggests that the structural diversity of an institution increases the likelihood

that students from differing backgrounds will interact with one another (Gurin, Dey, Hurtado, & Gurin, 2002), and serves as a significant predictor of such interaction more powerfully than other institutional characteristics such as geographic setting and Carnegie Classification (Pike & Kuh, 2006). Additional research has linked cross-racial interaction to greater openness to diversity (Chang et al., 2006); improved sense of belonging on campus (Laird, 2005); increased intellectual engagement and cognitive development (Bowman, 2013; Chang et al., 2006; Gurin et al., 2002); heightened cultural and civic engagement, (Antonio, 2001b; Gurin et al., 2002); and formation of interracial friendship groups (Antonio, 2001a). In many cases, these findings emerge even when controlling for race or self-reported predisposition to engage with diverse peers. These findings have led many scholars to advocate for supporting student interaction in racially diverse environments (Chang et al., 2006; Gurin et al., 2002; Pike & Kuh, 2006).

In addition to these outcomes, numerous studies have provided evidence that interracial interaction contributes to the development of leadership skills and behaviors for university students (Antonio, 2001b; Bowman, 2013; A. Kezar & D. Moriarty, 2000). In fact, participating in conversations across racial lines is one of the most potent predictors of student socially responsible leadership development (Dugan, Kodama, & Gebhardt, 2012; Dugan & Komives, 2010) and has been shown to noticeably affect leadership development among White men and women as well as African American women (Kezar & Moriarty, 2000). The effects of interracial interaction on leadership development are critically important to consider within a higher education context, particularly when defining leadership as a collaborative process aimed at shared common goals (Dugan and Komives, 2007; Rost, 1993). The overwhelming majority of university campuses that utilize leadership curricula explicitly include the need to collaborate productively with others, act in ethical ways, and serve as a role model for others (Owen, 2012). These learning outcomes often implicitly require students to create relationships with others based on authentic interaction. With the wealth of empirical support of the benefits of cross-racial and the inherently interactive nature of leadership programs, the relative dearth of research designed to examine the effects of structural diversity within leadership programs is surprising. Our study is designed to fill, in part, this noteworthy gap by examining the effects of session diversity within an immersion leadership program on longitudinal student leadership development.

Defining "Diverse" Leadership Sessions

Creating educational environments defined as "diverse" has served as a press within higher education arguably since the rise of public colleges and universities in the United States (Boyer, 1987). Given the purported benefits, recruiting a critical mass of diversity on campus has been a "compelling" interest for those charged with recruiting students, written as a majority opinion by Justice O'Connor in *Grutter et al. v. Bollinger et al.*, 2003. However, as Hurtado (2003) states, researchers are only beginning "to establish the theoretical and empirical links in determining the optimal conditions under which these benefits operate and how they may work differently for particular types of students" (p.188). Therefore, creating a definition for a "diverse" campus, or within a campus, a "diverse" leadership session, remains unsettled and problematic. We attempt to follow the spirit of O'Connor's premise in the Supreme Court's decision – that adequate representation from all respective races building to a critical mass is important to avoid tokenization. For the purposes of this study, we define "leadership session" as a bounded formal

educational initiative with the express purpose of developing the leadership capacity of students who participate within it.

Our Conceptual Model of Leadership Capacity and Student Development

Most contemporary conceptualizations of leadership describe effective leaders as those able to collaborate with followers to affect real change through a process of ethical, multidirectional influence focused on shared purposes (Rost, 1993; Yukl, 2010). To act in such ways, recent research has called for leadership education programs to focus on helping students develop broad-based capacity that encompasses leadership skill (the knowledge and abilities of leadership), motivation to lead (the desire and energy to act as a leader), and leader self-efficacy (the confidence that one's efforts will lead to success) (Keating, Rosch, & Burgoon, 2014). Without these capacities, students may not possess the facility to enact leadership behaviors, which Keating, et al (2014), define as the "Ready, Willing, and Able" leadership competency model.

Leadership Skill. Within the "Ready, Willing, and Able" model, leadership skill encompasses: (a) "Transformational" skill, where the effectiveness of leaders stems from the capacity to build authentic and transformational relationships, inspire peers to higher standards and goals, adhere to broad ethical standards that serve , and create sustainable and positive community change (Burns, 1978); (b) "Transactional" skill, defined as the ability to create a motivating system of work within a team to achieve goals, where leadership and the work of a team serve as transactions between leaders and followers (Bass, 1998); and (c) "Ethical" skill, which is the capacity to lead in ways that adhere to societal and organizational standards (Brown, Treviño, & Harrison, 2005). While aspects of transformational and ethical leadership standards are often touted as more valuable than transactional behaviors (Dinh, et al, 2014), all are often necessary in leading complex contemporary organizations.

Motivation to Lead. Chan and Drasgow (2001) delineate three constructs that encompass an individual's motivation to lead: (a) Students' inclination and desire to think of themselves as leaders of their peers ("Affective-Identity" motivation); (b) The strength of their sense of responsibility to lead their peers ("Social-Normative" motivation); and (c) The degree to which students avoid conducting a self-centered calculation of how leading will result in their own personal benefit ("Non-Calculative" motivation). Motivation to lead has been shown as a factor in leader success in professional organizations (Amit & Bar-Lev, 2013; Derue & Ashford, 2010) and more recently in collegiate settings (Rosch, Collier, & Thompson, 2015). Given the degree to which the particular leadership immersion program focused on social justice as an outcome, we also considered students' motivation to advocate for social issues important to them ("Social Issues Advocacy") as a measure of motivation to lead in this context.

Leader Self-efficacy. Lastly, leader self-efficacy refers to students' confidence that their engagement in leadership-oriented behaviors will lead to success (Hannah, Avolio, Luthans, & Harms, 2008; Murphy, 1992). Presumably, potential leaders are more likely to engage in the behaviors of leading if they believe their actions would make a positive and successful difference. Leader self-efficacy has been correlated with the success rate of leaders in a variety of professional settings (Avolio, Reichard, Hannah, Walumbwa, & Chan, 2009; Hannah, Avolio,

Luthans, & Harms, 2008; Machida & Schaubroeck, 2011) and has been shown more recently in studies in postsecondary institutions (Dugan, Garland, Jacoby, & Gasiorski, 2008).

A model of leadership that examines students' leadership confidence, motivation, and skill is important to our research given what is known about the differentiated ways students of color and White students conceptualize and practice leadership. Students of color and women report lower levels of confidence and tend to place less emphasis on formal positions of authority than their white male peers (Dugan, 2006; Kezar & Moriarty, 2000; Rosch, Stephens, & Collins, 2015) for whom holding an elected office position serves as the strongest extracurricular predictor of leadership skill (Kezar & Moriarty, 2000). In regard to motivation to lead, African American, Asian American, and Latino/a students are often motivated to engage in leadership opportunities to contribute to social change or due to a strong feeling of personal responsibility to their peers to do so (Arminio et al., 2000; Dugan, Komives, & Segar, 2008).

Research Questions

This study examined the degree to which session racial diversity within a leadership session predicts longitudinal leadership development in students. Within this effort, we included the following research questions:

1. To what extent does session racial diversity affect the degree of leadership gains students report within an immersion leadership program?
2. To what extent do differences emerge between students of color and White students in leadership gains in regards to sessions of varying degrees of diversity?

Methods

Population and Sample

All data were collected at programs, hereafter called "sessions," sponsored by LeaderShape, Inc., a not-for-profit private organization that partners with over 100 university campuses, mostly within the United States but with a small number in Canada, Mexico, and the Middle East, to host locally-based sessions. Each session lasted for six days, and was designed for the purpose of teaching broad-based leadership competencies that are applicable in a variety of circumstances relevant to educational and professional environments. Significant aspects of the program curriculum were based on teaching inclusive practices of leadership and concepts of social justice as part of the responsibility of leadership in modern society (www.leadershape.org). The curriculum of the program includes section of lecture regarding effective leadership behaviors, but also incorporates significant time for large- and small-grup discussion and activities that require interaction amongst participants. Over 4,000 university students participate in approximately 85 sessions each year. We initially chose the LeaderShape Institute both for its national status and international recognition among leadership educators, and because the goals of the program – to provide students the leadership tools necessary to create positive change in their organizations and communities – is shared by many co-curricular leadership programs within the United States (Owen, 2012).

An open call during the fall 2013 semester to institutions that host sessions yielded 31 universities interested in participating in this research study during the 2013-2014 and 2014-2015 academic years, which hosted a total of 41 campus-based sessions across the two years, out of the approximately 170 sessions that occurred across all institutions. These participating universities were diverse in terms of size, control (e.g. public or private), admissions selectivity, and faculty research output. In addition to these 41 campus-based sessions, data were gathered at nine national sessions open to participants from any university and hosted directly by LeaderShape, Inc. Table 1 lists the specific post-secondary institutions that volunteered to participate within this research effort.

Table 1. *List of participating institutions.*

San Francisco Bay Area Consortium	Ohio State University
Boise State University	Penn State University
Boston College	South Florida Consortium Institutions
Bowling Green State University	Tulane University
Central Michigan University	University of Alabama
Clemson University	University of Georgia
College of Charleston	University of Illinois
Colorado State University	University of Iowa
Denison University	University of Kansas
East Tennessee State University	University of Michigan
Eastern Michigan University	University of North Carolina Chapel Hill
Elmhurst College	University of North Carolina Wilmington
Florida State University	University of Tennessee Chattanooga
Indiana University	University of Wisconsin LaCrosse
Lehigh University	Nine National Sessions

A total of 2405 students were initially included within this study and completed pre-tests of their leadership capacity prior to participating within their sessions, which included a number of items asking students to identity various aspects of their social identities. From these, a total of 667 students (28% of the initial sample) additionally completed post-tests immediately after their sessions (often while still at the program site) and follow-up tests administered by inviting students to complete an electronic survey by email 3-4 months after the conclusion of their session. The students who completed all three phases of this data collection process comprise the analytic sample for our study. Of these students, 30% (n=202) were in their first year of study, 29% (n=196) identified as sophomores; 28% (n=184) as juniors; 7% (n=47) as seniors; 3% (n=23) as graduate students, and 2% (n=15) did not report a class year. With regard to gender, approximately 67% (n=445) of participants in sample identified as a woman, while 30% (n=201) identified as a man, 1% (n =5) identified as transgender; and 2% (n=16) did not report a gender

identification. With respect to racial identification, 54% (n=357) identified as White, 15% (n=99) as African-American, 7% (n=47) as Asian-American, 9% (n=62) as Latino/a, 8% (n=52) as multi-racial, and; 1% as Middle Eastern (n=3), while 6% of participants (n=47) did not report. To produce an appropriate degree of statistical power to analyze the degree to which students' self-identified race was predictive of leadership development within the context of varying degrees of diversity within sessions, we re-categorized race into a dichotomous White/Non-white variable.

Concerned about potential bias introduced through self-selection in survey participation, we conducted extensive analysis of the participation rates in the post-test and the follow-up test. For the post-test, we employed logistic regression to estimate participation as predicted by pre-test responses, using multivariate and univariate regression. These tested participant self-reported social identities and pre-test responses to the eight leadership scale measures we included within the study (see Table 1). No differences were identified between post-test participants and post-test non-participants on any of these measures. Of greater concern was the substantively lower response rate to the three-month follow-up survey invitation. We estimated the same logistic regressions to predict participation from the pre-test responses, and additionally included in the analysis the participants' changes between pre-test and post-test scores on the eight leadership scales – effectively estimating whether pre-test-to-post-test changes predicted follow-up test participation. Of these 32 coefficients estimated, only one variable predicted follow-up survey participation. Participants who reported higher non-calculative motivation to lead scores on the pre-test were slightly more likely to participate in the follow-up test (t=4.10, p<.001), suggesting that of all measured psychometric constructs, only participants who report leading without regard to their own personal gain would also be more likely to respond to an online survey invitation. With only this qualification, we proceeded with confidence that the participants in the follow-up test had no statistically significant differences from non-participants in the follow-up test.

We used a broad framework and definition of "diversity" that represented more than simply a dichotomous split of majority and minority students with regard to racial identity. We defined a "High Diversity" session as one where no single racial group represents a statistical majority (more than 50% of participants), while at least two other racial groups were represented by at least 10% of participants. We defined a "Moderate Diversity" session as comprised of at least two racial groups in which no less than 20% of program participants identified, even if one racial group could be categorized as a majority. We lastly defined a "Low Diversity" session as one where more than 50% of participants identified with one dominant racial group; while no other racial groups represented more than 15% of program participants. Within this categorization, we chose to identify "diversity" as not just the significant presence of one non-White racial group, but rather a critical mass of students from several varying racial groups. Even sessions consisting of predominantly African American students are not considered "high diversity" if other racial groups have low representation. Implementing this framework led to the creation of 24 "High" diversity sessions (n=1105), 9 "Moderate" sessions (n=410), and 17 "Low" sessions (n=890).

Instrumentation

Our study was designed to measure the degree that session racial diversity affects broad-based leadership capacity growth. We therefore assessed such growth in students' leadership skills,

confidence in leading, and motivation to engage in leadership behaviors. To assess students' capacity within these areas, we used five different scales that incorporated a total of eight subscales. See Table 2 for an overview.

Table 2. *Overview of leadership scales variables*

Capacity	Scale	Cronbach Alpha
Leadership Skill	Leadership Behaviors Scale – Transformational skills	.87
	Leadership Behaviors Scale – Transactional skills	.72
	Ethical Leadership Scale (ELS)	.88
Motivation to Lead	Motivation To Lead Scale – Affective Identity	.84
	Motivation To Lead Scale – Non-calculative	.85
	Motivation To Lead Scale – Social-normative	.92
	Social Issues Advocacy Scale (SIAS)	.92
Leader Self-Efficacy	Self-Efficacy for Leadership (SEL) scale	.86

Leadership Skill. We measured leadership skill through three sub-scales: The Leader Behavior Scale (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990), a popular and non-copyrighted 28-item instrument includes two sub-scales respectively focused on transformational (LBS_F) and transactional (LBS_A) leadership. A sample item for transformational behavior is, "I help other group members develop a team attitude and spirit among ourselves." A sample item for transactional leadership is, "I always give positive feedback when other group members perform well." We chose the LBS due to its use, for many years, as a broad measure of transformational leadership unassociated with the narrower Full-range Transformational Leadership Model and its respective Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (Bass & Avolio, 1997). The LBS has been in use for over 20 years as a psychometric tool (Yukl, 2010) in both business and education settings, with Cronbach reliabilities ranging from .71 to .89 (Yukl, 2010). Within our study, Cronbach alpha scores ranged from .72 to .87.

We also utilized the Ethical Leadership Scale, a 10-item measure designed to measure the degree to which participants incorporate ethical behavior into their leadership values and planned behaviors (Brown et al., 2005). The ELS is correlated with the Idealized Influence scale within the popular Multi-Factor Leadership Questionnaire (Bass & Avolio, 1997), measuring aspects of transformational leadership. While ethical behavior and transformational leadership represent theoretically related but distinct concepts (Bass, 1998), confirmatory factor analysis shows that the ELS measures a leadership capacity distinct from transformational leadership (Brown, et al., 2005).

Leadership Confidence. To assess students' confidence in leading, we utilized the Self-Efficacy for Leadership (SEL) scale, an 8-item measure of a person's confidence in engaging in leadership behaviors (Murphy, 1992). The SEL has been in use for 20 years in professional and educational environments and, like the LBS, has undergone extensive psychometric examination (Hoyt, 2005). Research has shown that internal reliability is good, i.e., above .76 (Murphy & Ensher, 1999), and the scale has been shown to possess convergent and discriminant validity when used with measures of self-esteem and leadership experiences (Hoyt, 2005). Within our study, internal reliability scores were strong at .86.

Leadership Motivation. Motivation to engage in leadership behaviors was measured using the Motivation to Lead (MTL) scale (Chan & Drasgow, 2001), a 27-item measure equally divided across measures of affective-identity (AI), non-calculative (NC), and social-normative (SN) motivations to lead (Chan & Drasgow, 2001). The MTL assesses the degree to which people feel "called" to lead as well as the pressure they feel and energy they possess to engage in leadership behaviors. The AI scale concerns the degree to which an individual is personally drawn to leadership roles. The NC scale concerns the degree to which a person avoids rationally calculating the individual costs and benefits of holding a leadership position. The SN scale is used to determine the degree to which a person leads due to a sense of duty or responsibility to others. The scale has been used primarily in professional and public organizations and has alpha reliabilities ranging from a low of .65 for the NC scale to a high of .91 for the AI scale. The MTL has recently been extended to the field of higher education as a tool to measure student leadership development (Rosch, 2014). Within our study, Cronbach alpha scores ranged from a low of .84 for the Social-Normative subscale to a high of .92 for the Affective-Identity subscale.

Social Issues Advocacy. Due to the LeaderShape curriculum focus, in part, on the application of social justice behaviors, we also included an adapted version of the Social Issues Advocacy Scale (SIAS; Nilsson, Marszalek, Linnemeyer, Bahner, & Misialek, 2011), designed to assess a person's motivation to publicly advocate for social issues considered both socially just and important to the person completing the measure. Aspects of political advocacy (i.e. motivation to vote, lobby, or campaign for people or political issues) encompassed in the original scale were not included in the current study. Language within each item was also adapted for an educational environment, where phrases such as "I am professionally responsible to…" were changed to "I am personally responsible to…" Sample items within the SIAS include, "I am personally responsible to confront friends and colleagues who display signs of discrimination," and "I use social media to advocate for social issues that are important to me." While the scale has been in use for less time than the others, and therefore possesses fewer psychometric markers of strength, the original research conducted to create and validate the scale indicates an acceptable degree of convergent validity with measures of multicultural empathy, as well as discriminant validity when measured with items on self-esteem and life satisfaction. Within our study, Cronbach alpha scores were strong at .92.

Data Analysis

To determine the degree to session racial diversity, and students' self-identified race in combination with session racial diversity, are associated with capacity gains, we utilized the longitudinal nature (i.e. at least three measurement points within each participant) of our dataset to conduct mixed-design analyses of variance using each scale measurement of leadership capacity, respectively, as a dependent variable. This design, also called split-plot analysis of variance (or SPANOVA) is named as such due to the nested blocking structure of a dataset for which it is applied – where split plots of data are nested in whole plots, themselves nested within blocks. In the case of this research study, the blocks represent phases of data collection (e.g. a pre-test, post-test, and months-later follow-up); the whole plots represent the degree of racial diversity within a leadership session; and the split-plots are comprised of students from various races. Such analysis is a more powerful way to measure outcomes where individual participants

have been subjected to repeated measures; a traditional ANOVA or t-test are limited to single cross-sections of data, such as comparing post-test scores in one group to post-test scores in another. A SPANOVA, however, can include all phases of data collection within a single analysis, and allow researchers to investigate the trajectory of development over time (Huck & McLean, 1975).

We conducted a series of eight SPANOVA analyses, examining the effects of session diversity and students' self-identified race on each of the eight leadership capacity scales included within the study. We also included gender as a co-variate to add additional control to our investigation, given the degree to which gender has been predictive of leadership capacity in the past (e.g. Kezar & Moriarty, 2000). To directly investigate the degree to which session racial diversity contributed to the longitudinal trajectory of leadership capacity gains in students, we examined the F-statistic result for our diversity level statistic (i.e. high, medium, or low) within the multivariate SPANOVA analysis, which controlled for students' gender and race. However, to explore the degree to which students' self-identified race served as a predictor of leadership capacity change across different levels of session racial diversity, the F-statistic for students' race in the multivariate SPANOVA analysis did not serve as an appropriate indicator; this number instead represents only the independent contribution of students' race to capacity gains, controlling for session racial diversity and students' gender. For this investigation, we examined the follow-up between-subjects effects from each SPANOVA analysis, attending to the F statistic generated by the interaction of students' race and the degree of racial diversity within the session. This statistic indicates the degree to which White and non-White students exhibit different trajectories of growth across varying levels of session racial diversity.

Results

The overall means and dispersion statistics relevant to our examination of student leadership capacity for the study sample are displayed in Table 2. When analyzing overall scores without regard to race or session racial diversity, students generally reported higher scores during the post-test period of data collection immediately following their sessions compared to during their pre-test and data collected during the follow-up period occurring three to four months later. Generally, scores remained elevated several months later compared to pre-test scores.

Table 3. *Overall means and dispersion of leadership capacity variables*

Scale	Pre-test μ (σ)	Post-test μ (σ)	Follow-up-test μ (σ)
Transformational Skill	7.56 (.89)	8.34 (.89)	7.91 (1.00)
Transactional Skill	8.08 (1.20)	8.55 (1.26)	8.21 (1.33)
Ethical Leadership Skill	7.97 (.93)	8.54 (.94)	8.34 (1.06)
Motivation to Lead – Affective Identity	6.41 (1.56)	6.53 (1.64)	6.35 (1.57)
Motivation to Lead – Non-calculative	7.54 (1.27)	8.31 (1.35)	7.54 (1.50)
Motivation to Lead – Social Normative	6.83 (1.13)	7.07 (1.29)	6.48 (1.16)
Social Issues Advocacy	7.16 (1.28)	8.07 (1.22)	7.57 (1.36)
Leader self-efficacy	7.35 (1.21)	8.28 (1.08)	7.84 (1.36)

We then conducted a series of eight SPANOVA analyses, one for each leadership scale. The condensed results of our respective analyses can be found in Table 4, which shows the degree to

which session racial diversity contributes to students' gains in leadership capacity (i.e. the first line in the table within each measure, labeled "Session Diversity"), as well as the degree to which differences emerge between students of color and White students in leadership gains across leadership programs of varying degrees of diversity (i.e. the second line in the table within each measure, labeled "race").

Table 4. *Results of SPANOVA analyses*

Scale	Variable	F	df	p
Transformational Skill	Session Diversity	1.89	4,1196	.11
	Race	0.22	4	.93
Transactional Skill	Session Diversity	2.20	4,1196	.07
	Race	0.60	4	.67
Ethical Leadership Skill	Session Diversity	1.54	4,1156	.19
	Race	.031	4	.87
Motivation to Lead – Affective Identity	Session Diversity	3.40	4,1172	.009
	Race	1.59	4	.17
Motivation to Lead – Non-calculative	Session Diversity	2.30	4,1170	.05
	Race	0.97	4	.42
Motivation to Lead – Social Normative	Session Diversity	2.48	4,1162	.04
	Race	3.45	4	.01
Social Issues Advocacy	Session Diversity	1.11	4,1160	.35
	Race	0.51	4	.73
Leader Self-efficacy	Session Diversity	7.56	4,1170	<.0001
	Race	1.29	4	.27

Our results suggest that session diversity serves as a significant predictor of longitudinal leadership capacity gain for students regarding their motivation to lead stemming from all three areas (affective-identity, non-calculative, and social normative), as well as in students' leader self-efficacy development. For each significant finding, the taper in scores from post-test to follow-up measurement 3-4 months later was smaller for High diversity sessions than for Low diversity sessions.

Students' race significantly interacted with session racial diversity in one area – social-normative motivation to lead. Figures 1 and 2 graphically display the trajectory of these scores for White and Non-white students, respectively. Within this area of leadership capacity development, White students seemed to display a steeper decline in their sense of responsibility for providing leadership themselves within less racially diverse sessions. Students of color seemed less effected by the racial diversity within the room, showing a trajectory of development within and after the session relatively similar in both low-diversity and high-diversity sessions.
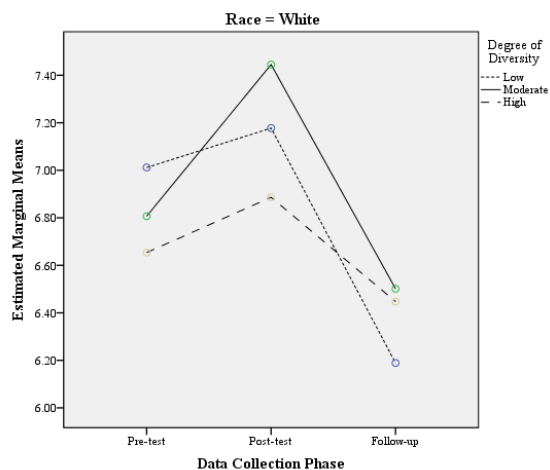
Figure 1. *Social-normative Motivation to Lead Scores for WHITE students*
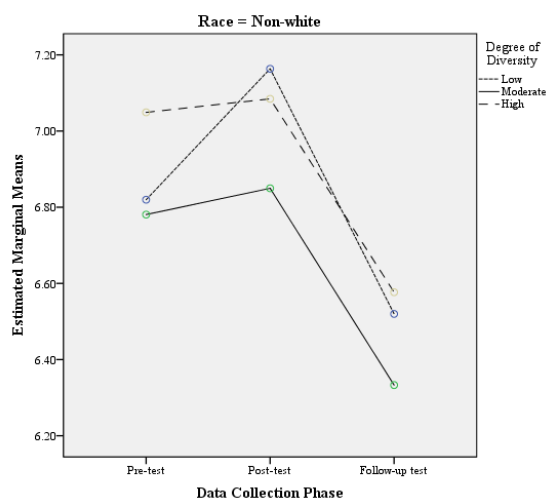
Figure 2. *Social-normative Motivation to Lead Score for NON-WHITE students*

Discussion

Our research focused on the degree to which session racial diversity within an immersion leadership program predicts longitudinal leadership development in students, particularly with respect to comparing these effects between students of color and their White peers. Our findings suggest that while the "skill" areas of leadership development (e.g. transformational, transactional, and ethical leadership skill) may not be deeply affected by who is present in the room during the leadership session, the aspects of leadership development that are more internal (i.e. motivation and confidence) may be so influenced. Indeed, students' long-term leader self-efficacy development seemed particularly sensitive to the degree of racial diversity within their sessions. Our results also suggest that development related to students' motivation to lead seem affected by the degree to which sessions are racially diverse. Within sessions with a high degree of racial diversity, students seemed to retain a greater degree of motivation to lead stemming from both their internal identity as a leader as well as a sense of responsibility to their groups – compared to sessions that possessed a smaller degree of racial diversity within its participants.

Somewhat curiously, however, given these findings, the longitudinal changes in students' leadership capacities did not differ much based on race. Only the trajectories of students' development of a capacity for social-normative motivation to lead seemed to vary by race when analyzed across leadership sessions with varying degree of session racial diversity. In this area, the substantive difference was that White students expressed more volatility in their scores over time compared to students of color.

Implications

These findings suggest several noteworthy implications for leadership educators. Past research has indicated the degree to which the structural diversity of a campus can benefit the students who attend (Antonio, 2001a; Antonio, 2001b; Bowman, 2013; Chang et al., 2006; Gurin et al., 2002; & Laird, 2005). The findings of this research study imply that students might similarly benefit from increased racial diversity within the leadership sessions in which they participate. Notably, the benefits that students seemed to accrue from attending highly diverse sessions did not emerge until months after the session ended, long after students presumably put their new learning into practice within their own individual environments. While in general, scores crested for most students in the immediate aftermath of program participation and tapered significantly over time, scores seemed to taper the least in highly diverse sessions. In addition, the benefits were seen mostly in the internal states of being required for effective leadership – one's confidence and motivation to engage in leadership behaviors. This suggests that leadership sessions that are highly diverse may not materially affect the degree to which students acquire the tools to practice leadership behaviors, but they do bolster the degree to which students consider themselves leaders, feel called to lead, and possess a sense of self-confidence in engaging with peers as a leader.

These findings may indicate the degree to which the development of leadership capacity, especially the more internal parts of such capacity, is a social endeavor for university students. A curriculum that includes concepts of leadership that is inclusive, social justice-oriented, and based on collaborative relationships may not be enough in helping to maximize leadership development. The ability to create relationships with peers who are different from oneself, in an environment with a critical mass of peers similar to oneself, may be a key to unlocking long-term and sustainable growth in students. In an immersion program where students have the potential to create lasting relationships, a diverse population of participants might provide a better system of support for when applying the principles learned in the session becomes difficult over the ensuing months.

We defined "low-diversity" as a session where any individual race other than White made up less than 15% of the overall population, and where students of color as a whole made up less than 50% of the population. These numbers are similar to the racial demographics of many university campuses within the United States. Given these similarities, our findings may help to inform our understanding of the processes of leadership learning that occur for students of color there. For example, past findings show that students of color may eschew the title of "leader" (Arminio, 2000; Shertzer & Schuh, 2004); this study, which suggests that students of color in less diverse sessions leave possessing less motivation to lead than their White peers, provides

corroborating evidence that suggests that simply attending training sessions is not enough to bridge the gap.

Limitations and Suggestions for Future Research

The population for inclusion within this research study represented students who participated in a six-day immersion leadership program. While thousands of students participate in leadership education initiatives like this annually, our findings and their implications are limited by the nature of the program we examined. Further research should investigate the degree to which similar findings emerge in initiatives with a different structure, such as shorter-term or longer-term programs or academic courses. Presumably, the degree and shape of student inter-relationships built within these initiatives might look different; results might differ as well.

Additionally, our current study did not take into consideration the degree of structural racial diversity found on the campuses in which these leadership immersion programs took place. Future research should examine the degree to which campus diversity might serve as a moderating variable on results. Past research has shown the degree to which campus diversity can predict intellectual, civic, and social engagement (Antonio, 2001a; Bowman, 2013; Chang et al., 2006; Gurin et al., 2002). Presumably, highly racially diverse campuses might moderate the environment within a low-diversity session, and vice versa. Future research should determine the degree of moderation that exists between these two important variables.

Lastly, due the small size of student of color sub-samples in "low" diversity sessions, we were forced to collapse the various groups of students of color into a single group to compare to White students. While statistically appropriate, the result was to ignore the differences that exist across racial identification in students. Future research should more effectively investigate the extent to which specific racial identity within the student of color population is associated with differences in leadership capacity development in the context of structure racial diversity in leadership sessions.

References

Alliance for Board Diversity (2013). *Missing pieces: Women and minorities on Fortune 500 boards*. New York & Washington: Alliance for Board Diversity.

Amit, K., & Bar-Lev, S. (2013). Motivation to Lead in Multicultural Organizations: The Role of Work Scripts and Political Perceptions. Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies, 20(2), 169–184. https://doi.org/10.1177/1548051812467206

Antonio, A. L. (2001a). Diversity and the influence of friendship groups in college. *The Review of Higher Education, 25*(1), 63-89. doi: 10.1353/rhe.2001.0013

Antonio, A. L. (2001b). The role of interracial interaction in the development of leadership skills and cultural knowledge and understanding. *Research in Higher Education, 42*(5), 593-617.

Arminio, J. L., Carter, S., Jones, S. E., Kruger, K., Lucas, N., Washington, J., & al, e. (2000). Leadership experiences of students of color. *NASPA Journal, 37*(3), 496-510.

Avolio, B. J., Reichard, R. J., Hannah, S. T., Walumbwa, F. O., & Chan, A. (2009). A meta-analytic review of leadership impact research: Experimental and quasi-experimental studies. The Leadership Quarterly, 20(5), 764–784. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2009.06.006

Bass, B., & Avolio, B. (1997). Revised manual for the Multi-Factor Leadership Questionnaire. *Mind Garden, Palo Alto, CA.*

Bass, B. M. (1998). *Transformational leadership*. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Bass, B. M., & Steidlmeier, P. (1999). Ethics, character, and authentic transformational leadership behavior. *The Leadership Quarterly, 10*(2), 181-217.

Bowman, N. A. (2013). How much diversity is enough? The curvilinear relationship between college diversity interactions and first-year student outcomes. *Research in Higher Education, 54*, 874-894. doi: 10.1007/s11162-013-9300-0

Boyer, E. L. (1987). *College: The undergraduate experience in america*. New York: Harper and Row.

Brown, M. E., Treviño, L. K., & Harrison, D. A. (2005). Ethical leadership: A social learning perspective for construct development and testing. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 97*(2), 117-134.

Burns, J. M. (1978). *Leadership*. New York: Harper and Row.

Chan, K.-Y., & Drasgow, F. (2001). Toward a theory of individual differences and leadership: Understanding the motivation to lead. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 86*(3), 481-498.

Chang, M. J., Denson, N., Saenz, V., & Misa, K. (2006). The educational benefits of sustaining cross-racial interaction among undergraduates. *The Journal of Higher Education, 77*(3), 430-455.

Cress, C. M., Astin, H., Zimmerman-Oster, K., & Burkhardt, J. C. (2001). Developmental outcomes of college students' involvement in leadership activities. *Journal of College Student Development, 42*(1), 15-27.

Derue, D., & Ashford, S. (2010). Who will lead and who will follow? A social process of leadership identity construction in organizations. Academy of Management Review, 35(4), 627–647. https://doi.org/10.5465/AMR.2010.53503267

Dinh, J. E., Lord, R. G., Gardner, W. L., Meuser, J. D., Liden, R. C., & Hu, J. (2014). Leadership theory and research in the new millennium: Current theoretical trends and changing perspectives.

The Leadership Quarterly, *25*(1), 36–62.
https://doi.org/http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2013.11.005

Dugan, J. P. (2006). Explorations using the social change model: Leadership development among college men and women. *Journal of College Student Development, 47*(2), 217-225. doi: 10.1353/csd.2006.0015

Dugan, J. P., & Komives, S. R. (2007). *Developing leadership capacity in college students: Findings from a national study.* A report from the Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership. College Park, MD: National Clearinghouse for Leadership Programs.

Dugan, J. P., Garland, J. L., Jacoby, B., & Gasiorski, A. (2008). Understanding commuter student self-efficacy for leadership: A within-group analysis. NASPA Journal, 45(2), 282–310.

Dugan, J. P., & Komives, S. R. (2010). Influences on college students' capacities for socially responsible leadership. *Journal of College Student Development, 51*(5).

Dugan, J. P., Komives, S. R., & Segar, T. C. (2008). College student capacity for socially responsible leadership: Understanding norms and influences of race, gender, and sexual orientation. *NASPA Journal, 45*(4), 475-500.

Grutter et al. v. Bollinger et al., 539 U.S. (2003).

Gurin, P., Dey, E. L., Hurtado, S., & Gurin, G. (2002). Diversity and higher education: Theory and impact on educational outcomes. *Harvard Educational Review, 72*(2), 330-366.

Gutiérrez, R. (2011). The drama of diversity and democracy (Second ed.). Washington, DC.

Hannah, S. T., Avolio, B. J., Luthans, F., & Harms, P. D. (2008). Leadership efficacy: Review and future directions. *The Leadership Quarterly, 19*(6), 669-692.

Hoyt, C. L. (2005). The role of leadership efficacy and stereotype activation in women's identification with leadership. *Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies, 11*(4), 2-14.

Huck, S.W. & McLean, R.A. (1975). Using a repeated measures ANOVA to analyze the data from a pretest-posttest design: A potentially confusing task. Psychological Bulletin, Vol 82(4), Jul 1975, 511-518. http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/h0076767.

Hurtado, S. (2007). Linking diversity with the educational and civic missions of higher education. *The Review of Higher Education, 30*(2), 185-196. doi: 10.1353/rhe.2006.0070

Hurtado, S., Milem, J. F., Clayton-Pederson, A. R., & Allen, W. R. (1998). Enhancing campus climates for racial/ethnic diversity: Educational policy and practice. *The Review of Higher Education, 21*(3), 279-302.

Keating, K., Rosch, D. M., & Burgoon, L. (2014). Developmental readiness for leadership: The differential effects of leadership courses on creating "ready, willing, and able" leaders. *Journal of Leadership Education, 13*(3), 1-16. doi: 1012806/V13/I3/R1

Kezar, A., & Moriarty, D. (2000). Expanding our understanding of student leadership development: A study exploring gender and ethnic identity. *Journal of College Student Development, 41*(1).

Kezar, A. J., & Moriarty, D. (2000). Expanding our understanding of student leadership development: A study exploring gender and ethnic identity. *Journal of College Student Development, 41*(1), 55-69.

Laird, T. F. N. (2005). College students' experiences with diversity and their effects on academic self-confidence, social agency, and disposition toward critical thinking. *Research in Higher Education, 46*(4), 365-387. doi: 10.1007/s11162-005-2966-1

Machida, M., & Schaubroeck, J. (2011). The Role of Self-Efficacy Beliefs in Leader Development. Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies, 18(4), 459–468. https://doi.org/10.1177/1548051811404419

Murphy, S. E. (1992). *The contribution of leadership experience and self-efficacy to group performance under evaluation apprehension.* (Ph.D. 9230410), University of Washington, United States -- Washington.

Murphy, S. E., & Ensher, E. A. (1999). The effects of leader and subordinate characteristics in the development of leader–member exchange quality. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 29*(7), 1371-1394. doi: 10.1111/j.1559-1816.1999.tb00144.x

National Urban Fellows, & The MWM Consulting Group, LLC (2012). Diversity counts: Racial and ethnic diversity among public service leadership. Retrieved from http://www.nuf.org/sites/default/files/Documents/NUF_diversitycounts_V2FINAL.pdf

Nilsson, J. E., Marszalek, J. M., Linnemeyer, R. M., Bahner, A. D., & Misialek, L. H. (2011). Development and assessment of the Social Issues Advocacy Scale. *Educational and Psychological Measurement, 71*(1), 258-275. doi: 10.1177/0013164410391581

Owen, J. (2012). Examining the design and delivery of collegiate student leadership development programs: Findings from the Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership (MSL-IS), a national report. Washington, DC: Council for the Advancement of Standards in Higher Education.

Pike, G. R., & Kuh, G. D. (2006). Relationships among structural diversity, informal peer interactions and perceptions of the campus environment. *The Review of Higher Education, 29*(4), 425-450. doi: 10.1353/rhe.2006.0037

Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Moorman, R. H., & Fetter, R. (1990). Transformational leader behaviors and their effects on followers' trust in leader, satisfaction, and organizational citizenship behaviors. *The Leadership Quarterly, 1*(2), 107-142. doi: 10.1016/1048-9843(90)90009-7

Rohs, F. R. (2002). Improving the evaluation of leadership programs: Control response-shift bias. *Journal of Leadership Education, 1*(2), 50-61.

Rosch, D. M. (2014). Predicting student leadership in agricultural professional preparation organizations. *NACTA Journal, 58*(1), 7-10.

Rosch, D. M., Collier, D., & Thompson, S. E. (2015). An exploration of students' motivation to lead: An analysis by race, gender, and student leadership behaviors. Journal of College Student Development, 56(3), 286–291.

Rosch, D. M., Stephens, C. M., & Collins, J. D. (2015). *The LeaderShape Institute: Developmental gains in student leadership capacity*. A report from LeaderShape, Inc. Champaign, IL: LeaderShape, Inc.

Rost, J. C. (1993). *Leadership for the 21st Century*. Westport, CT.: Praeger Publishers.

Shertzer, J. E., & Schuh, J. H. (2004). College student perceptions of leadership: Empowering and constraining beliefs. *NASPA Journal*, *42*(1), 111–131.

Yukl, G. (2010). *Leadership in organizations* (7th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.

A Narrative Inquiry of the Perceptions Leading to the Under-Representation of Women's Political Leadership. A Study Measuring the Intensity of Perception

Vincent Drew Jemison
University of Phoenix

Abstract

The theory of measuring the Intensity of Perception (IPT) was created using a deconstruction theoretical framework to show that there are five subconscious displaced thought processes that contribute to leadership decisions that follow a predictable path. For women to triumph over oppressive factors influenced by perception, requires grit-inspired decision-making and action to rise above perception through structure decisions (Verloo, 2013; Duckworth, Peterson, Matthews, and Kelly, 2007). The Narrative Inquire on the Perceptions Leading to the Under-Representation of Women's Political Leadership provided an important recommendation regarding studying the intensity of perception. The interactive poster session will provide audience with the opportunity to explore the construct of measuring the intensity of perception by discussing the findings of the study, gaining input from session participants, and identifying next steps in the process of developing an instrument to measure the intensity of perception. The information gathered will be important to leadership and support improvements in the structure of leadership decision-making, while holding leadership accountable for perception based decisions.

Introduction

Bombuwela and De Alwis (2013), noted that the perception charged "Glass Ceiling" phenomenon is a perceived shift that has created barriers and prevented women from learning what it takes to achieve leadership positions within political and corporate organizations. Bombuwela and De Alwis's theory suggested that despite the present-day socially driven definition of leadership, that significantly excludes women, many women have shattered the glass ceilings phenomenon, and emerged outside the scope of conventional leadership roles. The benefits of exercising women leadership in any progressive organization, institution, or nation are to produce structure in the future challenges and very often, critical decision-making facing employees and society. In present-day, women leaders are rightly concerned that in time and space, a shift in perception is being used in blaming and assigning blame to women as a whole for the failure to obtain leadership positions. When an individual is mindful of perceived decisions, that individual can make an informed structured decision during an experience. There exists a significant challenge within leadership for an instrument that can be utilized to bring structure to organizational leadership decisions with a deliberate design to evaluate and measure the intensity of perception (Braund 2008).

Purpose and Significance

The purpose of the dissertation was to measure the perception of how women process and take-action against social and gender discriminations. The significance of the dissertation research was to create more deep detail on way to evaluate leadership decisions that follow a predictable

path on a larger scale. The way to conduct the research, we used the intersectional threshold map, which explains the how individuals process and take action for example against social and gender discrimination. There was also a focus on a learning system map to get cognitive-based measurements before and after evaluation. From our system, we get two measurements, structural decision-making and perception inspired decision-making, where at the intersectional threshold the process in which an individual takes action can be evaluated when a leadership decision is made. It is significant that the proposed instrument designed to measure the intensity of perception be developed and tested, to determine its effectiveness and reliability in the improving the accountability of organizational leadership decisions that follow a predictable path.

Literature Review

Influences of Perception

The findings of Federici's work provided clarity on how the influences of pervasive perceptions of social and gender discrimination affect all women. For instance, the low parity of women political leaders, (Representation2020, 2015; Dolan, 2008) throughout the southwestern part of the United States. Guglielmo, Monroe and Malle, (2009), argued, in present-day, women leaders are rightly concerned that a shift in perception is being used in blaming and assigning blame to women as a whole for their own failures—because society often relates meritocracy to women's leadership and self-efficacy (Major, O'Brien, Kaiser, McCoy, 2007). The findings of this research revealed that establishing an instrument for "Measuring the Intensity of Perception" is necessary to identify the psychometric results of an individual's decision-making process.

The perception of democratic women being unsuccessful leaders, and able to win elections became the attitude of many Republicans. A multistep method began by way of a literary review of previous definitions and explanations conclude that a collective definition of perception supported the old adage that "Perception is Reality." With the above in mind, because perception is based on a fundamental adage, that it is reality, whether it is true or not, the findings concluded that perception is indeed "Not reality." The results of the research determined that "Perception is a necessary existence of displaced energy, influenced by time, action and belief." Therefore, the findings of the research revealed that it was a need for modifying the definition of perception to challenge the interpretation of organizational policies and Federal laws that were created to support women's rights and other marginalized individuals.

Friston (2010) noted that there is significant value in modifying the definition of perception in order to distinguish structural and perception decision-making perspectives for learning, processing, and controlling human behavior. Friston's theory suggested that since perception and action influence displaced thought processes, they can work collectively to shape selected carnal responses from decisions and behaviors (for instance by law enforcement personnel and policy makers) that go against for example the interpretation of organizational policy or standard law enforcement procedures.

The findings support the importance of how measuring the intensity of perception revealed the subconscious influences follow organizational leadership decisions in certain situations. An

example is a routine traffic stop. The question then becomes, how are these decisions, recognized as being cognitive decisions? Moreover, how do displaced energy models influence the decision process? To address these questions, the researcher developed the Intensity of Perception Theory (IPT), to explain the embodied cognitive decisions that follow a predictable path.

The results of Little et al's work revealed that an increase in each patient's psychometric decision-making ability to structurally process and take action when it came to their personal development and recovery was achieved. Little et al. research results were used to establish the foundation for confirming how the intensity of perception affects how women leaders process and take action when facing challenging life changing experiences.

Measuring the Intensity of Perception

According to Pyke (2010) in present-day, contributors such as racism, sexism, transphobia, and police brutality is rampant among women and other marginalized groups. In this context, the nature of the essay is to show the value of measuring the intensity of perception and the contributors to those perceptions. I believe this is really important for improving organizational policy, social change, reforming laws and economic outcomes for women and other marginalized groups. What I believe is most interesting about measuring the "Intensity of Perception" is it actually identifies a cognitive displaced thought process based on a subconscious psychometric response.

What we can achieve with the results of this essay is first to create the deliberate cognitive-based dialogue social justice program for policy development that creates the ability to evaluate an individual's leadership decision that followed a predictable path. The goal is to provide a high-level education program that consciously explains how leaders in corporate, political and educational institutions use perception to allocate resources (i.e., human and financial) to justify their beliefs and action taken. Ultimately, the implication of my research is to provide high-level training on how cognitive contributors can be evaluated by measuring the intensity of a perception led decision. I believe that evaluating a leadership decision is very important when trying to achieve accountability and fairness, especially in law enforcement, which seems to be inundated with a high level of perception-inspired leadership decisions.

Methods

Directed by narrative inquiry, the research involved eight purposively selected southwest women political leaders along with a substantive extant literature review to explore how the intensity of perception influences women's leadership. What we see from the "Intersectional threshold" map, is that woman take action that modifies and leverages their cognitive strengths to build a stronger personal brand, and position themselves for greater success. What is interesting with the measuring the Intensity of Perception is it actually identifies a cognitive displace thought process based on a subconscious psychometric response, which enables leaders to evaluate an individual's leadership decision that followed a predictable path. What we can achieve with the results a measuring the intensity of a perception inspired decision, will explain how social and public institutions use perception to allocate resources (i.e., human and financial) to justify their

beliefs and action taken. What's not surprising is when you look at the positive impact of structured decision-making; a perception decision causes more problems and anxiety required from an experience. Properly evaluating a leadership decision is very important to achieve acceptable accountability and fairness in organizational policy, law enforcement, and the justice system, which seems to be inundated with a high level of perception inspired leadership decisions that follow a predictable path.

Framework

Using a deconstruction theoretical framework, the research looked at when "Measuring the Intensity of Perception"(IPT) at the intersectional threshold of an experience, a woman processes her perceptions and takes action, then rises above the oppression factors and is cognitively able manage perception through structure decisions (Folta, Seguin, Ackerman, and Nelson, 2012; Braun, Peus, Weisweiler, and Frey, 2012).

<div align="center">

Results

</div>

Based on the results of the study, there is a significant need to evaluate and measure how individuals process and take action when making a leadership decision above the intersectional threshold; confirming the reason why measuring the "Intensity of Perception" is so vital (Hannum, Martineau, and Reinelt, 2007; Luoma and Voltero, 2002). A visual picture (Figure 1. below) showing an intersection threshold decision-making map for measuring the intensity of perception (Johnson and Busemeyer, 2010; Hastie, 2001; Hammond, Stewart, Brehmer, and Steinmann, 1975) provided clarity on the inner working for measuring the intensity of perception.

The map reveals when informed grit inspired decisions are made above the intersection threshold, the individual will process and take action, and take advantage of the resources available to them. In contrast, a decision made below the intersection threshold is where the intensity of perception is eminent. In harmony with IPT, critical importance is stressed in the value structured participant centered communication can achieve when speaking with and sincerely listening to individuals whose decisions were inspired by perception. For women to triumph over oppressive factors influenced by shifts in perceptions, requires grit-inspired decision-making that demands action, and the ability to forge a new direction based on moral knowledge (Millar, 2015; Yacobi, 2013; Jackson, 2011; Crane, 2009, Lyle and Johnson, 2006). igure 1 below displays the elements that interact and the linkages that exist in the leadership decision-making process.
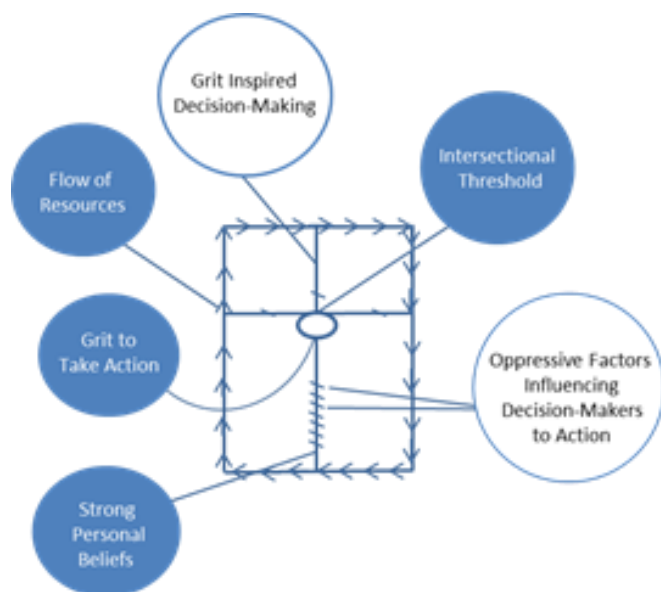
Figure 1. Intersectional Threshold Map for Measuring the Intensity of Perception: Adapted from the Intensity of Perception Theory (Verloo, 2013, Duckwork, et al. 2007).

Limitations

Not establishing committed cooperation and scheduling times for participant interviews would have limited the research. Another limitation that did not deter the study was whether each participant would provide detail rich narratives during the one-on-one interview. Scheduling one-on-one interviews with the participants was considered a major limitation of the study. The participants received the interview questions prior to the scheduled interviews, affording the opportunity to go-over the interview questions prior to the commencement the official interview meeting. Another issue considered a limitation became obvious prior the interview sessions when the researcher attempted to establish acceptance from each participant. A delimited participation from TDW members and its affiliate Texas Democratic Party established the limitation of the research participants.

Discussion

To guide the discussion, the following questions will be asked for input: If the conclusion and current practice of leadership decision-making is based on the intersectional divide of perception and structure, how are organizations addressing the divide? Is there a way to measure the subconscious perception based on interest to hide the cause of a conscious leadership decision? How are these decisions, recognized as being cognitive decisions? And, how can a displaced thought process influence a leadership decision? The results of the research will provide information to help inform organizational, institutional, and political leaders of the critical nature and importance in evaluating an individual's leadership decisions that may have been influenced by perception that follow a predictable path. A next step revealed from the results was to examine which cognitive displaced thought process was triggered during an experience to come to a census on what were some of the key indicators that reveal the implications for measuring the intensity of and individuals perception based on the decision that follow a predictable path.

Another goal will be to develop a reliable and valid software instrument that evaluates an individual leadership decision that follow a predictable path. Finally, the plan is that the research will lead to improvements in women's interest in political and corporate leadership advancement opportunities, deliberate dialogue in social justice education, training programs, and organizational policy, and more importantly, the reforming of laws within our democratic system of government that support all women.

Findings of Research

The women in the study boldly shared that despite the status ideologies leading to the under-representation of women's leadership, threshold intersectional decision-making produced learning that was considered part of their conscious structured decision-making ability. Believing structure over perception helped the women in the study to commit to applying structure in their lives, while constantly practicing self-awareness to know what really is important in their leadership governance.

Because answers are something we don't even know yet, they are what contribute to the current definition of perception. Are there some communication issues or policy issues that attribute to societies perception of women leadership worth? So I talked about these things with this group of women. I will say, and most people believe in the old adage that "Perception" is reality. However, this research is supported by constructive literature revealing that "Perception" is indeed not reality, but rather is only useful for recognizing a specific putative experiencable event, which cannot be used to make a leadership decision. To put the research in perspective, the definition of perception was modified as "A necessary existence of displaced energy, influenced by time, action, and belief." So that's what we are looking at when it comes to measuring the intensity of perception."

When I met with the women political leaders involved in my research, I was introduced to women who were confident, strong willed and had a high level of respect for their family values. However, I chose to use Hillary and Taylor's (pseudonym name) lived experiences to be a part of my essay. In relation to Hillary and Taylor's experience to this essay, their experiences helped me to understand how women process and take action against social injustice and gender discrimination.

In her own words, Hillary expressed that her mother was in an automobile accident when she was in grade school. She expressed that her mother was in the hospital for a while and it left her with borderline personality disorder. Hillary went on to share, "When I was older and I would come home, I never knew what I was going to get once in the house from school; she (my mother) could be very violent or she could be like, "I made twelve dozen cookies." In this experience, over time, I got really good at reading her behavior and personality and it translated into me being really good at reading people. So when I go into a situation, I think I can read it very fast and be whatever they need me to be; so if I need me to be a listener, I can be that, if I need me to be a teacher or pusher, I can do that. I then stated, "Your actions demonstrated a form of structured decision-making."

Hillary replied, "I raised my youngest brother and my sister and I was responsibility for everything." I think that was a part of my life and I just step up and take responsibility for it. My mom was sick, it wasn't her fault, she was hit by a car, it was not her fault she was like that and I don't dwell on the bad parts. The glass half-empty, half full theory, the glass is always full because it is half-full of water and its half full of air. You are going to have bad times and you are going to have good times in your life. The bad times are when you are being shot at and the good times are when you mentally come back from a bad experience.

Taylor said, "Ann Richards is my hero and there is not a woman on the planet who had more "grit" than Ann Richards." Taylor continued, how I recognize grit, I think it has to do with eye contact, body language, sincerity and a confident voice when someone speaks. And it doesn't have to be someone with a big booming voice. Like I said, I did not recognize this with my mother until I was a grown woman. But my mother could put the fear of God in us with a voice that was like an Angel. I believe it's was a combination of passion, it was authenticity and the sincerity in my mother, and we knew what she meant; when my mother spoke, whatever she was saying, we had better listened. And whether that's a politician or a doctor or whoever, I think you can tell when it comes from the heart. I think you can see or hear whether it is sincerity and when it's BS, when someone is speaking sincerely or not. I then replied, "We want our daughters to exhibit that type of sincerity."

Frederiksen (2010) suggested that, American democratic values encourage internalize expectations, moral knowledge management, and a duty and responsibility to the United States Constitution. According to Gilens and Benjamin (2014), one of the many goals of American democracy is "to ensure that equality under the law is represented in all areas of society" including all adult learning environments (p. 568). What I learned from Hillary and Taylor's stories was, despite the present-day socially driven definition of leadership, which significantly excludes women; these women shared how they had shattered glass ceilings, and emerged outside the scope of conventional leadership roles. As a result, Hillary and Taylor were able to modify and leverage their cognitive strengths to build a stronger personal brand, and position themselves for greater success.

This is why I believe that by introducing a deliberate cognitive-based dialogue for social justice and policy development is critical for reducing the social and gender discrimination barriers and challenges faced by women. The significance of creating a deliberate cognitive based learning will identify an individual's perception-inspired leadership decision, which then achieves accountability through a higher-level education that produces structured interpretation of organizational policy. For me, one of the principal educational purposes of creating a deliberate cognitive-based dialogue for social justice and policy development is the ability to implement higher learning standards designed to measure the results of an individual's leadership decision that followed a predictable path (Tuchman and Beasley, 2014). For instance, the measured perception of the displaced thought process "agitation," and how it followed a decision made by law enforcement officers when interpreting contributors that led to the enforcement of organizational policies.

Overall, the research findings utilized the participant centered narrative inquiry's to achieve some really interesting results. The participants consisted of a diverse group of elected women

political leaders from the southwestern part of the United States representing urban and rural districts. The narrative inquiry research consisted of a range of semi-structured interview questions that were open-ended. The goal was to obtain information from the stories, experiences, ideas, opinions, and perceptions of the female political leaders who were serving on the front line. The nature of measuring the intensity of the participant's perception was to seek information that could be beneficial to organizational leaders when evaluating how an employee processed and took action taken from a decision that followed an embodied cognitive behavior that challenged the interpretation of all or part of an organizational policy.

The key findings revealed that, some of the women political leaders once were prisoners of perception decision-making, while others proactively manage perceptions to their benefit. The findings confirmed just how the intensity of perception has internally affected the social status of women and other marginalized groups (Bodenhausen and Hugenberg 2009). The findings support the importance of how measuring the intensity of perception revealed how a displaced thought process regularly influence leadership decisions and behaviors in certain situations. In retrospect, Senge (1994) identified two conditions used to measure the intensity that follows a decision: 1) an individual must suspend their perceived assumptions in a given situation and 2) an individual must make a connection with the other person being perceived.

In perspective, Il'ashenko, (2004) noted, when individuals make decisions based on a previous experience, there is a "necessary" demand for measuring every extent to which hesitation and threat was triggered from the decision-made. All of the women in the research expressed that it was really necessary when making substantiated structured decisions to frame the process and action that followed a decision in order to evaluate the validity of the decision. The findings revealed that women who implement an understanding of time and space depends on how women manage, process and take action on internalized perceptions, meritocracy beliefs and oppressive experiences.

Foreseeable Implications of the Research Findings

The foreseeable implications of the poster session include: 1. To share the results of the dissertation and mainly focus on the recommendations around the need for an software instrument that will measure the intensity of perception; to engage others in management in organizational leadership practice in the conversation in order to gain input and ideas for moving forward; to apply this research in different regions of the country and the world because they are influenced by differently by political, social, cultural factors and family values; and to gain support for the additional research required in the field of perception and leadership.

Table 1
Linkages to Research Themes

Research Theme	Findings Component
Being authentic as an individual and as a leader; what this means and what its value is.	Provides an overview of the authentic nature of the participants of the female political leaders who shared their lived experiences in a narrative format.

Links between organizational performance and gender representation. Leadership identity, especially embodiment of inclusive leadership practices. Gender parity and women's representation at the executive table.	Provides an engagement of session participants in an interactive discussion of the problem, purpose, and results of the study, which focuses on organizational decision making as related to female political leaders.
Culturally-specific or intersectional approaches to advancing women in leadership.	Provides the opportunity for session participants to share ideas for the development of an instrument using the Intensity theory.

Note: The table above was designed to display linkages between the research findings to the research call for proposal theme of the psychological development of leaders, followers and learners in advancing women in leadership.

Conclusion

As a result of sharing the results of the dissertation, interacting with session participants, and gaining insight and innovative ideas, the recommended next action stapes will be to move forward with an additional study to further explore the construct and theory regarding measuring the intensity of perception. In addition, create a deliberate cognitive based learning system to support the many complex issues that attributed to the need for improved organizational leadership. Plans to move forward locally, national, and globally is ultimately a long-term goal as well as making sure political and organizational leaders have access to the instrument for consideration when reforming current policies. Finally, implementation and continued evaluation of both the learning system and instrument could be evaluated long term to determine effectiveness.

References

Bodenhausen, G. V., & Hugenberg, K. (2009). Attention, perception, and social cognition. In F. Strack & J. Förster (Eds.), *Social cognition: The basis of human interaction* (pp. 1-22). Philadelphia: Psychology Press.

Bombuwela P. M., & De Alwis A. (2013). Effects of glass ceiling on women career development in private sector organizations – Case of Sri Lanka. *Journal of Competitiveness,* Vol. 5, Issue 2, pp. 3-19.

Braund, M. J. (2008). *The Structures of Perception: An Ecological Perspective*. Kritike Vol.2 No.1, 123-144.

Braun, S., Peus, C., Weisweiler, S., & Frey, D. (2012). Transformational leadership, job satisfaction, and team performance: A multilevel mediation model of trust. *The Leadership Quarterly.* 24, 270-283.

Burkus, D. (2010). Developing the next generation of leaders: How to engage millennials in the workplace. *Leadership Advance Online Issue* XIX.

Crane, T. (2009). Is perception a propositional attitude? *The Philosophical Quarterly* Vol. 59, No. 236.

Duckworth, A. L., Peterson, C., Matthews, M. D., & Kelly, D. R. (2007). Grit: Perseverance and passion for long-term goals. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology,* Vol. 92, No. 6, 1087–110.

Folta, S. C., Seguin, R. A., Ackerman, J. & Nelson, M. E. (2012). A qualitative study of leadership characteristics among women who catalyze positive community change. *British Medical Center public health,* 12, 383.

Foucault, M. (1980). *Two Lectures. Power/Knowledge: Selected Interviews and Other Writings* by Michel Foucault. C. Gordon. New York, Pantheon Books.

Frederiksen, C. S. (2010). The relation between policies concerning corporate social responsibility (CSR) and philosophical moral theories—An empirical investigation. *Journal of Business Ethics.* 93 (3) pp.357- 371.

Friston, K. J. (2010). The free-energy principle: A unified brain theory? *Nature Reviews Neuroscience* 11(2):127–38.

Gilens, M. & Benjamin, I. P. (2014). "Testing Theories of American Politics: Elites, Interest Groups, and Average Citizens." *Perspectives on Politics*, forthcoming.

Hannum, K. M., Martineau, J. W., & Reinelt, C. (2007). eds. *The Handbook of leadership Development Evaluation,* San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass

Il'ashenko, S. M. (2004). The definition of necessary and sufficient information accumulation level to substantiate a choice of enterprise's market opportunities directions development. *Problems and Perspectives of Management.* №1. - P. 138-153.

Luoma, M., & Voltero, L. (2002). *Performance Improvement: Stages, Steps and Tools.* Chapel Hill, NC: IntraHealth

Pyke, K. (2010). "An Intersectional Approach to Resistance and Complicity: The Case Of Racialized Desire among Asian American Women." *Journal of Intercultural Studies* 31(1):81–94.

Senge, P. (1994). *The Fifth Discipline: The Art and Practice of a Learning Organization.* New York: Currency/Doubleday.

Tosi, H. L., Brownlee, A. L., Silva, P., & Katz, J. P. (2003). An empirical exploration of decision-making under agency controls and stewardship structure. *Journal of Management Studies*, 40(8): 2053-2071.

Tuchman, A., & Beasley, V. (2013, October). Robert Penn Warren Center. Retrieved on October 30, 2016, from http://www.vanderbilt.edu/rpw_center/newsletter/DiagnosisFacultyFellows.php

Verloo, M. (2013). Intersectional and Cross-Movement Politics and Policies: Reflections on Current Practices and Debates. *Signs.* 38(4), 893-915.

US College Students Thriving Through a Global Leadership:
A Phenomenological Approach to Examining a Short-term Study Abroad Trip to Sweden

Cameron Beatty
Salem State University

Amber Manning-Ouellette
Iowa State University

Abstract

Across higher education in the US, there is an insurgence of study abroad opportunities in the last several years (Dwyer, 2004; Ludwig, 2000, Pederson, 2010). However, study abroad programs lack the data to suggest their effectiveness during times of competing resources at universities (Anderson, Lawton, Rexeisen, & Hubbard, 2006). There are some foundational studies on how these programs create impact and increase the skills of students, yet at times they are lack definition of measures (Gillespe, 2002). Further, researchers continue to examine several academic, psychological, and sociological areas of growth for college students.

Introduction

In higher education, there are several outlets for students to expand their knowledge and experiences. In particular, study abroad programs are attractive opportunities for a global perspective or a vehicle to strengthen cultural competence. Further, most institutions offer programs in a variety of contexts, whether it semester-long, week-long, or a few months. As employers aim to find more developmental and social skills in students, they are interested in students that take advantage of expanding their dialects and global perspectives (Franklin, 2010; Trooboff, Vande Berg, & Rayman, 2008). Institutions should strive to better understand how student apply the experiences abroad with their college experience as well as the world after higher education.

Research Purpose and Questions

This study aims to examine phenomena surrounding student abroad abroad experiences while centering the Thriving Model (Schreiner, 2010) as a framework. With this theoretical concept, we strive to better understand the larger effects of studying abroad. Our research provides a purposeful lens into how students define and narrate their reflections of a study abroad experience and how that applies to their reality as a college student and global-minded individual. Further, the study intends to offer how to design study abroad programs that align the mission of public universities and the need to foster student global perspectives for the professional world.

This study will add to the existing literature on study abroad experiences of United States college students and provide a framework to utilize when designing study abroad programs in the future. With the current political climate, many controversial bills becoming introduced, and consistent scrutiny of postsecondary institution's purpose, higher education constituents must continue to

provide empirical evidence of how students benefit from co-curricular involvements in order to strengthen design and objectives (Blumenstyk, Najmabadi, & Brown, 2017; Schmidt, 2017). We believe that continuing to examine how student benefit from traveling abroad is essential to advocate for co-curricular programs, global perspectives, and increasing cultural competencies. Faculty must provide evidence and support of the necessity of international perspectives and working to make them accessible to all students. With this purpose in mind, the following overarching research question guides this study:

1. How do students thrive as a result of their global leadership study abroad experience?

Literature Review

Existing literature on study abroad experiences, student benefits, and personal development is vast and expansive. While many studies examine cultural competencies, there is a wide array of effects from student travel outside of the United States. The larger conversation is always centered around the increase in cultural competency of students, however there is space to investigate particular phenomena that continues long-after the student study abroad experience. This literature review examines the larger themes of study abroad research as a foundation for understanding of the broader impacts of study abroad.

Study Abroad Impact

A large body of research continues to solidify our understanding of the impacts of study abroad experiences. It is evident that study abroad research implies a significant increase in self-efficacy (Cubillos & Ilvento, 2013; Kehl, 2015; Milstein, 2005) and intercultural sensitivity (Anderson Lawton, Rexeisen, & Hubbard, 2006; Milstein, 2005, Penderson, 2010). While there are additional benefits of studying abroad, we will organize the impacts of study abroad in relevance to our study, focusing on global-mindedness, intercultural sensitivity, and self-efficacy.

Global-Mindedness

One anticipated yet significant outcome of sojourning is an increased sense of global-mindedness. In short, Golay (2006) defines globalization a process of transformation in organization of transcontinental social relations and transactions. Global-mindedness is used to describe a worldview in which an individual perceives themselves interconnected to the world and as a global community member (Hett, 1993). Furthermore, a concern for higher education that exists is for students to increase global-minded perspectives and competencies that will provide opportunity to think and interact across cultures and contexts (Golay, 2006). Faculty and staff can increase these perspectives by providing quality sojourning experiences focused on global dialogue.

Several researchers find that with study abroad programs bring increased levels of global perspectives (Cubillos & Ilvento, 2013; Golay, 2006; Kehl, 2015; Keily, 2004). More specifically, there are other factors that may influence the larger message of global-mindedness. Cubillos & Ilvento, (2013) suggest that augmenting local community opportunities abroad increases the global connections of students through meaningful interactions, intersecting with

their college relationships. Further, many students noted their interest in continuing conversations with the community members they interacted with while abroad. These critical interactions promote larger discussions regarding how students interact with their surroundings through a global context and present more opportunities to build their intercultural understanding Golay, 2006).

Intercultural Sensitivity

Higher education continues to impact the lives of students in many ways. Study abroad is one vehicle to transform the student experience through learning and reflection. Employers continue to seek students with global perspectives, demanding institutions to assess and evaluate how students apply their learning in relation to the workforce (Franklin, 2010; Norris & Norris, 2005; Trooboff, et al., 2008). Anderson, et al. (2006) notes, "as our workplace and society become more diverse, and as globalization of business intensifies, an individual's sensitivity to cultural differences combined with an ability to adapt his or her behavior to those differences will become increasingly valuable" (p. 459). Moreover, institutions should design programs that build and foster sensitivity to cultural differences and provided meaningful differences around the perceptions of the United States compared to other countries.

In a study by Medina-López-Portillo, (2004), student pre departure attitudes of the United States were centered on criticisms and focused on the analysis of a capitalistic society. Student attitudes shifted after returning from a Mexico study abroad trip with an increase in appreciation for the United States with a more critical lens. Additionally, a study on short-term study abroad experiences found positive increases in student's comprehension and identification of patterns outside of their own (Anderson, et al., 2006). Moreover, Pederson (2010) and Sorrells (2008) identified that more importantly than intercultural sensitivity, is the facilitation of meaning making around cultural competency. Students must continually reflect on their experience to develop increased levels of intercultural sensitivity and feel confident about their experiences (Bennett, 2004).

Self-Efficacy

Self-efficacy is defined as the perception one has about their ability to effectively complete a task or experience (Bandura, 1989). Student sojourners are examples of how one might foster self-efficacy through challenge and learning new experiences. Milstein (2005) studies self-efficacy and perceptions of studying abroad, "people who believe they can exercise some control over threats may foresee challenge, fun, and adventure in their days as sojourners, instead of imagined calamities and failures" (p. 223). In other words, students that have high levels of self-efficacy prior to travel may inherently find more confidence and applicability after the experience. Moreover, Kehl (2005) found that both men and women have equally developed self-efficacy identities prior to studying abroad. It seems that pre-developed self-efficacy perceptions have great influence over the experience abroad and after their return regardless of gender or the length of the sojourn.

Furthermore, Cubillos, & Ilvento, (2013) found that during short-term study abroad programs, student interactions with community members had increases in language and performance self-

efficacy. Many times, students that studied abroad were more likely to apply their self-efficacy skills to other collegiate programs after returning to the United States. A study by Parker and Altman Dautoff (2007) examined the longer-term aspects of sojourning. More specifically, they found an increase in content knowledge among participants including improved critical thinking skills, problem solving, and knowledge of cultural issues. Additionally, Anderson, et al. (2006) found that students completing a short-term study abroad indicated increased levels of diversity preparedness on their college campus. These results illustrate how students continue to thrive on college campuses after the sojourning experience has commenced.

Thriving and Academic Persistence

A critical piece of the higher education retention is academic persistence (Kuh, Cruce, Shoup, Kinzie, & Gonyea, 2007). Student engagement is directly linked to grades and persistence (Astin, 1993; Kuh, 2003; Kuh et al., 2007; Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005). Hughes and Pace (2003) indicated students that are less engaged either academically or socially lead to student attrition. While student engagement is important, an ideal goal of the college experience is for students to move beyond academic success by thriving in other areas of their university environment (Schreiner, 2010). "In an effort to measure these malleable psychosocial processes that enable students to succeed in college, the Thriving Quotient was developed as an instrument designed to measure students' positive functioning in three key areas: academically, interpersonally, and intrapersonally" (Schreiner et al., 2011, p 2).

Theoretical Framework: Thriving Quotient

Schreiner et al., (2011) delineates five factors that constitute these three areas of thriving: positive perspective, social connectedness, diverse citizenship, academic determination, and engaged learning. Students' Thriving Quotient is highly predictive of their self reported intent to graduate—predicting it more strongly than any student or institutional characteristics measured as well as the students' collegiate experiences measured (Schreiner, et al, 2011). Students' college GPA was most strongly predicted by their high school GPA, no surprise, but their Thriving Quotient was the strongest predictor of their post-enrollment experiences, including studying abroad. Satisfaction with the tuition, a proxy for satisfaction with the institution, was predicted of course by first-generation status and family income—but of students' post-enrollment experiences their Thriving Quotient was the strongest predictor (Schreiner et al., 2013).

On whole, the Thriving Model is as strong of a predictor of desirable outcomes as the students' demographic and pre-matriculation measures. This finding is important because we cannot change the race, gender, first-generation status, or high school GPAs of college students—yet these measures significantly contribute to desirable outcomes. What we can change, their post-matriculation experiences. These can contribute to students thriving in college. The Thriving Model provides us with a tool with which to measure students' college experiences.
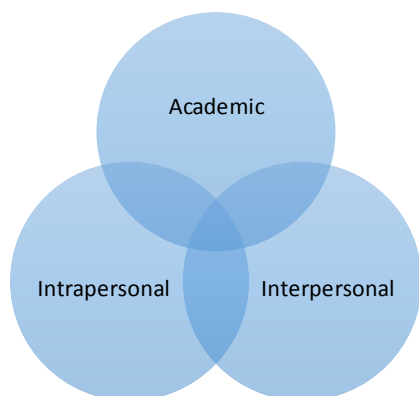
Figure 1. Schreiner, L.A. (2010). Keys areas of the Thriving Quotient
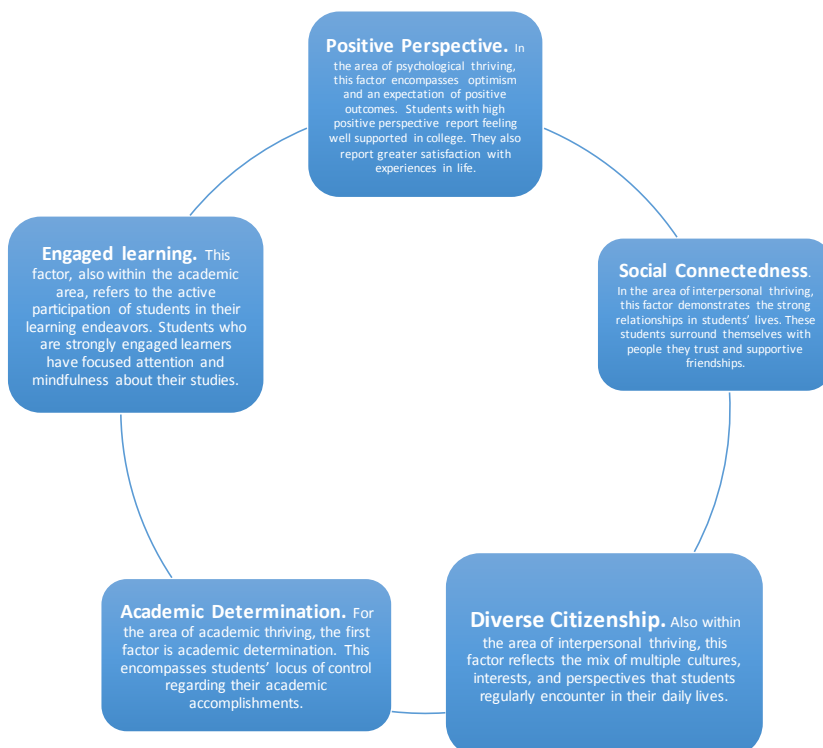
Figure 2. Schreiner, L.A. (2010). Factors of the Thriving Quotient

Methodology

Qualitative inquiry guides the study to examine the depth and deeper meaning of student study abroad experiences. As such, we engaged structured phenomenological interviewing techniques at the end of the the month-long study abroad trip. Structured phenomenological interviews include open-ended questions designed to collect multiple aspects and deeper reflection of the participant's experience (Fontana, 2002). The premise of this type of interviewing is to seek a deeper reflection and knowledge of the lived experiences of participants. Further, phenomenological informed interviews are a distinctive "personal relationship" between the interviewer and interviewee (Fontana, 2002, p. 165), the interviewee becomes involved in the interview process as a member rather than an "us and them" perspective. These interviews

provide an outlet for intentional examination of those meanings through processing the student study abroad experiences with students.

Global Leadership Study Abroad Program Participants

We explore the narratives of 17 United States study abroad students participating in a month-long global leadership study abroad in Stockholm, Sweden. The sample included 14 women (82.3%), three men (17.6%), and three students of color (17.6%). Further, five were first-year students (29.4%), five sophomores (29.4%), four juniors (23.5%), and three seniors (17.6%). Age of students ranged from 18 to 26 years old.

Student participants elected to study abroad in the months of May and June as part of a Global Leadership Study Abroad in Stockholm, Sweden situated in a Leadership Studies Program at a large, public, four-year university in the Midwest of the United States. Students enrolled in six credit hours during the month-long trip, led by two faculty co-directors. The first course – Special Topics in Leadership: Global Leadership Perspectives – and the second course – Women and Leadership.

Data Collection

At the end of the trip, the faculty co-directors recruited students for the study through verbal communication after the culmination of their coursework. Students opted into one of two focus groups and provided consent in accordance with university Institutional Review Board procedures. Each researcher conducted a one-hour audio-recorded focus group with the students and utilized an interview protocol developed by the researchers. After the group returned to the United States, the audio-recordings were transcribed verbatim by an undergraduate research assistant.

Data Analysis

The primary investigators elected to code transcriptions through a line-by-line coding process. The investigators agreed to code the each other's transcripts to address intercoder reliability. Further, using the Thriving Quotient (Schriner, 2010) as a framework, we employed directed content analysis (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005) while analyzing data and entering themes in a master codebook. We consulted and agreed upon each researcher's themes within the master codebook, identified quotations that illustrated thematic categories, and the interpretation of those. Finally, we confirmed the three most prevalent categories from our analysis.

Findings

As a research team, it was important for us to understand how students thrive as a result of their global leadership short-term study abroad experience. The students saw the strongest growth in areas of engaged learning, diverse citizenship, and social connectedness. The first theme discusses the role of faculty in engaged learning through the study abroad experience for participants. Participants stress the comfort of going abroad and being in a classroom with faculty from their home institution. The second theme highlights student learning experiences

around building a leadership capacity in diverse citizenship. Diverse citizenship stresses the value of recognizing and appreciating difference while also stressing the need to continue to grow by engaging in positive citizenship. Finally, the theme of social connectedness addresses the importance of students feeling socially included and valued in order to fully pariticipate in the community.

Engaged Learning

Student-faculty interaction can enhance students' academic performance, personal development, and professional development (Kuh & Hu, 2001, Schreiner et al., 2011). However, the type of interaction seems to be critical (Cole, 2007, 2010; Fischer, 2007; Kim, 2010; Lundberg & Schreiner, 2004; Schreiner et al., 2011). For example, interactions focused on remediation or personal critique do not contribute in a positive manner to student success. Student-faculty interaction contributed significantly to thriving in all students, indicating that the more students interact with faculty, the greater their level of engagement in learning, investment of effort in academics, satisfaction with life, and optimism about the future, regardless of the type of student and their life circumstances (Schreiner et al., 2011).

For the students in this study participating in a faculty-led study abroad they highlighted the role of faculty impacting their academic thriving while abroad. Allison describes her decision-making process to enroll in a faculty-led short-term study abroad program versus a full semester:

> Well personally, I didn't know if I would be able to do a full semester. That was just kind of daunting to think about. Going and being away for that long somewhere that I had never been before that I didn't know if I would like. And being not with people who are also kind of going through the same thing. That was a big aspect of this trip. That we were all gonna be taking classes together and like in English with people that I had known already and faculty from our campus. That was kind of a big thing for me.
> -Allison

Additionally, students had very limited understanding of politics and the two-party system based on their United States of America frame of understanding how a democracy worked. Fawn reveals how she was able to come to a realization of how democratic socialism could work for a society by better understanding Swedish politics:

> I think something that I really liked was meeting (with) different political parties. In America, you hear - Bernie is a socialist. You hear all these things and you think super negative thoughts especially someone like me. I'm not super educated with politics. I know there's a left and a right, but I don't know a whole lot about it. So hearing how negatively socialism is taken in America type thing. Coming over here, I hear, oh they use socialism, oh they're democratic, like oh it's so awful. There are all these different parties. They're not extremists, they're not nuts, they're normal humans. I thought that was really good, because we don't get that unbiased look in things. It was nice to get a clear view.
> - Fawn

Diverse Citizenship

The factor of Diverse Citizenship combines the concepts of citizenship (Tyree, 1998), an appreciation of differences in others (Fruertes et al., 2000), and a growth mindset (Dweck, 2006) that perceives human behavior as flexible with effort. Students shared their expanding thinking through the experience of diversity, a finding echoed in previous research (Haber-Curran & Rosch, 2013; Martinez, 2012; Ostick & Wall, 2011). For example, one student shared how her definition of global leadership now included leaders being open to difference and new environments on a global scale. Another stated that she developed a more nuanced understanding of global leadership after immersing herself deeply in the history and culture of Sweden. Thus, students' interests in not only making a difference but understanding and appreciating difference others have to offer may enable them to gain the full benefit of their college experience while being open to diverse experiences that pushes them outside of their comfort zone once back on campus following the study abroad experience. Participants highlighted this in their study abroad experience and immersion in Swedish culture:

> I would have to say that my definition of a global leader is somebody who deliberately puts themselves in situations where they're going to be exposed to other cultures and other types of people other than themselves in order to be able to relate better to the countries other than their own. For example, the president, he deliberately puts himself in situations like within the UN and he goes to other countries.
> -Char

> I just see as a way you know for global leaders, somebody whose ideas can reach across cultural boundaries. So I think that can- in like the case of ethically or morally correct global leader, the cultural competency can be used in a good way where you are using it to bring people to together for a greater good. But I think also on the flip side… I think there have been a ton of global leaders who have – whose ideas have reached across global boundaries and they have used that cultural competency in a way that separates people which is kind of counterproductive. I don't know. Do you get what I'm saying? So I guess that's my definition. Is like using- You have an idea; you have a goal. Spreading that or warping it or changing it- you're using your competency to make it spread and to get people to be on your side.
> -Melissa

Social Connectedness

Social connectedness is the degree to which students have and perceive a sufficient number and diversity of relationships that allow them: to give and receive information, emotional support, and material aid; create a sense of belonging and value; and foster growth (Schreiner et al., 2011). Char and Brooke highlight how they were able to connect with the country and feel connected socially by meeting with Swedish groups through the study abroad experience and learning about their own leadership and the importance of building relationships with those you are leading:

The part I liked the most was probably actually getting out and doing things like going and meeting people like I wouldn't necessarily have put myself in a place to meet if I were in the US. Like the political groups, I would probably not have actually gone and talked to them if it was just me. But yeah, I really enjoyed getting out and meeting people.
-Char

I think I've learned a lot about myself as well. And kind of figured out that you really need to get to know the people you're leading. Like understand the differences in personalities. That's how like kind of being on this trip and being surrounded with seventeen different people with different personalities. You need to learn how to kind of adapt to be able to communicate effectively with different people.
-Brooke

Discussion & Conclusion

This research is vital to the ongoing curriculum development of leadership studies programs with global leadership curriculum and study abroad experiences. It will contribute to the leadership studies field's understanding of how students are affected by leadership education curriculum and study abroad experiences and do so with respect to key outcomes of student persistence and academic achievement. This knowledge will inform both curriculum design and allocation of limited resources to maximize the gains with students who will realize the most benefit and engage in global understandings of leadership development.

A few students shared how they were expected to explore, in part, on their own within a community where many did not primarily speak or read the language (Swedish). These students often placed their abroad experience as an additional step within the context of stepping outside their "comfort zone" and becoming ready to attain adulthood, which is a theme evident in non-leadership-focused study abroad experiences as well (Haber-Curran & Rosh, 2013). For example, multiple students commented on how they often thought of themselves as "leaders" but were forced to become more follower-like when placed in the unfamiliar environment of a new country; learning how to independently navigate such an environment led them to generalize how they could apply such learning to numerous unfamiliar situations in the future.
 Powerful experiences are created through short-term study abroad academic opportunities (Haber-Curran & Rosh, 2013; Martinez, 2012). The relatively cost-effective advantage of short-term study abroad programs is an additional benefit to highlight for students to learn about leadership in a global context (Martinez, 2012). While research on short-term study abroad programs and interests in their application for leadership education and curriculum development is rising, we highlight the role the Thriving Quotient can have in students understand and applying global leadership.

We described a specific case where a short-term learning abroad experience in Sweden was implemented at one institution with a focus on leadership education and development outcomes focusing on Thriving. Through qualitative methods and analysis the findings suggest that over the course of 4 weeks students grew the most in factors of engaged learning, diverse citizenship, and social connectedness. This program could serve as a template for other institutions interested

in creating international partnerships for similar programs interested in applying the Thriving Quotient. Preliminary findings from this leadership study abroad program reflect the importance of providing ample opportunities for students to immerse themselves in a global context– both formally and informally. Additionally, the findings suggest intentionally pairing curricular components with field experiences to support students engaging with faculty, understanding difference, and connecting to their host country.

References

Anderson, P.H., Lawton, L., Rexeisen, R.J., Hubbard, A.C. (2006). Short-term study abroad and intercultural sensitivity: A pilot study. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 30*, 457–469.

Astin, A.W. (1993). *What matters in college? Four critical years revisited*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Bandura, A. (1989). Regulation of cognitive processes through perceived self-efficacy. *Developmental Psychology, 25*, 729–735.

Bennett, M. J. (2004). Becoming interculturally competent. In J. Wurzel (Ed.), Toward multiculturalism: A reader in multicultural education (2nd ed., pp. 62–77). Newton, MA: Intercultural Resources Corporation.

Blumenstyk, G., Najmabadi, S., & Brown, S. (2017, February). Court Rebukes Trump's Travel Ban, and Harm to Universities Plays a Key Role. *The Chronicle of Higher Education.*

Braxton, J.M., Hirschy, A.S., & McClendon, S.A. (2004) Understanding and reducing student departure. No.3. *ASHE-ERIC Higher Education Research Report Series*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Cubillos, J.H. & Ilvento, T. (2013). The Impact of Study Abroad on Students' Self-Efficacy Perceptions. *Foreign Language Annals, 45(4)*, 494–511.

Fontana, A. (2002). Postmodern trends in interviewing. In J. F. Gubrium & J. A. Holstein (Eds.), *Handbook of interview research: Context and method* (pp.161-176). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Doyle, S., Gendall, P., Meyer, L.H., Hoek, J., Tait, C., McKenzie, L., & Loorparg, A. (2010). An Investigation of Factors Associated With Student Participation in Study Abroad. *Journal of Studies in International Education, 14*(5), 471-490.

Dwyer, M. M. (2004). More Is Better: The Impact of Study Abroad Program Duration. *Frontiers: The interdisciplinary journal of study abroad*, *10*, 151-163.

Franklin, K. (2010). Long-term career impact and professional applicability of the study abroad experience. *Frontiers: The interdisciplinary journal of study abroad*, *19*, 169-190.

Gillespe, J. (2002). Colleges need better ways to assess study abroad programs. The Chronicle of Higher Education. Retrieved from http://chronicle.com

Golay, P.A. (2006). The Effects of Study Abroad on the Development of Global Mindedness Among Students Enrolled in International Programs at Florida State University. Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation. Florida State University.

Haber-Curran, P. & Rosh, D. (2013). Learning leadership abroad: An overview of a short-term leadership-focused study abroad program in Italy. *Journal of Leadership Education, 12*(2), 148-154.

Hett, E. J. (1993). The development of an instrument to measure global-mindedness. Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, University of San Diego.

Hsieh H., Shannon S. E. (2005). Three approaches to qualitative content analysis. *Qualitative Health Research, 15*(9), 1277–1288. doi:10.1177/1049732305276687

Hughes, R. & Pace, C.R. (July/August 2004), Using the NSSE to study student retention and withdrawal. *Assessment Update – Progress, Trends, and Practices in Higher Education, 15*(4).

Keily, R. (2004). A chameleon with a complex: Searching for transformation in international service-learning. *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning, 10*(2), 5-20.

Kehl, K.L. (2015). Differences in Self-Efficacy and Global Mindedness between Short term and Semester-long Study Abroad Participants at Selected Christian Universities. Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation. Baylor University.

Kuh, G.D. (2003) What we're learning about student learning engagement from NSSE. *Change, 35* (2), 24-32.

Kuh, G. D., Cruce, T., Shoup, R., Kinzie, J., & Gonyea, R. M. (2007). *Unmasking the effects of student engagement on college grades and persistence. Indiana University Bloomington: Center for Postsecondary Research*. Retrieved from http://nsse.iub.edu/uploads/AERA_2007_Kuh_et_al.pdf

Ludwig, M. (2000). The next ten years: Trends affecting study abroad participation for US students. *International Educator, 9*(4), 34–40.

Martinez, C. A. (2012). *Preparing global leaders: A theoretical model for understanding the development of intercultural competency*. Unpublished dissertation. University of San Diego.

Medina-López-Portillo, A. (2004). Intercultural learning assessment: The link between program duration and the development of intercultural sensitivity. *Frontiers: The Interdisciplinary Journal of Study Abroad*, 179–199.

Milstein, T. (2005). Transformation abroad: Sojourning and the perceived enhancement of self-efficacy. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 29*, 217–238.

Norris, E.M., & Norris, J.G.(2005, Spring).Study abroad: Stepping stone to a successful international career. *NACE Journal*, *65*(3), 30–36.

Ostick, D. T., & Wall, V. A. (2011). Considerations for culture and social identity dimensions. In S. R. Komives, J. Dugan, J. E. Owen, C. Slack, & W. Wagner (Eds.), *Handbook for student leadership programs (2nd ed.)*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Parker, B. & Altman Dautoff, D. (2007). Service-Learning and Study Abroad: Synergistic Learning Opportunities. *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning*, 40-53.

Pascarella, E.T., & Terenzini, P.T. (2005) *How college affects students: A third decade of research*, 2. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Pederson, P. (2010). Assessing intercultural effectiveness outcomes in a year-long study abroad program. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations 34,* 70–80.

Schmidt, P. (2017, February). State Lawmakers Seek to Force Public Colleges to Protect Speech Rights. *The Chronicle of Higher Education.*

Schreiner, L.A. (May/June 2010). The "Thriving Quotient": A New Vision for Student Success. *About Campus.*

Schreiner, L. A., Kammer, R., Primrose, B., & Quick, D. (2011). Predictors of thriving in students of color: Differential pathways to college success. In *annual meeting of the Association for the Study of Higher Education, Charlotte, NC*.

Sorrells, K. (2008). Methods of intercultural training. Presentation at the Summer Institute for Intercultural Communication, Portland, OR.

Trooboff, S., Vande Berg, M., & Rayman, J. (2008). Employer attitudes toward study abroad. *Frontiers: The Interdisciplinary Journal of Study Abroad, 15*, 17-33.

Are Undergraduate Millennials Open to Feedback? The Impact of Peer Feedback on Undergraduate Leadership Development

Brian Griffith & Allie Love
Vanderbilt University

Abstract

In today's ever-changing "knowledge economy," leadership development skills and abilities have become increasingly crucial to success in the workforce (Whelan, Collings, & Donnellan, 2010). As a method to reflect on individuals' performance strengths and weaknesses, peer feedback instruments have been identified as one of the major catalysts for positive change in employees' attitudes and behaviors. With the millennial generation taking a larger percentage of the workplace with each passing year, the role of these "digital natives" is progressively important to the success of corporations and organizations. Popular opinion cites millennials as the "self-important" generation that lacks independence and resilience (Myers & Sadaghiani, 2010). However, these stereotypes may not be accurate. This pilot study aims to delve into the role of peer feedback instruments in the leadership development practices of undergraduate millennial students, and suggests that contrary to popular belief, millennials are open to receiving critical feedback to improve their personal and professional development.

Introduction

The definition and purpose of leadership development has changed drastically since the beginning of the 21st Century. No longer does leadership hinge upon a single individual atop a stiff hierarchy as it did in the past. Now, the success of an organization lies in the hands of many persons as the social interactions between leaders and their teams have become increasingly important (Dalakoura, 2010). In the past thirty years, the rapid rise of technology and globalization has led to severe competition and uncertainty on both domestic and global scales, shifting employees' focus from centralized models of corporate leadership to team-oriented structures to maximize both profits and efficiency (Roper & Phillips, 2007; Dalakoura, 2010). To foster environments in which employees can constantly learn, grow, and develop, corporations are turning to feedback practices to correct weaknesses and build upon strengths (Baker et al., 2013). As human capital increases in value and relevance within the new "knowledge-based economy," the role of feedback on team and individual performance has become a topic of great interest for both businesses and universities alike (Whelan et al., 2010). Various research has demonstrated that feedback can positively impact the growth of a company by promoting organizational effectiveness, employee learning, and salary progression through performance improvement and goal planning (Mulder & Ellinger, 2013, London & Smither, 2002). With 90% of Fortune 1,000 companies relying on work teams as a key aspect of their organizational structure in 2003 compared to only 28% in 1987, feedback has become increasingly crucial for the development of corporate human capital (Dominick, Carruthers, 2003; Reilly & McGourty, 1998). This statistic is projected to only increase into the millennia, consequently calling for further investigation regarding the impact of feedback on leadership development.

In a constantly evolving world in which feedback culture has become crucial to successful leadership development, it is not only natural, but also necessary to investigate the way the future leaders of the world will interpret and act upon feedback. A haze of ambiguity surrounds the current Millennial generation as both intellectuals and researchers alike question how the current societal context will affect future Millennial behavior in both the classroom and the workforce (DiLullo, McGee, & Kriebel, 2011). Members of previous generations have demonstrated concern regarding various Millennial stereotypes and behaviors, doubting their abilities to productively contribute to the work force as they are popularly perceived as "impatient, self-important, and disloyal" individuals (Myers & Sadaghiani, 2010; Howe & Strauss, 2003). By delving into the relationship between Millennial undergraduate students and the impact of peer feedback on their leadership development, this pilot study aims to close the gap between fact and fiction to determine whether Millennials are open to such feedback and how they use it to further motivate their behaviors.

Literature Review

The Millennial Generation

Referred to as "the Net Generation, Generation Y, the Echo-boomers, Generation Me, and the Digital Natives," the Millennial generation encompasses all individuals born between 1978-2001, a period that overlaps the global technology boom of the past several decades (DiLullo et al., 2011). Indeed, the rise in technology has deeply impacted the Millennial Generation for it has reoriented the way they view and interact with the surrounding world (Hershatter & Eptstein, 2010). No other previous generation has experienced technology in the same manner of depth as the Millennials—a fact that markedly identifies them as "digital natives" amidst a sea of "digital immigrants" (Hershatter & Epstein, 2010; DiLullo et al., 2011). Research indicates Millennials may in fact be neurologically wired differently as a result of their exposure to technology from early age (Tapscott, 2009). Their affinity for technology is exemplified through their increased ability to multitask, respond to visual stimulation, access information, and interpret verbal cues (Small & Vorgan, 2008). Beyond these technological attributes, Howe and Strauss have identified seven core character traits of the Millennial Generation: special, sheltered, confident, team-oriented, conventional, pressured, and achieving (2003). On the whole, they are a highly emotive generation—known to use several methods of self-expression, to demonstrate positive relationships with their parental figures, and to utilize social media to enhance their connections within their communities (Hosek & Titsworth, 2016). Having first stepped on college campuses beginning in 2004, this emerging generation of technologically-versed individuals will not only be the most educated generation in United States' history, but with its skills and increased knowledge ability will also have a profound impact in the future direction and makeup of the 21st Century workforce (Fry, 2015).

Due to the importance of this upcoming population, an ample array of literature exists that specifically delves into the way Millennials interact with older generations—Generation X specifically. Research conducted investigating perceptions regarding Millennial attitudes and behaviors has demonstrated mixed views emanating from older generations—some positive, some negative. "Greatest Generation" or "Generation Whine?": there is a clear split in popular opinion as to whether Millennials will live up to their projected significance in society (Heshatter

& Epstein, 2010). The older generations' doubt mainly originates from various negative character traits observed of young Millennials. Twenge cites millennial students in the classroom as "narcissistic with a feeling of entitlement, unmotivated, impatient, incurious, unprepared for independence, academically disengaged, deficient in time management and critical thinking skills," characteristics that render them seemingly undesirable as current students and future employees (2009). However, several external phenomena could account for such behaviors. The presence of helicopter parents and prevalence of imposter syndrome could contribute, as reports of Generation Y's lack of independence coincide with Jorgenson's findings of increased sheltering by Millennial parents (1992). Combined, both variables have potentially amplified the needs and levels of neediness demonstrated by Millennials themselves (Frey & Tatum, 2016). While highly educated and technologically advanced, the Millennial Generation faces harsh criticism for undesirable, self-oriented behaviors observed within the past decade. Such opinions must be taken at face value, however, for as most studies are empirical, others delve into popular press and popular literature which stem from and contribute to false stereotypes.

On the other hand, the trademark of the "Me-lennial" Generation is not entirely negative. To begin, this generation is indeed uniquely individual as it is comprised of a more diverse and accepting population than those preceding it (Howe & Strauss, 2000). Research proves that in addition to demonstrating accepting behaviors, Millennials also seek social responsibility and meaningful work in their professional lives (Ng, Schweitzer, & Lyons, 2010). PriceWaterhouseCoopers conducted a study in which 88% of Millennials surveyed marked corporate social responsibility as crucial to accepting a job opportunity, and that they find it necessary to work at an organization whose mission statements and values align with their own (2008). Millennials also enjoy and excel at working in teams (Myers & Sadaghiani, 2010). This partly stems from Millennial's extreme social tendencies but has also been related to risk avoidance in the workplace (Alsop, 2008). Their desire to work in teams positively compliments the modern workforce of the 21st Century, for with more companies relying on teams, employees with key interpersonal and soft skills are increasingly in demand. Both teams and the relationships fostered within those teams have become key focal points of the Millennial generation's professional development, therefore demonstrating a need for additional research delving into the relationship between this population and its behavioral strengths and attitudes in the workforce.

Empirical research demonstrates that while Millennials desire open communication between employees and superiors, they also expect more positive, frequent, and affirming feedback (Gursoy, Maier, & Chi, 2008). However, sometimes the most critical form of feedback is that of correction and critique. While many studies delve into the specific perceptions and behaviors of Millennials in the classroom and the corporate world, there is a dearth of literature related to how their reactions to feedback, whether positive or negative, will further fuel and impact their decisions in the future.

Peer Feedback and Leadership Development

Leadership development research is increasingly in abundance due to its mounting significance in the modern, ever-changing workforce. Defined as an "integration strategy…helping people understand how to relate to others, coordinate their efforts, build commitments, and develop

extended social networks by applying self-understanding to social and organizational imperatives," leadership development is essential to the health and longevity of effective organizations as companies begin to demonstrate greater need for leaders in every corner of an organization (Day, 2001, pg. 586). The available literature makes it clear that self-understanding and self-awareness are key aspects of leadership development (Dalakoura, 2010; Rijt et al., 2012; Ross, 2014). Recent studies conducted on MBA students in Los Angeles, California demonstrate that self-awareness, empathy, motivation, self-regulation and social skills are deemed the most important qualities for leaders to possess, and therefore should be given additional attention in leadership development practices (Marques, 2013). In other words, soft skills are becoming increasingly more important in the world of work, especially with the rise of team-oriented organization structure (Heckman & Kautz, 2012). For people to work together effectively, they need to understand how to relate to one another and compromise in meaningful ways.

Indeed, teams are the face of the new millennial organizational structure. To fully maximize the capabilities of the Millennial generation, companies and educational institutions alike must focus on developing their human capital accordingly. The literature on leadership development identifies various feedback practices as effective measures to successfully develop both employees and students (Brutus & Donia, 2010; Green, 2002; Thach, 2002; Dominick et al., 1998; Topping, 1998). Peer, multi-rater, and 360 feedback instruments have all been cited as specific measures utilized by organizations to evaluate and improve interpersonal dynamics within the office and classroom (Harris & Kuhnert, 2008; Conger, 2010; Dominick et al., 1998). In fact, research demonstrates that the administration of peer feedback can increase leadership effectiveness up to 60% in organizations (Thach, 2002). Peer feedback supplies individuals with information regarding what is considered high-quality work, and allows them to correct negative or poor performance behaviors to improve overall output (Topping, 1998). In a longitudinal field study conducted by Dai, De Meuse & Peterson, researchers concluded that multi-source peer feedback effectively enhanced the leadership competencies of executive leaders in a large financial services company in the United States (2010). These results can be interpreted across a wide range of fields and organizations for supplemental evidence has been found that supports this conclusion in institutions of higher education as well (Brutus & Donia, 2010). Recent studies have shown that peer feedback is a necessary function of leadership development for it enables specific strengths to be identified and weaknesses to be improved upon, leading to a combined increase in team and leadership performance ratings overall (Dominick et al., 1998).

When relating leadership development practices with peer and multi-source feedback instruments, the attitudes and behaviors of the subsequent test population must be kept front of mind. Millennials are pouring into the work force eager for positive, affirming feedback, but what if that is not the feedback they receive? The Millennial era has come to rely on peer feedback practices to fuel leadership development more than any other generation, therefore, the way they approach such feedback is of utmost importance for it could demonstrate the manner in which Millennials will further address and tackle organizational problems in the future (Riviera, 2014). The current literature on the subject focuses on the impact of feedback on leadership development of executives and employees currently employed in the corporate world, and subsequently lacks sufficient information regarding the generation simultaneously entering the workforce with different experiences and values. By delving into the attitudes and behaviors

associated with Millennial leadership development, this study will uncover how feedback affects undergraduate students of this generation.

Based on the literature reviewed, we hypothesize that millennial students are more open to feedback than popular opinion suggests. We aim to test this theory by delving into the specific attitudes and emotions behind millennials' responses to feedback to investigate whether they react in a mostly positive or negative manner.

Methods

The pilot study was conducted at a midsize university in the central United States among undergraduate students majoring in Human and Organizational Development. Data was gathered in spring 2017 through the administration of an online survey investigating the specific attitudes and reactions students held following their completion of an electronic 360-feedback instrument called the G360 Team Survey. The questions posed in the feedback evaluation survey were modeled after The Examining Evaluator Feedback Survey, a descriptive instrument designed to collect data on teacher's perceptions of the peer feedback received regarding their performance in the classroom (Chesaro, Broderson, Yanoski, Welp, Reale, 2015). In the G360 Team Survey Feedback and Reactions questionnaire, 24 questions were posed to students in four main categories: demographic information, understanding of the G360 Team Survey's purpose, personal assessment of the validity of the feedback instrument, evaluation of emotional response after initially receiving feedback, and steps taken to further develop strengths and weaknesses identified by the G360 Team Survey. To demonstrate their level of agreement with the statements posed in the form, raters selected their responses on a 5-point Likert-scale ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree."

The G360 Team Survey Feedback and Reactions Questionnaire was dispersed electronically through a Google Form to students who had completed the Small Group Behavior class as a part of their Human and Organizational Development major coursework. The survey was an optional task, for there was no penalty for students who chose to not complete the survey. The survey was sent to 300 students in the sophomore, junior, and sophomore class who had previously completed the class. A total of 50 students responded and agreed to the corresponding terms of the assessment. The demographic data collected on the students' race, gender, and age was not individually identifiable to intentionally protect each students' identity. Among the 50 students who participated in the study, 30 identified as female, 19 identified as male, and one chose not to identify. 35 students were Caucasian, 14 came from minority backgrounds and one chose not to report their race. The total race breakdown is as follows: 6% African American, 6% Asian, and 71% Caucasian students participated in the G360 Team Survey Feedback and Reactions Survey. Overall, the study targeted students in each undergraduate class who has previously participated in the Small Group Behavior course. In total, 13 seniors, 8 juniors, and 28 sophomores chose to respond.

Both quantitative and qualitative data were collected to achieve a greater understanding of undergraduate reactions to feedback assessment. First, students participated in a Survey that asked questions about their initial reactions to the feedback they received from the G360 Team Survey. As a portion of their participation in the class, students were required to split up into

randomized groups of 6-7 students each to perform a semester-long problem-solving task. Halfway through the semester, each student completed the G360 Team Survey to evaluate the key leadership competencies and performance behaviors of themselves and their peers. To shed light upon individuals' leadership strengths and weaknesses, the G360 Team Survey compares and analyzes students' self and peer responses in sixteen core competencies focused upon four main categories: interpersonal skills, personal qualities, problem solving skills, and leadership skills. For many students, receiving the G360 Team Survey reports marks the first time they have received constructive feedback based on their performance. The individual reports each student receives details the differences between how they themselves and others view their leadership performance in a team setting. The G360 Team Survey Feedback and Reactions Questionnaire was designed to collect quantitative data regarding student's initial reactions to their G360 Feedback reports. To conduct a complete analysis on the phenomena, we designed a series of qualitative survey questions to pose to the Small Group Behavior class. These questions are designed to delve further into the specific attitudes, emotions, and behaviors that students exhibit after initially receiving their feedback reports. In this regard, we were able to achieve a comprehensive analysis of the research issues in order to reach our conclusions. The participants were asked five open-ended questions that delve into the students' initial expectations of the survey responses, their initial reactions and emotions following receiving their self and peer-feedback reports, how they dealt with their feedback, and how the feedback ultimately effected their leadership development—through internships, summer programs, volunteer opportunities, and participation in extracurricular activities on campus. The answers were recorded and transcribed with the students' names changed to maintain their anonymity.

Results

Overall, the data collected demonstrates evidence that millennial students respond positively to peer feedback. On average, these students reported emotions and behaviors indicative of being open and willing to receive feedback—whether positive or negative—to correct their leadership skills and abilities. It appears that millennials are not only open to feedback, but rather desire it to shed light on areas of weakness and strength that they may not have previously been aware of. Both the qualitative and quantitative survey responses validated this evidence for both identified self-awareness as one of the traits they were most grateful for after participating in the G360 Team Survey. In summary, the results collected from this pilot study disprove popular opinion regarding millennials negative attitudes and behaviors. In fact, millennials appreciate feedback as a conduit to increased self-awareness and eventual improvement in personal and professional environments.

Table 1
Feedback Reactions

Question in G360 Team Survey Feedback and Reactions Survey	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	No Response
I felt that the feedback was accurate.	0.20	0.57	0.20	0.02	0.00	0.02

I was upset by the feedback I received.	0.02	0.12	0.16	0.57	0.12	0.02
I felt unfairly criticized by my peers.	0.00	0.08	0.06	0.61	0.25	0.02
I was pleased by the feedback I received.	0.18	0.47	0.31	0.04	0.00	0.02
I didn't feel any strong emotions about the feedback I received.	0.02	0.25	0.29	0.39	0.06	0.02

The percentages of students' responses related to their initial reactions to the G360 Team Feedback Survey are recorded in the table above. The majority of students agreed that the feedback provided by peers was an accurate representation of their behavior. Students indicated they were mostly pleased by the feedback they received, as over half of the surveyed population reported disagreeing with the statements "I was upset by the feedback I received" and "I felt unfairly criticized by my peers." There is evidence to suggest that on average, millennial undergraduate students are more open to feedback than previously believed for they reported mostly agreeing with statements that correlated positivity to feedback.

Table 2
Effects of Feedback

Question in G360 Team Survey Feedback and Reactions Survey	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	No Response
Since I have received the feedback, I have become more aware of my strengths and weaknesses.	0.27	0.50	0.18	0.08	0.00	0.02
Since I have received the feedback, I have been working to improve my skills.	0.27	0.43	0.20	0.06	0.04	0.02
The feedback I received has led to improvement of my skills and abilities as a leader.	0.18	0.41	0.31	0.10	0.00	0.02

Table 2 demonstrates the effects the G360 Team Survey's peer feedback responses had on the students' actions and behaviors. Half of the students surveyed reported agreeing with the statement: "since I have received the feedback, I have become more aware of my strengths and weaknesses," with 27% in strong agreement. The data was more spread out on the latter two

statements, as 41% of students agreed that the feedback motivated them to improve their skills, while 43% students agreed that it led to improvement of leadership skills and abilities.

Qualitative Questions:

To reinforce the data collected through the quantitative interview questions, we added two open-ended qualitative questions to investigate the specific reactions and emotions students held in regards to the feedback they received through the G360 Team Survey:

Q.1: What were the biggest benefits of this experience for you? (Please be specific).

Q.2: How did you grow and develop as a leader as a result of taking the G360 Team Survey? (Please provide examples on how this feedback improved your skills in other specific leadership roles).

Overall, 31 students chose to answer the first question and 25 the second. This could be due to the fact the question asked for specific responses regarding past experiences and detail, and several students could have been turned off by having to spend time reflecting on their progress following their completion of the G360 Team Survey. Additionally, several of the students may not have remembered their initial reactions as they participated in the original survey two to three years ago, and thus their memory is not fresh regarding these experiences.

Nonetheless, the responses recorded from both questions reflects the data collected from the quantitative portion of the survey: students were open to the feedback provided, and utilized said feedback to learn and grow personally and professionally. In fact, one student noted in the second question that they "grew as a leader most from the feedback from others" because "blind spots are the best to be addressed and this process provides that" necessary change and development. Indeed, self-awareness and self-reflection proved paramount to these students' experiences with the G360 Team Survey for many mentioned that the biggest benefits of the process were "raising awareness…to improve group and personal attributes," "illuminating the blind spots," and "getting to hear honest feedback" from peers regarding their performance abilities. This information allowed them accurately process "how others on the team view" them and their leadership skills. Of the thirty-one students who answered the first question, seven directly cited "awareness" or uncovering "blind spots" as the most impactful aspect of the feedback surveys.

A thorough analyzation of the responses demonstrates that the majority of the students surveyed found their feedback to be somewhat surprising at first glance—whether positively or negatively. The critique they received through the G360 Team Survey either confirmed or reaffirmed previous beliefs while simultaneously allowing for problems to be addressed. Several students reflected the idea that positive feedback allowed for a "boost" in overall confidence in specific strengths, and that critique made them aware of "issues that…otherwise would have been overlooked and never noticed." The mix of both positive and negative commentary allowed students to "make specific adjustments" to personal "leadership styles."

In response to the second question ("How did you grow and develop as a leader as a result of taking the G360 Team Survey?) students cited the various aspects of their personality or leadership abilities that kept them from being perceived as successful leaders in their groups. For instance, one student declared that first and foremost she learned that "it is okay to take some risks and initiative as a leader" and that her lack of assertiveness in her behavior held her back from realizing her full potential. Other students reported similar realizations regarding their lack of interpersonal skills, listening abilities, communication skills, confidence, and overall self-awareness. These realizations ultimately led to growth, for as one student stated:

"The survey made me more conscious of my tendency to come across very task-oriented and not necessarily relationship-oriented in leadership situations, and I have since then applied this feedback in other settings by trying to make myself open and approachable when leading a team."

Overall, the G360 Team surveys provided students with clear, concise feedback from peers that allowed them to address and adjust certain key behaviors. The students' reactions proved to be mostly positive as many looked to the feedback as a catalyst for awareness and change.

Net Promoter Score:

Net promoter scores are utilized by corporations and organizations to evaluate customers' experiences with specific products. To effectively measure the effectiveness of the G360 Team Survey, we conducted a Net Promoter Score test by asking students participating in the survey:

How likely would you be to recommend the G360 Team Survey to a friend or colleague?

Students ranked their responses on a scale of 0-10—0 for "not at all" and 10 as "definitely." Students who rate the survey 9-10 are labeled "promoters" and those who rate it 0-6 are "detractors." Through running a simple calculation, we determined the G360 Team Survey's Net Promoter Score to be 17%, meaning there are 17% more promoters of the survey system than detractors. In summary, more students approve of the survey and its use than those who do not.

Limitations

While this pilot study fills a gap in the literature regarding the true attitudes and behaviors of millennial students in relation to peer feedback and leadership development in a valid and reliable manner, it does exhibit several limitations. To begin, the sample size of the test population was narrow. Due to the voluntary nature of the survey, only 50 students chose to respond. The survey was intentionally designed as voluntary to increase the reliability of results and protect the students' identities in sharing personal emotions in their responses. However, this presents several limitations for not only is it more likely that the specific students who responded were those who took favorably to the G360 Team Survey, but also that the results gleaned from the small sample population size are not indicative of the entire millennial population. Therefore, the results from this pilot study cannot be generalized to fit the experiences and beliefs of each individual millennial undergraduate student. In addition, of all the undergraduates from this midsize U.S. institution that participated in the survey, 30 were female, 19 were male, 35 were

Caucasian, and 15 were minority students with one student choosing not to report their demographic information. The lack of responses from male and minority students presents a potential disadvantage to the overall validity of the survey data. With a more representative sample, we would have a more accurate understanding of how feedback affects specific populations outside of these majority groups. Furthermore, this study involves students who took the G360 Team Survey two to three years prior to completing the G360 Reactions and Feedback Survey. While the fact that several students were one to three years detached from the feedback they received from the G360 Team Survey could demonstrate the full extent to which the feedback affected them emotionally and developmentally in the long-term, it also could hinder the accuracy of the data collected for their responses could have been different if they had taken our G360 Reactions and Feedback Survey at a closer date. Overall, this pilot study succeeded at delving into preliminary data regarding millennial's reactions to leadership and team feedback, but should be expanded to be given a broader understanding of the phenomena at large.

Discussion

The relationship between feedback and leadership development is increasingly relevant as the corporate world constantly shifts and grows in complexity. With the expansion of millennials in the workforce, it is imperative to investigate this upcoming generations' attitudes and behaviors in regards to how they approach leadership and team-oriented tasks. In terms of how millennials perceive and act upon feedback, this pilot study fills the gap between the current literature and the need for leadership development research by disproving the various negative stereotypes currently facing millennials in the workplace. Indeed, millennials are more open to receiving feedback than previously believed. They look to constructive peer feedback to shed light on the blind spots in their leadership practices and abilities, and perceive it as a helpful tool for further growth and improvement in both personal and professional domains.

Feedback instruments like the G360 Team Survey have the potential to help millennials develop critical leadership skills, especially in regards to team-oriented tasks that act as catalysts for future growth. This pilot study demonstrates that not only do millennials receive this feedback in a mature manner, but they also seek it. Millennials' increased desire to receive honest feedback regarding their individual performance could be explained by their generations' increased use of technology and social media to seek affirmation daily. Technology has changed the way in which millennials think and approach problems. Therefore, online peer assessment programs like the G360 Team Survey allow for millennials to familiarize themselves with feedback and critique in a comforting manner.

Upon receiving personalized feedback reports from their peers, millennials designated self-awareness and increased consciousness as two of the most important outcomes from the entire process. The fact that peer feedback instruments allow millennials to evaluate their own abilities and strengths in relation to the perception of others during this tumultuous time in their life is paramount, for it gives them the chance to improve at a pivotal point in their development. Reflecting and acting upon feedback at this point in undergraduates' careers is essential. Between the ages of 18-22, students actively attempt to form their own identities by figuring out who they are and where they belong in the greater context of the world. To introduce a 360-feedback approach at this point is crucial, for it allows undergraduates to identify and correct

problematic behaviors and additionally capitalize on desired traits. Receiving uncensored feedback for the first time can be tough for some individuals, but overall, millennials responded positively to critique in the pilot study for they saw the benefits of the process outweighing the negatives in the long-run. This is important, for the more information we can gather regarding millennials' reactions to feedback, the better we can design feedback instruments to target the behaviors of the desired population. By training the upcoming generations in the best manner possible, we are equipping the executives of tomorrow with the skills and confidence they need to succeed in the corporate realm today.

Given the positive correlation between peer feedback and leadership development, it would be to everyone's benefit to explore the impact that feedback instruments can have on millennial's overall growth. By delving into their attitudes behind their actions, we are better able to understand how to equip this generation for the problems of the future. The frequent implementation of feedback instruments like the G360 Team Survey could improve the incoming workforce in a revolutionary manner. However, the current literature on the subject fails to unpack the specific reactions millennials have in response to peer feedback on a wider scale. With increased longitudinal research regarding the direct and long-term effects of peer feedback on millennial undergraduates and professionals, educational institutions and corporations alike would better understand how to communicate with their workforce in a truly impactful manner. The presence of undesirable leadership behaviors could be significantly decreased in the workforce with more information about the relationship between millennials and feedback intervention programs. Developmental progress originates from awareness, and with a call for increased research in these subject areas, everyone would be better served through a consciously advanced workforce.

Conclusion

Peer feedback functions as a crucial catalyst for leadership development. In summary, while this pilot study exhibits several limitations, overall it shows great promise in working with millennials despite the current popular opinion that they are not open and willing to receive feedback. Based on the data collected from a moderate sample population of millennial undergraduate students, this is not the case. Millennial students are not only open to peer feedback, but they are in fact actively seeking more. With the onslaught of social media and technology, millennials are so accustomed to receiving instantaneous feedback at the touch of a button. As they enter universities and the workforce, they have demonstrated a desire for increased feedback from peers to use for their own personal growth and development. By utilizing feedback instruments like the G360 Team Survey, students are given ample opportunities to investigate their blind spots and hone in on their respective strengths and weaknesses. Applying feedback intervention programs to both the workforce and the classroom will lead to improved efficiency, production, and success of companies and individuals alike. Instead of approaching millennials with biased apprehension, leaders should harness the power of feedback to mold and shape the upcoming generations for the benefit of all

References

Alsop, R. (2008). *The trophy kids group up: How the Millennial generation is shaping up the workplace.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Baker, A., Perreault, D., Reid, A., & Blanchard, C.M. (2013). Feedback and Organizations: Feedback is Good, Feedback-Friendly Culture is Better. *Canadian Psychology, 54* (4),   pp. 260-268.

Brutus, S., Donia, M. (2010). Improving the Effectiveness of Students in Groups with a Centralized Peer Evaluation System. *Academy of Management Learning & Education, 9* (4), pp. 652-662.

Carruthers, F. (2003). "Nothing but the Truth." *Australian Financial Review, 78.*

Chesaro, T.L., Brodersen, R.M., Yanoski, D.C., Welp, L.C., Reale, M.L. (2015). *Examining Evaluator Feedback Survey* (REL 2016–100). Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education, Institute of Education Sciences, National Center for Education Evaluation and Regional Assistance, Regional Educational Laboratory Central. Retrieved from http://ies.ed.gov/ncee/edlabs.

Conger, J., Toegel, G. (2010). Action learning and multi-rater feedback as leadership development interventions: Popular but poorly deployed. Journal of Change Management.doi: 10.1080/71423841. http://www.tandfonline.com/doi/citedby/10.1080/714023841?scroll=top&needAccess=true

Dai, G., De Meuse, K. P., & Peterson, C. (2010). Impact of multi-source feedback on leadership competency development: A longitudinal field study. *Journal of Managerial Issues, 22*(2), 197-219. Retrieved from http://login.proxy.library.vanderbilt.edu/login?url=http://search.proquest.com/docview/87154203 7?accountid=14816

Dalakoura, A. (2010). Differentiating leader and leadership development. *The Journal of Management Development, 29*(5), 432-441. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/02621711011039204.

Day, D.V. (2001), "Leadership development: a review in context", Leadership Quarterly, Vol. 11, pp. 581-613.

DiLullo, C., McGee, P., Kriebel, R.M. (2011), Demystifying the Millennial student: A reassessment in measures of character and engagement in professional education. *Anatomical Sciences Education, 4* (4), pp. 214-226. doi:10.1002/ase.240

Dominick, P.G., Reilly, R.R., McGourty, J.W. (1997). "The Effects of Peer Feedback on Team Member Behavior," Vol. 22, pp. 508-520.

Frey, T.K. & Tatum, N.T. (2016). Hoverboards and "hovermoms": helicopter partents and their influence on millennial students' rapport with instructors. *Communication Education, 65* (3), pp. 359-360.

Fry, R. (2015). *Millennials surpass Gen Xers as the largest generation in U.S. labor force.* Pew Research Center.

Green, B. (2002). Listening to leaders: Feedback on 360-degree feedback one year later. *Organization Development Journal, 20*(1), 8-16. Retrieved from http://login.proxy.library.vanderbilt.edu/login?url=http://search.proquest.com/docview/619757693?accountid=14816

Gursoy, D., Maier, T. A., & Chi, C. G. (2008). Generational differences: An examination of work values and generational gaps in the hospitality workforce. International Journal of Hospitality Management, 27, 458–488.

Harris, L. S., & Kuhnert, K. W. (2008). Looking through the lens of leadership: A constructive developmental approach. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal, 29*(1), 47-67. Retrieved from http://login.proxy.library.vanderbilt.edu/login?url=http://search.proquest.com/docview/621667468?accountid=14816

Hershatter, A. & Epstein, M. (2010). Millennials and the World of Work: An organization and management perspective. *Journal of Business and Psychology, 25* (2), pp. 211-223.

Heckman, J.J., Kautz, T. (2012). Hard evidence on soft skills. *Labour Economics*, *19* (4), pp. 451-464.

Howe, N., & Strauss, W. (2003). *Millennials go to college: Strategies for a new generation on campus: Recruiting and admissions, campus life, and the classroom.* Washington, DC: AACRAO.

Howe, N., & Strauss, W. (2000). *Millennials rising.* New York: Vintage Books.

Roper, K.O. & Phillips, D.R. (2007). Integrating self-managed work teams into project management. *Journal of Facilities Management, 5 (*1), pp. 22-36.

Jorgenson, J. (1992). Communications, rapport, and the interview: A social perspective. *Communication Theory, 2,* pp. 148-156.

London, M., Smither, J.W. (2002). Feedback orientation, feedback culture, and the longitudinal performance management process. *Human Resource Management Review, 12* (1), pp. 81-100. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S1053-4822(01)00043-2.

Marques, J. (2013). Understanding the strength of gentleness: Soft-skilled leadership on the rise. *Journal of Business Ethics, 116* (1), pp. 163-171.

Mulder, R. H., & Ellinger, A. D. (2013). Perceptions of quality of feedback in organizations. Characteristics, determinants, outcomes of feedback, and possibilities for improvement: Introduction to a special issue. European
Journal of Training and Development, 37, 4–23. doi:10.1108/03090591311293266.

Myers, K.K., & Sadaghiani, K. (2003). Millennials in the Workplace: A Communication Perspective on Millennial's Organizational Relationships and Performance. *Journal of Business and Psychology, 25* (2), pp. 225-238.

Ng, E. S. W., Schweitzer, L., Lyons, S.T. (2010). New Generation, Great Expectations: A Field Study. *Journal of Business and Psychology, 25*, pp. 281-292.

PriceWaterhouseCoopers. (2008). Millennials at work: Perspectives from a new generation. Retrieved July 17, 2009 from
http://www.pwc.com/gx/en/forms/gxengallsmillennialsatworkperspectivesfromanewgeneration.j html.

Rijt, J., Weil, M.J., Bossche, P.V., Segers, M.R., Gijselaers, W.H. (2012). Contextual Antecedents of Informal Feedback in the Workplace. *Human Resource Development Quarterly, 23* (2), pp. 233-257.

Riviera, L.A. (2014). Review of Generations, Discourse, and Social Change. *American Journal of Sociology, 119* (4), pp. 1198-1200.

Ross, S. (2014). A conceptual model for understanding the process of self-leadership development and action-steps to promote personal leadership development. *Journal of Management Development, 33* (4), pp. 299-323.

Small, G., & Vorgan, G. (2008). iBrain: Surviving the technological alteration of the modern mind. New York: Harper Collins.

Tapscott, D. (2009). Grown up digital. New York: McGraw Hill.

Thach, E. C. (2002). The impact of executive coaching and 360 feedback on leadership effectiveness. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal, 23*(4), 205-214. Retrieved from http://login.proxy.library.vanderbilt.edu/login?url=http://search.proquest.com/docview/74296906 6?accountid=14816

Topping, K. (1998). Peer Assessment between Students in Colleges and Universities. *Review of Educational Research, 68* (3), pp. 249-276.

Twenge, J.M. (2009). Generational changes and their impact in the classroom: Teaching Generation Me. *Medical Education, 43,* pp. 398-405.

Whelan, E., Collings, D.G., Donnellan, B. (2010). Managing talent in knowledge-intensive settings. *Journal of Knowledge Management, 14* (3), pp. 486-504.

Do Formal Leadership Programs Really Prepare Students to Become "Ready, Willing, and Able" Leaders? A Multi-campus Study

David M. Rosch
University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign

Abstract

This study examined the differences between students who reported consistent past participation in formal leadership development programs (n=414) and a comparison sample of students (n=450) with no prior experience in such programs across three diverse post-secondary institutions. We analyzed scale means and dispersion statistics to determine the degree to which program participation was associated with elevated levels of leader self-efficacy, motivation to lead, and leadership skill. We also utilized confirmatory factor analytic techniques to examine students' cognitive models of their capacity to lead within the "Ready, Willing, and Able" leadership outcome framework. Results suggest that while students who report past participation also report moderately elevated capacities compared to those with no training, like their peers they also possess a poorly suited cognitive model that differentiates between transformational and transactional leadership behaviors. They also fail to distinguish between their leader self-efficacy, motivation to lead, and leadership skill.

Introduction

A clear need exists in contemporary society to produce leaders with a higher degree of capacity than currently exists (Komives & Wagner, 2009). Today's employers of university graduates list leadership and problem-solving skills as consistently necessary capacities for students to develop, while also stating that these skills are most often lacking in job seekers (Banerji, 2007; National Association of Colleges and Employers, 2013). By several measures, confidence in the leadership capacity of our corporate, political, and community leaders has never been lower (Rosenthal, 2012). In part as a response to these challenges, colleges and universities have significantly increased the number and depth of their leadership-related programs and course offerings (Dugan & Komives, 2007; Owen, 2012). The International Leadership Association, for example, currently lists over 2,000 formal programmatic offerings in the form of leadership majors, minors, certification programs, and discipline-specific initiatives (e.g. leadership development programs for women engineers) (International Leadership Association, 2015). However, such increases has not necessarily resulted in consistent development in students across programs or institutions (Dugan, 2011; Dugan et al., 2011).

Despite the number of program offerings, a national survey of formal leadership programs revealed that most of them were labeled as "new" or "building capacity" (Owen, 2012). In addition, several programs reported utilizing foundational curriculum that many leadership theorists would say are only peripherally related to the study and practice of effective leadership, such as personality assessments or Covey's Seven Habits of Highly Effective People (Covey, 2004). The overall study results led the coordinating author to conclude that leadership development programming in post-secondary education, "faces [an] awkward adolescent phase" (p. 20) where the structure and curriculum of initiatives should shift to match a growing body of

research suggesting good practice. In response to these challenges, this study examines the differences between a multi-campus sample of students who reported consistent prior participation in formal post-secondary leadership development programs and a comparison sample who reported no such prior participation. More specifically, we were interested not only in comparing scores on quantitative measures of leadership capacity, but in also examining the cognitive models of students who report a significant degree of prior experience compared to their peers who reported no prior experience.

A Conceptual Impact Model of Leadership Education

A lack of clarity currently exists regarding both the conceptualizations of leadership that are most commonly espoused in postsecondary education and the outcome models leadership educators utilize in assessing the impact of their efforts. Within this study, we used the "Ready, Willing, and Able" model of leadership education (Keating, Rosch, & Burgoon, 2014) to inform our efforts. Within the model, the authors advocate that after participating in developmental initiatives, students should report being poised to act as a leader ("Ready") based on a strong sense of self-efficacy; feel a sense of motivation to engage in the behaviors of leading their peers ("Willing") when circumstances call for action; and report demonstrated successful actions based on possessing the skills necessary for leadership ("Able"). The organization of these three attributes into an integrated whole representing a successfully trained person was first implemented in the United States military in preparing officers for World War I, and has been used in numerous training programs since (Ammer, 2001), while the phrase "Ready, Willing, and Able" has grown into a cultural idiom meaning "well-prepared and eager to do something" (Ammer, 1997, p. 535). Each attribute, while related to the other two, is also distinct from them, and necessary to the effective enactment of leadership behaviors. For example, without motivation to lead, potentially high-capacity leaders might choose to remain in the background to avoid the difficult work of leading in complex environments. Without leader self-efficacy, a motivated and skilled leader may not possess the confidence to consistently step forward. Without skill, the actions of motivated and confident leaders may fail.

Leader Self-Efficacy ("Ready"). Leader self-efficacy (LSE) refers to the degree to which potential leaders feel that their leader-oriented behaviors they would choose to engage in are likely to be successful. It describes the extent to which potential leaders are confident that they would be successful serving as a leader (Hoyt, 2005; Murphy & Johnson, 2011). In essence, people who possess an elevated LSE are more likely to engage in the behaviors of leadership than those who possess a depressed LSE. Leader self-efficacy has been correlated with the success rate of leaders in a variety of professional settings (Avolio, Reichard, Hannah, Walumbwa, & Chan, 2009; Hannah, Avolio, Luthans, & Harms, 2008; Machida & Schaubroeck, 2011) and has been shown more recently in studies in postsecondary institutions (Dugan, Garland, Jacoby, & Gasiorski, 2008).

Motivation to Lead ("Willing"). Motivation to lead (MTL) is a psychological construct that refers to the degree of "psychological press" (Chan & Drasgow, 2001) a person feels to act in ways generally defined as leadership behaviors. One's degree of motivation to lead can develop from any of three general areas of motivation: 1) "Affective-identity" MTL is defined as the possession of a strong image of oneself as a leader, and therefore motivates one to lead based on

this self-image; 2) A "non-calculative" MTL, where one's decision to lead is based on avoiding a self-centered calculation for how engaging in leadership behaviors will only benefit oneself individually; and 3) A "social-normative MTL" that grows from possessing a sense of responsibility to one's group and the members within it who look to that individual to lead (Chan & Drasgow, 2001). Motivation to lead has been shown as a factor in leader success in professional organizations (Amit & Bar-Lev, 2013; Derue & Ashford, 2010) and more recently in collegiate settings (Rosch, Collier, & Thompson, 2015).

Leadership Skill ("Able"). Within our conceptual model, leadership skill encompasses the two paradigms of leadership described within Transformational Leadership Theory (Bass, 1998), arguably the most popular described in the most popular current conceptualization of leadership (Dinh et al., 2014). Within the "transformational" paradigm, leader effectiveness stems from skill in developing positive and transformational relationships with followers, acting in ethical ways that serve the group and larger community, and enacting behaviors which result in achievement of group goals (Bass, 1998). "Transactional" leadership, by contrast, is focused more on the transactions involved between leaders and followers in achieving goals, such as motivating followers to action by rewarding productive behavior (Bass, 1998). While the transformational leadership paradigm is sometimes taught as more valuable in a leadership education context, both possess aspects of successful leadership in contemporary organizations (Keating et al., 2014).

Measuring Leadership Development

Leadership educators possess a myriad of methods in which to assess the development of students as emerging leaders. Perhaps the most utilized technique in the field, based on the frequency of published research in education journals, is a two-stage repeated-measures analysis, where students complete a pre-test prior to program participation and a post-test at the program's conclusion, where changes in responses are analyzed. Such a design has long been recognized for its potentially significant validity weaknesses such a response-shift bias (Howard, et al, 1979), especially within short-term leadership programs (Rosch & Schwartz, 2009). A retrospective design, where students complete a retrospective pre-test "looking back" at the end of their participation while simultaneously completing a post-test within the same survey instrument was designed to help alleviate these issues. However, retrospective designs created problems that weaken its validity in other ways, such as flawed memories of prior states (Baddeley, 1979). While both have strengths and weaknesses, however, neither allow students the ability to apply their learning within their own contexts after and outside their educational experience, which would allow them to make a more accurate assessment of their growth. However, while longitudinal studies can address these issues, this methodology is expensive and can suffer from significant participant mortality (Parker & Pascarella, 2013).

Cross-sectional multi-campus studies, where large groups of students are included in one-time measurement efforts, have the benefit of offering breadth in the number and diversity of students who can be included, especially if samples are collected through intelligent randomized sampling (Pearson, 2010). Within leadership impact studies in post-secondary education, a typical implementation is to compare the attributes of one subsample of students to another and draw conclusions about the correlation of these attributes to their different experiences (Dugan, 2011).

However, many studies that implement cross-sectional analysis, including influential studies that example differences in students who participate in leadership programs (e.g. Cress, Astin, Zimmerman-Oster, & Burkhardt, 2001; Dugan et al., 2011) solely compare scale mean differences using multivariate regression techniques to draw conclusions regarding the outcomes of participation.

A more powerful technique that can and should be brought to bear in these types of analyses is confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), which is commonly used as a statistical tool for analyzing the observed structure of data and its relationship to their underlying latent constructs (Kline, 2011). Using CFA, researchers that are interested in complex cognitive phenomena possess the ability to analyze "goodness of fit" statistics that serve as mental representations of underlying latent cognitive and behavioral concepts (Blunch, 2013). Within this context, participants whose responses "fit" better across their grouped responses to items on scales measuring disparate aspects of potential to engage in effective leadership behaviors can better distinguish between these separate concepts. Therefore, students with better "goodness of fit" statistics presumably possess an elevated sense of readiness to engage in those behaviors compared to those whose responses are not as patterned. If students' responses on valid measures of leadership show that they are able to distinguish between separate aspects of potential capacity in leading (e.g. being confident in leading, or possessing motivation to lead), they are likely more consciously able to bring these various aspects of leadership potential to bear on their behavior. An impact study that examines the degree to which students who participate in formal leadership development initiatives leave ready to enact leadership behaviors in their own individual contexts seems particularly well-suited for the use of CFA as an analytic technique (Rosch & Caza, 2012).

Effects of Leadership Training on Student Development

Given the problematic issues in comprehensively measuring the leadership development of students, research on the effects of participating in formal programs designed for leadership growth is, at best, mixed. A recent meta-analytic study designed to uncover trends in development over 100 years of formal programs in professional organization revealed some positive trends with a high degree of variance from program to program (Avolio et al., 2009), likely owing, in part, to the tremendous degree of differences across the types of participants within them (Hannah & Avolio, 2010). When students are allowed to self-identify as participating in vaguely defined "leadership development programs," their scores in measures of leadership effectiveness are generally higher than for comparison groups who report lower amounts of participation (Cress et al., 2001; Dugan & Komives, 2010; Kezar & Moriarty, 2000). However, more nuanced research shows a different story. The most recent national study to examine the effects of formal program participation on student development, the Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership, suggested a small but statistically significant positive effect across programs. Like professional training programs, however, a large variation in outcomes emerged across campuses and programs. A more recent longitudinal study within one campus showed a slight *decrease* in leadership capacity over the course of a semester when measured with multiple data points and utilizing advanced statistical techniques like multi-level modeling (Day & Shin, 2011). The author suggested these disappointing results stemmed from when students would attempt to practice newly-learned behavior in challenging settings (Day & Sin, 2011).

These troubling findings place pressure on the field of leadership education research to construct elegant and well-designed multi-campus studies aimed at determining the degree to which students grow in their leadership development after participating in formal educational programs. This study was intended to accomplish these goals, especially in how leadership development can be measured within cross-sectional, multi-campus datasets.

Research Questions

Using a random sample of students collected from three post-secondary institutions intentionally chosen for their representativeness within the field of higher education in the United States, we sought to address the following questions:

1. Compared to their peers who report no experience in formal collegiate leadership experiences, do students who report a significant degree of prior experience also report higher degrees of leadership skill, motivation to lead, and leader self-efficacy?
2. To what extent do students who report a significant degree of prior experience also possess a more coherent mental model related to the capacity to lead within the "Ready, Willing, and Able" leadership model?

Methods

Population and Sample

The overall sample of students (n=1226) was drawn from three diverse post-secondary institutions in the United States: a highly selective public research extensive university in the Midwest; an open-access public university in the West; and an open-access community college in the Midwest. These institutions were chosen due to their demographic similarity to many colleges and universities in the United States. At each institution, a simple, random sample of 2,000 potential participants was drawn from within the population of matriculated undergraduate and graduate students. Of those who responded to the invitation, we only included participants who had completed at least 90% of the overall survey instrument within this study.

The overall sample was then divided into two groups – students with a significant degree of prior experience in formal leadership programs and those within no formal experience. Within the survey that students received, one item was, "To what degree have you participated in formal leadership development programs, such as leadership courses, retreats, etc.?" The response options were "Never," Once," "Sometimes," Often," and "Consistently." Students who responded "Sometimes," Often," or "Consistently" were placed in the criterion group consisting of a high degree of prior experience, while students who responded "Never" were situated as their comparison. Students who responded "Once" were removed from this analysis to ensure that the two groups were different enough for a valid comparison study.

Of the students who reported significant experience (n=414), approximately 57% (n=234) identified as female, while approximately 70% (n=290) identified as White, 14% as Asian-American, 4% as Latino/a, 2% as African-American; while 10% did not report their ethnicity. Approximately 10% identified as a freshman, 17% as a sophomore, 28% as a junior, and 29% as

a senior, and 16% as a graduate student. The students who reported no prior experience (n=450) included a higher degree of males and were not quite as advanced in their academic career, but otherwise were highly similar. Table 1 displays the demographic differences between the two sub-samples.

Table 1. *Demographic frequencies between criterion and comparison sub-samples.*

	Significant Prior Experience		No Prior Experience	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Gender				
Male	177	43	230	51
Female	234	57	218	49
Racial Identity				
White	290	70	307	69
Asian-American	58	14	76	17
Latino/a	15	4	16	3
African-American	8	2	8	2
Did not report	43	10	43	10
Class Year				
Freshman	43	10	96	21
Sophomore	72	17	133	29
Junior	117	28	103	23
Senior	118	28	63	14
Graduate Student	64	16	55	12

Instrumentation

In addition to survey items asking participants to report their gender, racial identity, and class year, we employed three popular scales designed to measure five different attributes related to creating "Ready, Willing, and Able" leaders. Each of the survey items included a Likert five-point scale ranging from "Strongly Disagree" to "Strongly Agree."

Leader Self-Efficacy ("Ready"). We employed the Self-Efficacy for Leadership (SEL) scale, an 8-item instrument designed to measure the degree of confidence participants self-report in enacting leadership behaviors in a team context (Murphy & Fiedler, 1992). A sample item from within the scale is, "I know what it takes to make a group accomplish its task." The SEL has long been applied in professional contexts (e.g. Hoyt, 2005; Murphy, 2002). Prior studies that focus on its historic internal reliability report a high mean Cronbach's alpha of .86 (Murphy & Ensher, 1999), while the overall alpha within this study was also high, measured at .82.

Motivation to Lead ("Willing"). To measure a participant's reported willingness to engage in leadership behaviors, we utilized the multi-faced Motivation to Lead (MTL) scale, a 27-item instrument which includes three foundations for leadership motivations equally divided across three sub-scales (Chan & Drasgow, 2001). The first, "Affective-Identity" (MTL_AI) motivation, describes the press to lead as the result of one's self-image as a leader of one's peers. A sample item within this subscale is, "I usually want to be the leader in the groups that I work in." The second foundation for leadership motivation, titled "Non-calculative" (MTL_NC) motivation, comes from the *absence* of a pragmatic cost-benefit analysis of engaging in the responsibilities of leadership, where the decision to lead is presumably made for deeper reasons than how leading will benefit oneself. A sample item within this subscale is, "I am only interested to lead a group if there are clear advantages for me." The last foundation for motivation to lead is "Social-normative" (MTL_SN) motivation, where energy to engage in leadership behaviors stems from the sense of responsibility one feels from one's group of peers, and the perceptions that one's peers have confidence in the person. A sample item within this subscale is, "I feel that I have a duty to lead others if I am asked." The MTL has been in use mostly in professional contexts (e.g. Amit & Bar-Lev, 2013; Waldman, Galvin, & Walumbwa, 2013) but has recently begun to see use in post-secondary institutions (Rosch et al., 2015). Cronbach's alpha results have historically been acceptable, ranging from .65 to .91. Within this study, they ranged from .74 (Social-normative) to .85 (Affective-identity).

Leadership Skill ("Able"). We measured leadership skill with the Leader Behavior Scale (LBS), a 28-item instrument long in use and focused on assessing participant capacity to lead using transformational ("FORM") leadership behaviors and transactional ("ACT") leadership behaviors (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990). The LBS has been a popular summary measure of leadership skill for over 20 years (Yukl, 2010), and has consistently demonstrated Cronbach alpha scores ranging from .71 to .89 (Yukl, 2010). Within this study, the alpha score for transformational leadership was .90, while the same score for transactional leadership was .77.

Data Collection

All data was collected and organized during the 2014-2015 academic year. Each of the three institutions provided a simple random sample of 2,000 potential participants, who were contacted by email and invited to complete an online survey that contained the items listed above. Using Qualtrics online tools, each participants' survey items were randomized so that scales were not clustered, therefore introducing potentially unnecessary correlation across sub-scale items. Survey incentives, such as $50 gift cards to Walmart, were employed as a result of a generous grant from the C Charles Jackson Foundation. Potential participants who were non-responsive after the initial invite were re-invited to complete the survey through receipt of up to two reminder email contacts.

Data Analysis

To determine the degree to which students who report significant prior leadership training report elevated levels of leadership capacity, we calculated means and dispersion statistics for all scales and sub-scales for both the criterion and comparison groups. We then calculated unpaired

independent samples t-tests for each of the six sub-scales (leader self-efficacy, each of the three motivation to lead sub-scales, and the two leadership skill sub-scales) to determine if differences between the two groups exists within each leadership capacity attribute. If differences emerged, we also calculated post-hoc Cohen's d effect sizes (Cohen, 1987).

To determine the degree to which students' mental models of effective leadership differed between the two groups, we conducted two confirmatory factor analyses (CFA) using maximum likelihood estimation, one for each group. Each CFA included six factors: the leader self-efficacy scale, the three motivation to lead sub-scales, and the two leadership skill sub-scales, each entered separately. Conducting a CFA requires no missing data exist (Blunch, 2013). As we had already held any survey responder who had not already completed 90% or more of the survey out of our analysis, we replaced remaining missing values with each participants' subscale mean calculated without the missing value. We then placed the six sub-scales within a constrained six-factor CFA and examined the goodness-of-fit statistics resulting from the analyses, to ascertain if students with prior significant leadership program experience possessed stronger mental models of effective leadership capacity.

Results

We first calculated the mean and standard deviations of each sub-scale within the two groups and calculated an independent samples t-test for each sub-scale. These results are displayed in Table 2. Within each subscale, participants who had reported significant prior experience in formal leadership programs also reported elevated levels of leader self-efficacy, each type of motivation to lead, and both types of leadership skill, with mostly moderate degrees of difference emerging between the two groups.

Table 2. *Scale scores and t-test results.*

	Significant Experience μ (SD)	No Experience μ (SD)	t	p	d
SEL	4.01 (0.53)	3.74 (0.60)	6.99	<0.0001	.48
MTL_AI	3.60 (0.63)	3.26 (0.70)	7.48	<0.0001	.51
MTL_NC	3.72 (0.60)	3.54 (0.62)	4.33	<0.0001	.30
MTL_SN	3.71 (0.48)	3.58 (0.52)	3.81	<0.0001	.26
FORM	3.98 (.044)	3.80 (0.47)	5.80	<0.0001	.40
ACT	4.19 (0.53)	4.05 (0.59)	3.66	0.0003	.25

We then sought to examine participants' mental models of effective leadership capacity by comparing the results of two six-factor CFA analyses where each survey subscale comprised a factor. The model resulting from the analysis of the sample of students with no prior leadership experience did not achieve a statistically appropriate representation of the expected shape of the data (χ^2_{1875}=6277.68, CMIN/DF=3.35, CFI=.66, PCFI=.64, RMSEA=.07), all of which fall below recommended levels (Hu & Bentler, 1999). An identical CFA analysis conducted on data collected from participants who reported a significant degree of prior experience in formal leadership training yielded relatively similar results. The model produced a slightly better goodness of fit, but similarly did not yield statistically appropriate representation of the expected

shape of the data (χ^2_{1875}=5375.33, CMIN/DF=2.87, CFI=.69, PCFI=.66, RMSEA=.07). In particular, PCFI, which serves as a measure of the parsimony of a model, was low and almost identical across the two sub-samples, suggesting that for both groups, participants were unable to identify intra-individual differences across their degrees of leader self-efficacy, motivation to lead, and leadership skill.

Discussion

This study was designed to examine the degree to which students who participate in formal programs of leadership development in postsecondary education report elevated levels of leader self-efficacy, motivation to lead, and leadership skill, and if those students display a more coherent mental model related to the capacity to lead within the "Ready, Willing, and Able" leadership model. The results of a series of independent samples t-tests comparing scores between the two groups show that students who participate in formal programs also report higher scores on measures in all three areas, and that the differences between the groups are, as a whole, moderate with respect to Cohen's d effect size. These findings are aligned with most prior research (e.g. Cress et al., 2001; Dugan & Komives, 2010) that reveals similar results. We included the additional step of conducing a six-factor confirmatory factor analysis of scores across all three areas of leader self-efficacy, motivation to lead, and leadership skill. Our results suggested that, even though scores were higher reported from students who participated in formal programs, these students possessed a mental model of leadership potential that was little different than students with no formal prior experience in leadership development. The CFA results suggest that both groups are students were unable to distinguish between transformational and transactional leadership behaviors, nor were both groups able to distinguish more broadly between leader self-efficacy, motivation to lead, and leadership skill. These results may serve, in part, to explain the variance found across leadership education impact studies (Dugan et al., 2011) and highlight the need to more deeply examine the mental structures of students as they undergo leadership development (Derue & Ashford, 2010; Rosch & Caza, 2012).

Implications

These results present troubling data for leadership educators. The leader self-efficacy, motivation to lead, and leadership skill scores of students should presumably all be inter-correlated. However, students who have taken the time and effort to participate in formal programs designed to help them build the capacity to engage in leadership behaviors should be able to distinguish between these three separate concepts. The results of this study imply that, even for students who have significant experience in formal programs, their confidence, motivation, and skill represent undifferentiated concepts to them. Said another way, these results suggest that, for example, only students confident in themselves as leaders also possess motivation to lead; only students motivated to lead possess leadership skill; and only students with leadership skill also possess confidence and motivation in engaging in leadership behaviors. While this, on its face, seems logical, not being able to distinguish between these concepts implies that students may not be able to "operate" on these various aspects of leadership potential on a conscious basis.

In his book "In Over Our Heads," Kegan (1994) describes a concept key to development where aspects of one's life shift from "subject" (i.e. where individuals are unable to consciously react to them) to "object" (where individuals can see aspects of their lives with objectivity and consciously choose what to do about them.) In this context, individuals who hold more of their lives as "object" are better able to make conscious decisions about how to think about and behave within their environment. While participation in leadership programs may be correlated with increased scores, these results imply that such participation may not also provide them with an increased consciousness of personal aspects necessary to lead, taking one's leadership potential from subject to object. If this is the case, given the lack of experimental data associated with leadership education impact research, it is possible that decades of research focused on the impact of formal leadership initiatives on students may only be revealing that students who already consider themselves leaders participate in leadership development programs. It is possible that the bulk of formal leadership programs may not have much practical impact on durable student leadership development.

Suggestions for the Future

For educators. While the results of this study are concerning, they also indicate some potential for improving the curriculum of formal leadership programs in postsecondary education. Many leadership educators struggle with creating a balance between teaching "leadership studies" and teaching "leadership development." Spending time focused on helping students learn the differences between a skills approach and a trait approach to leading, or between consciousness of self and commitment skills, for example, may not also help students develop the capacity to lead. Moreover, those programs that explicitly focus on development stress, for logical reasons, building leadership skill within their curriculum (Dugan, 2011). Some have also focused on the development of leader self-efficacy (Hannah & Avolio, 2010), but rarely are the two concepts taught as distinct from each other, or how each can be used to reinforce the other. Even rarer are curricula explicitly focused on motivation to lead, where such motivation comes from, and how individuals might further develop in this area.

Research on the development of expertise (Zimmerman, 2006) reveals that people develop through learning to self-regulate their "covert" cognitive processes; in part, recognizing what they do not know or understand and practicing new behaviors until they become natural. Through a process of forethought, action, and post-action critical reflection, they can learn to regulate one's behavior to the point where effective behaviors are enacted without intentional thought. Recent research on pedagogical practices in leadership education programs show that, by far, the most common teaching tool educators bring to their programs is the use of classroom discussion (Jenkins, 2012). This practice, while helpful in eliciting common understanding of concepts, is not particularly well-suited to helping individuals recognize how to create an individual action plan of practice and post-action critical reflection to work on areas of newly discovered ineffectiveness. As a whole, leadership educators could make their programs more effective by focusing their curriculum on the behaviors involved in effectively leading peers and organizational teams, while helping students become more mindful of the interrelated aspects of self-efficacy, motivation, and skill development to the effective practice of leadership.

For researchers. This study was conducted examining the leadership capacity and mental models of leadership involving a randomized sample of students at three diverse postsecondary institutions. More work is needed in two particular areas from researchers to help more fully inform our knowledge of the issues raised within this particular study. First, the population of students who provide voice must be expanded to become even more representative of the broad population of students in higher education. Can these results be corroborated across expanded and diverse populations? Second, while the "Ready, Willing, and Able" impact model of leadership education represents a worthy outcome for developmental programs, few institutions explicitly focus on the model as a stated outcome within their programs. Do programs that focus on, for example, the Social Change Model of Leadership Development (Komives & Wagner, 2009), show similar results using a CFA conducted using an instrument designed to measure capacity within the model, such as the Socially Responsible Leadership Scale (Slack, 2006)? The results of these future studies would serve to better inform leadership educators of the comprehensive impact of their programs.

Conclusions

This study was designed to examine the effects of participating in leadership programs on students beyond using methods designed to simply compare scores of students who participate to those who do not using pre-existing scales of leadership capacity. To do so, we used confirmatory factor analysis across previously validated survey instruments designed to assess leader self-efficacy, motivation to lead, and leadership skill. Our goal using this method was to examine students' mental models of their capacity to engage in leadership behaviors. Our results suggested that students who participate in formal programs report moderately elevated levels of leadership capacity across all three areas compared to students who do not participate. However, students who participate demonstrated no more coherent mental models of the three separate leadership concepts than students who have no experience in formal leadership development programs. These findings may indicate the lack of impact formal leadership programs has on the students who participate within them.

References

Anmer, C. (1997). *The American Dictionary of Idioms.* Boston, MA: Houghton Mifflin.

Ammer, C. (2001). *Clichés: Meanings and origins of more than 3,000 terms and expressions.* New York, NY: Facts on File, Inc.

Amit, K., & Bar-Lev, S. (2013). Motivation to Lead in Multicultural Organizations: The Role of Work Scripts and Political Perceptions. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, *20*(2), 169–184. https://doi.org/10.1177/1548051812467206

Avolio, B. J., Reichard, R. J., Hannah, S. T., Walumbwa, F. O., & Chan, A. (2009). A meta-analytic review of leadership impact research: Experimental and quasi-experimental studies. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *20*(5), 764–784. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2009.06.006

Baddeley, A. (1979). The limitations of human memory: Implications for the design of retrospective surveys. *The recall method in social surveys*, *9*, 13-27.

Banerji, S. (2007). Report: Employers Say College Graduates Lack Essential Skills to Succeed in Today's Global Economy. *Diverse: Issues in Higher Education*, *23*(26), 18. Retrieved from http://search.ebscohost.com/login.aspx?direct=true&db=aph&AN=24134175&site=ehost-live
Bass, B. M. (1998). *Transformational Leadership*. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Blunch, N.J. (2013). *Introduction to structural equation modeling using IBM SPSS and AMOS*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Chan, K.-Y., & Drasgow, F. (2001). Toward a theory of individual differences and leadership: Understanding the motivation to lead. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *86*(3), 481–498.

Cohen, J. (1987). *Statistical power analysis for the behavioral sciences* (2nd ed.). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Covey, S. R. (2004). *The 7 habits of highly effective people.* New York, NY: Simon & Schuster Press.

Cress, C. M., Astin, H., Zimmerman-Oster, K., & Burkhardt, J. C. (2001). Developmental outcomes of college students' involvement in leadership activities. *Journal of College Student Development*, *42*(1), 15–27.

Day, D. V., & Sin, H.-P. (2011). Longitudinal tests of an integrative model of leader development: Charting and understanding developmental trajectories. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *22*(3), 545–560. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2011.04.011

Derue, D., & Ashford, S. (2010). Who will lead and who will follow? A social process of leadership identity construction in organizations. *Academy of Management Review*, *35*(4), 627–647. https://doi.org/10.5465/AMR.2010.53503267

Dinh, J. E., Lord, R. G., Gardner, W. L., Meuser, J. D., Liden, R. C., & Hu, J. (2014). Leadership theory and research in the new millennium: Current theoretical trends and changing perspectives. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *25*(1), 36–62. https://doi.org/http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2013.11.005

Dugan, J. P. (2011). Pervasive myths in leadership development: Unpacking constraints on leadership learning. *Journal of Leadership Studies*, *5*(2), 79–84. https://doi.org/10.1002/jls.20223

Dugan, J. P., Bohle, C. W., Gebhardt, M., Hofert, M., Wilk, E., & Cooney, M. a. (2011). Influences of Leadership Program Participation on Students' Capacities for Socially Responsible Leadership. *Journal of Student Affairs Research and Practice*, *48*(1), 65–84. https://doi.org/10.2202/1949-6605.6206

Dugan, J. P., Garland, J. L., Jacoby, B., & Gasiorski, A. (2008). Understanding commuter student self-efficacy for leadership: A within-group analysis. *NASPA Journal*, *45*(2), 282–310.

Dugan, J. P., & Komives, S. R. (2007). *Developing leadership capacity in college students: Findings from a national study. A report from the Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership.* College Park, MD: National Clearinghouse for Leadership Programs.

Dugan, J. P., & Komives, S. R. (2010). Influences on college students' capacities for socially responsible leadership. *Journal of College Student Development*, *51*(5), 525–549.

Hannah, S. T., & Avolio, B. J. (2010). Ready or not: How do we accelerate the developmental readiness of leaders? *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *31*(8), 1181–1187. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.675

Hannah, S. T., Avolio, B. J., Luthans, F., & Harms, P. D. (2008). Leadership efficacy: Review and future directions. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *19*(6), 669–692. Retrieved from http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S1048984308001276

Howard, G. S., Ralph, K. M., Gulanick, N. A., Maxwell, S. E., Nance, D. W., & Gerber, S. K. (1979). Internal invalidity in pretest-posttest self-report evaluations and a re-evaluation of retrospective pretests. *Applied Psychological Measurement*, *3*(1), 1-23.

Hoyt, C. L. (2005). The role of leadership efficacy and stereotype activation in women's identification with leadership. *Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies*, *11*(4), 2–14.

Hu, L. T., & Bentler, P. M. (1999). Cutoff criteria for fit indexes in covariance structure analysis: Conventional criteria versus new alternatives. *Structural equation modeling: a multidisciplinary journal*, *6*(1), 1-55.

International Leadership Association. (2015). *Leadership Program Directory*. Retrieved from: http://www.ila-net.org/Resources/LPD/index.htm

Jenkins, D. (2012). Exploring signature pedagogies in undergraduate leadership education. *Journal of Leadership Education*, *11*(1), 1-27.

Keating, K., Rosch, D. M., & Burgoon, L. (2014). Developmental readiness for leadership: The differential effects of leadership courses on creating "ready, willing, and able" leaders. *Journal of Leadership Education*, *13*(3), 1–16. https://doi.org/1012806/V13/I3/R1

Kegan, R. (1994). *In over our heads: The mental demands of modern life*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Kezar, A. J., & Moriarty, D. (2000). Expanding our Understanding of Student Leadership Development: A Study Exploring Gender and Ethnic Identity. *Journal of College Student Development*, *41*(1), 55–69.

Kline, R.B. (2011). *Principles and practices of structural equation modeling.* New York, NY: Guilford Press.

Komives, S. R., & Wagner, W. (2009). *Leadership For a Better World: Understanding the Social Change Model of Leadership Development* (1st ed.). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Machida, M., & Schaubroeck, J. (2011). The Role of Self-Efficacy Beliefs in Leader Development. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, *18*(4), 459–468. https://doi.org/10.1177/1548051811404419
Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership. www.leadershipstudy.net.

Murphy, S. E. (2002). Leader self-regulation: The role of self-efficacy and multiple intelligences. Multiple intelligences and leadership. In R. E. Riggio, S. E. Murphy, & F. J. Pirozzolo (Eds.), *Multiple intelligences and leadership, LEA's organization and management series* (pp. 163–186). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Murphy, S. E., & Ensher, E. A. (1999). The Effects of Leader and Subordinate Characteristics in the Development of Leader–Member Exchange Quality1. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, *29*(7), 1371–1394. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1559-1816.1999.tb00144.x

Murphy, S. E., & Fiedler, F. E. (1992). *The contribution of leadership experience and self-efficacy to group performance under evaluation apprehension*. University of Washington, United States -- Washington. Retrieved from http://search.proquest.com/docview/304005264?accountid=14553

Murphy, S. E., & Johnson, S. K. (2011). The benefits of a long-lens approach to leader development: Understanding the seeds of leadership. *Leadership Quarterly*, *22*(3), 459–470. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2011.04.004

National Association of Colleges and Employers. (2013). *Job outlook 2013*. Bethlehem, PA: National Association of Colleges and Employers.

Owen, J. (2012). *Examining the design and delivery of collegiate student leadership development programs: Findings from the Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership (MSL-IS), a national report*. Washington, DC: Council for the Advancement of Standards in Higher Education.

Parker, E. T., & Pascarella, E. T. (2013). Effects of diversity experiences on socially responsible leadership over four years of college. *Journal of Diversity in Higher Education*, *6*(4), 219–230. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0035130

Pearson, R.W. (2010). *Statistical persuasion: How to collect, analyze and present data… accurately, honestly, and persuasively.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Moorman, R. H., & Fetter, R. (1990). Transformational leader behaviors and their effects on followers' trust in leader, satisfaction, and organizational

citizenship behaviors. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *1*(2), 107–142. https://doi.org/10.1016/1048-9843(90)90009-7

Rosch, D. M., & Caza, A. (2012). The Durable Effects of Short-Term Programs on Student Leadership Development. *Journal of Leadership Education*, *11*(1).

Rosch, D. M., Collier, D., & Thompson, S. E. (2015). An exploration of students' motivation to lead: An analysis by race, gender, and student leadership behaviors. *Journal of College Student Development*, *56*(3), 286–291. Retrieved from http://muse.jhu.edu/journals/csd/summary/v056/56.3.rosch.html

Rosch, D. M., & Schwartz, L. M. (2009). Potential Issues and Pitfalls in Outcomes Assessment in Leadership Education. *Journal of Leadership Education*, *8*(1).

Rosenthal, S. A. (2012). *National Leadership Index 2012: A National Study of Confidence in Leadership.* Cambridge, MA: Center for Public Leadership, Harvard Kennedy School.

Slack, C. (2006). Socially responsible leadership scale revised version 2: Using the SRLS-R2 for research and assessment. (C. Slack, Ed.). College Park, MD: National Clearinghouse for Leadership Programs.

Waldman, D. A., Galvin, B. M., & Walumbwa, F. O. (2013). The Development of Motivation to Lead and Leader Role Identity. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, *20*(2), 156–168. https://doi.org/10.1177/1548051812457416

Yukl, G. (2010). *Leadership in organizations* (7th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Zimmerman, B. J. (2006). Development and Adaptation of Expertise: The Role of Self-Regulatory Processes and Beliefs. In K. A. Ericsson, N. Charness, P. J. Feltovich, & R. R. Hoffman (Eds.), *The Cambridge handbook of expertise and expert performance* (pp. 705–722). New York, NY, US: Cambridge University Press.

Experiences And Outcomes of a Women's Leadership Development Program

Krystal Brue
Cameron University

Abstract

Women's leadership training programs provide organizations opportunities to value women leaders as organizational resources. This qualitative research utilized phenomenological methodology to examine lived experiences of seven alumni of a women's-only leadership program. We conducted semi-structured interviews to clarify what learning elements were most beneficial in furthering an individuals' leadership role. Emerging research themes included perceptional and personal agency changes within participants. Women's leadership programs provided an opportunity for cognitive, affective, and behavioral growth; engaging learning activities, social capital development, and relational model methodologies were perceived as most helpful in leadership development. Action learning techniques, fostering interconnectedness, and philosophical leadership development activities were critical elements in leadership development. Insights gained from this study provided perspective on the unique experiences of women in a leadership training program.

Introduction

Leadership development programs provide a vital component for promoting future operational growth (Dragoni, Park, Soltis, & Frote-Trammell, 2014; Hirschfeld & Thomas, 2011; Simmonds & Tsui, 2010; Smith-Doerr et al., 2011). While numerous organizations provide leadership development training to high potentials, traditional leadership development programs have failed to meet the distinctive needs of women (Ely, Ibarra, & Kolb, 2011; Hopkins, O'Neil, Passarelli, & Bilimoria, 2008; Vinnicombe & Singh, 2003). Organizations that want to facilitate the emergence of new competent leaders have considered improving prospective women leaders through women's-only leadership development (WOLD) programs (Dreher, 2003).

Reasons why women are underrepresented in leadership are complex; Ely et al. (2011) theorized that male dominated organizational structures and gender bias business cultures that "equated leadership with behaviors believed to be more common or appropriate in men, powerfully if unwittingly communicate that women are ill-suited for leadership roles" (p. 475). Women were less integrated into dominant organizational coalitions and received less mentoring, reducing their likelihood of being tapped for leadership positions (Boatwright & Egidio, 2003; Ely et al., 2011; Tessens, White, & Web, 2011). Additional researchers (Anderson, Vinnicombe, & Singh, 2008; Debebe, 2011; Hopkins et al., 2008; Vinnicombe & Singh, 2003) contended that women face unique leadership challenges unmet by established leadership programs and endorsed the implementation of WOLD programs, which address specific needs of women.

Literature Review

Many organizations use comprehensive leadership training models, including developing communication, conflict management, team building, decision making, and employee

engagement skills to proactively cultivate new leaders and improve the caliber of incumbent employees (Crumpton-Young, et al., 2010; Kim & Thompson, 2012). With the demands to increase competitiveness, diversify leadership, and advance emergent leaders, organizations are increasingly developing WOLD programs (Ely et al., 2011). WOLD programs promote women by allowing them to experience transformational learning in a supportive environment (Debebe, 2011), learn from a majority position (Ely et al., 2011), maximize their unique learning strategies of collaboration while developing role models, networks, and mentors (Vinnicombe & Singh, 2003), and manage the authenticity and balance of being true to themselves as well as an organizational leader (Anderson et al., 2008).

Numerous researchers (Dragoni et al., 2014; Garman, 2010; Rai & Singh, 2013; Sirianni & Frey, 2001) recommended using best practice instructional strategies when developing leadership programs including: (a) developing leadership competencies through learning experiences and expanded responsibilities, (b) participating in 360-degree feedback, (c) developing role knowledge, and (d) enhancing high potentials' exposure. Researchers also suggested the exposure of potential leaders to exceptional role models and behavioral modeling mentors.

Professional networking tactics were instrumental in developing a leader's potential, advancing careers, and expanding social/human relations values (Fredricks, 2003; Groves, 2007). Simmonds and Tsui (2010) suggested the use of multiple and integrated learning elements, such as networking, leadership workshops, multi-level feedback, and action learning afforded the greatest opportunity for behavioral implementation. Utilization of multiple learning strategies improved performance meritocracy, commitment to the organization's mission, work performance, and innovation management (Simmonds & Tsui, 2010).

While many leadership training programs have successfully built a potential leader pipeline (Groves, 2007) by helping participants identify their personal leadership style (Fine, 2009), critics of leadership preparation programs have suggested that curriculum was often unconnected to real-life skills potential leaders need (Hackmann & McCarthy, 2011). Despite development initiatives, customary leadership strategies can fail if subtle gender biases and a lack of women with leadership identities are present in an organization (Ely et al., 2011).

Outcomes from traditional leadership programs have illuminated the negative consequences that occur when women are encouraged to display perceived traditionally male leadership behaviors (Ely et al., 2011; Mandell & Pherwani, 2003; Pratch & Jacobowitz, 1996). Some leadership program designs are ineffective as they lack sound pedagogical framework unique to women (Ely et al., 2011). Delivering a program comparable to one delivered to men or implementing a learning strategy where women must be trained to assume male dominate leadership behaviors has proven counterproductive and victimized women for their different leadership tactics (Ely & Meyerson, 2000; Gherardi & Poggio, 2001).

Ruderman & Ohlott (2005) noted relational connections, authenticity, self-awareness, and personal agency are particularly essential for WOLD programs. Women who were provided opportunities to develop connectedness with other women, bolster leadership knowledge, as well as facilitate self-esteem were more likely to aspire for leadership opportunities than women who experienced traditional leadership orientations and experienced fears of negative evaluations

(Boatwright & Egidio, 2003). Women cited exclusion from vital networks and the inability to hear other women reflect on their leadership development as a hindrance to their personal leadership growth (Vinnicombe & Singh, 2003).

Essential criteria for transformational leadership learning of women included learning from experienced women leaders, from the shared experiences of other women, and in a safe environment where women can express questions and concerns without fear of evaluation (Debebe, 2011). Additionally Debebe (2011) and Vinnicombe and Singh (2003) suggested that WOLD programs should complement other leadership initiatives and allow women to (a) personally develop and deeply assess their leadership philosophy; (b) build greater effectiveness in their present positions; (c) provide and receive coaching; (d) participate in collaborative and experiential learning; (e) develop knowledge and expertise as a leader; (f) connect with intentional mentors who provide candid and committed support; and (g) internalize confidence needed for leadership success.

Theoretical Framework

Assessing WOLD programs can be viewed through several theoretical frameworks including resource dependence theory (RDT) (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978/2003), social capital theory (Lin, 2001), and social learning/cognitive theory (Bandura, 1989). Drawing from RDT, offering leadership training minimized organizational dependence on external resources, while cultivating valued human capital. RDT allows researchers an interdependence framework to view organizational leadership development noting that organizations and leaders are co-dependent regarding crucial resources (Drees & Heugens, 2013).

Because organizations are idiosyncratic entities with unique leadership assets, social capital resource development affects the operation of the organization and the functioning of individual leaders. Akingbola (2013) described social capital as the usefulness of associations within and outside of the organization. Social capital theory emphasizes the value of social networks, collaboration, and knowledge sharing (Kessels & Poell, 2004). Lin (2001) and Kessels and Poell (2004) emphasized that leaders need social capital resources to perform well and thus organizations should foster social capital development for improved economic growth.

Emphasizing the learning process of becoming a skilled practitioner, social learning theorists view learning as a relational and discursive activity (Bandura, 1989; Jacobs & Coghlan, 2005; Ponton & Rhea, 2006). Bandura (1989) suggested that individuals are motivated by forethought of cognized goals, perceived self-efficacy, personal agency, and self-refection, learning from personal interaction or by observing modeled behavior. Self-efficacy and cognitive motivation played crucial roles in helping an individual achieve desired outcomes (Ponton & Rhea, 2006).

Methods

Empirically examining the delivery of WOLD programs is essential because increasingly, organizations are implementing programs to specifically encourage women to reach their full workplace potential (Ely et al., 2011; Zahidi & Ibarra, 2010). Utilizing a phenomenological method, we investigated the perceived experiences of alumni from the state of Oklahoma Career

Tech Women in Leadership (OCTWL) program to clarify what learning elements were most beneficial in furthering an individual's leadership role and career advancement.

Connecting leadership with phenomenological research is still in its early stages (Cunliffe, 2009; Küpers, 2013). As a phenomenon of interest, participating in WOLD programs have not been a subject of ample empirical examination (Fine, 2009). Preliminary works were found that qualitatively assessed the experiences of individuals participating in WOLD programs including Stead (2014) who phenomenologically analyzed participants' reflections of action learning within a leadership program and Debebe (2011) who utilized a grounded theory methodology to deduce essential elements of transformational learning in WOLD programs. However, additional WOLD studies are needed to penetrate experiential meanings of this complex topic.

Based on the original research question, a phenomenological methodology was chosen to investigate how women assimilated and implemented their WOLD, providing true data about the investigated phenomena (Rendtorff, 2015). Phenomenology is often employed for the study of topics void of extensive research (Creswell, 2012) and the assumed aspects of life (Dahl & Boss, 2005). A deeper and more comprehensive understanding of aspiring women leaders in a WOLD program can be used to improve the quality, delivery, and effectiveness of such programs.

Phenomenology as a methodology in the qualitative tradition attempts to gain knowledge and understanding by accessing individuals' lived experiences (Byrne, 2001) and describes these experiences using rich and authentic language (Moustakas, 1994). Phenomenologists strive to capture and articulate the fundamental nature of a particular human experience through contextually relevant and extensive interviews (Kvale & Brinkman, 2009). A central focus of phenomenological research is the common knowledge and meaning of a group of people who have all experienced a particular phenomenon (Moustakas, 1994).

The general process of phenomenology (Moerer-Urdahl & Creswell, 2004; Moustakas, 1994) includes (a) identifying a phenomenon of interest, (b) setting aside previous experiences and habitual ways of viewing the topic, (c) gathering data from people who have lived that phenomenon, (d) distilling that data into meaningful units, and (e) rendering a distilled essence of the experience for all participants (Creswell, 2012). With the phenomenon of interest chosen, we participated in bracketing (Creswell, 2012) processes to detect and set aside personal knowledge and previous experience with the phenomenon. The lead researcher was a former employee; however, neither researcher has an association with the OCTWL program.

The OCTWL program was established in 2010 to create a leadership learning community for women within their educational system. The goal was to empower women to develop leadership strategies, provide a forum to share leadership insights, and address organizational challenges faced by women (Oklahoma Department of Career and Technology Education, 2014). Sessions focused on leading courageously, communicating effectively, influencing the organization, and thinking strategically. Approximately 20-25 women composed each class, meeting four times over a 10-month period. Three classes of women have completed this program.

Browne-Ferrigno and Muth (2012) highly recommended that leadership programs engage purposively in follow-up research. The examination of WOLD programs using phenomenology

offers several benefits including understanding the essence of the experienced leadership learning as well as the internalization and transformation of WOLD training within the development of women leaders; evaluating WOLD program efficacy and outcomes is problematic and costly for organizations (Sirianni & Frey, 2001).

Purposeful criterion sampling was used to select seven women who completed one of three WOLD programs conducted biennial since 2010; two alumni from class 1 and 3 were represented and three participants represented class 2. Data for this research were verbatim transcripts of seven in-depth telephone interviews conducted between 9 October and 17 November, 2014. Recognizing the limited availability of participants, focused interviews ranged from 30 to 45 minutes, for a total of 295 minutes, and consisted of all volunteer participants answering an invariant set of questions. With 113 total years of educational experience, their range of job experience was 10 years to 22 years (16 years average). Employment positions at the time of interview ranged from educators/counselors to assistant superintendent.

Interview Protocol:
1. In what way has your use of leadership changed since completing the training? How has participation in the program affected your leadership development?
2. How has your experience in the women leadership program enhanced your progression as a leader? What leadership development learning strategy was most beneficial to career progression?
3. When considering the program, what leadership learning elements did you perceive as most useful to your leadership roles?
4. What leadership technique taught was more helpful as a leader?
5. What was the overall value of this training program?
6. (Added) Do you feel women struggle in leadership development? If so, why?

Questions were used to describe specific situations and actions and were determined based on leadership research conducted by Küpers (2013) regarding phenomenological, Fine (2009) regarding narrative survey methodology on women leadership, Groves (2007) regarding WOLD practices, and Dragoni et al. (2014) regarding knowledge and behavioral development. Utilizing Giorgi's (1997) approach to phenomenological research, initial questions obtained descriptions of the experience and follow-up questions were used to elicit meaning and clarification.

Data Collection and Analysis

Initially, 60 program graduates were contacted via email by the OCTWL program's director and invited to participate in the study. Volunteers who responded to the lead researcher with a desire to participate were sent further information about the study's purpose and methods along with informed consent documents and were provided with a preliminary meeting to establish trust and orient participants with the research topic. Upon securing informed consent for participation, focus interviews were scheduled. Insuring participants of anonymity and confidentiality, interviews were conducted by the lead researcher and digitally recorded using pseudonyms. After interviews were conducted, verbatim transcripts were produced and checked for accuracy by both researchers as well as individual participants. These transcripts were then analyzed

utilizing phenomenological methods (Moustakas, 1994). Finally, accuracy and validity of data collection/analysis was improved by a member-checking feedback process (Creswell, 2012).

We independently identified and cataloged significant words, statements, and phrases made by each participant. These were then synthesized to create clusters of meaning. A form of phenomenological reduction (Moustakas, 1994), clustering these significant statements and meaning units (Moerer-Urdahl & Creswell, 2004; Moustakas, 1994) together in a variety of ways produced themes of common experience (Moustakas, 1994). With the inclusion of direct quotes from participants, these clusters of themes were rendered into a detailed description of participants' experience of the phenomenon (Creswell, 2012; Moustakas, 1994).

Rigorous phenomenology does require quality and consistency in methodology (Marshall & Rossman, 2011). While length and quantity of interviews are not mandidated, Giorgi (2009) stated, "what one seeks from a research interview in phenomenological research is a complete description as possible of the experience that a participant has lived though" (p. 122). The 295 minutes of focused interviews provided a rich and saturated description of experiences. Quality assurance structures were utilized to create trustworthy results, including member-checking, contextualization, detailed descriptions, and bracketing (Maxwell, 2005; Moustakas, 1994).

Member-checking activities (Maxwell, 2005; Schwandt, Lincoln, & Guba, 2007) heightened credibility and trustworthiness of findings by allowing the participants to judge the legitimacy of the results. All participants were provided their verbatim interview transcript including questions and responses, a list of meaningful statements, and our initial combined analysis. Feedback from each participant was received and member-checking activities contained no substantive changes. The utilization of thick, detailed descriptions of experience, authentic language, and direct quotes (Berrios & Lucca, 2006; Moustakas, 1994) addressed dependability concerns by allowing participants to define concepts for themselves (Smith, Flowers, & Larkin, 2009) and situating them within the native context (Finlay, 2011). Bracketing processes addressed concerns about confirmability by situating each researcher's unique perspective to the study (Schwandt et al., 2007) and clarifying researcher bias (Creswell, 2012).

Results: Reflection of Key Themes

Our analysis yielded seven major themes and several sub-themes. Significant statements and meaning units were distilled to central topics and discussed below.

Theme 1: External/Positional – Changes in the Experience of Leadership: All participants acknowledged professional outward changes in their work position or perceptional status. Two participants were promoted after the training and all participants ascribed to improved productivity with their current role and increased preparedness for future leadership roles. Extending Fine's (2009) research, participants noted that they wanted leadership roles because they felt they had expertise and improved resources to make a more effective leader.

Participants 3, 4, and 5 reflected on how ill prepared they were within previous leadership roles, while Participant 4, 5, 6, and 7 noted how their current work tasks were viewed more

"strategically" and "insightfully." Participant 5 stated, "I haven't taken on new responsibilities, as much as I have stepped up in the one that I already had" and Participant 4 remarked

> In my past leadership role, I didn't have any leadership training, and I was young… there was a lot of things that I wasn't ready for. Even though I am not in a leadership role right now, if that opportunity ever came about, I feel I would handle the situation and the things so much better.

Theme 2: Internal/Empowerment – Changes in the Personal Agency of Leadership:
Previous research noted the negative effects of a lack of self-confidence common to women leaders (Sturm, Taylor, Atwater, & Braddy, 2013). Several core and follow-up questions addressed how participation in the OCTWL program affected their leadership development, confidence, and self-awareness. All of the participants noted changes with self-efficacy and personal growth. Participant 5 commented "Getting the opportunity to see these other women and what they do really empowered me in stepping up to my potential." In addition, confidence, validation, and advocacy were predominantly mentioned as perceived personal agency changes.

Participants 1, 2, 4, and 5 observed a significant increase in "confidence," with improved skills in dealing with "difficult situations," "hearing and trusting inner strength," and "managing doubts." Participant 6 stated:

> It gave me a new level of confidence, it confirmed things that I had thought, but maybe I needed cemented a little more. I think a stronger confidence in what I do every day in helping and being a mentor was enhanced by the experience.

In addition, training encouraged participants to advocate for themselves by making strategic decisions, asserting themselves, and feeling emboldened to verbalize thoughts while working beyond stereotypical labels. Many participants acknowledged how the training authenticated their leadership desire and helped to conquer their fears.

Theme 3: Equipping Growth in the Areas of Cognition, Affect, and Behavior: Key program outcomes centered on the need for a comprehensive approach to leadership training which addressed leadership thinking, feeling, and acting. Participant 5 acknowledged how the training gave her tools to honestly recognize her strengths and the fortitude to use them; she summed it by saying:

> For me learning to hear my voice, that inner message and transcript that we all have on-going. Sometimes the leader that I knew I would be, was over-ridden with the self-doubts and uncertainties - I felt my message was not as valid as the next person's. I think the tools that they gave me, helped me to listen, look for those opportunities to step into a situation or moment and take charge of it. It was finding a way to hear myself.

Expanding on the personal development behavioral changes found in Boaden's (2006) research, participants overwhelming mentioned the value of self-awareness and self-reflection when identifying their leadership philosophies and gaps. Recognition of cognitive, affective, and behavioral elements were substantially noted in all interviews. Being vision-oriented, improving

communication and listening skills, acting strategically, being holistic in work and non-work roles, becoming purposeful as a problem-solver, conflict manager, and decision maker, as well as managing time and resources effectively were repeatedly mentioned.

Theme 4: Engage Learning Elements: Interviewees were asked to discuss what learning strategies were most meaningful. Based on responses, participants valued applicable and authentic learning elements. While participants noted role-plays, "real life" discussion, and book/article analyses, each of the interviewees felt that hearing the uninhibited idea exchange from senior leaders as well as peer participants were the most valuable. Participant 2 noted "women don't see enough leadership role models." Referring to those experienced speakers as "veterans," "those who have gone before," and "women who broke the mold," interviewees discussed how smart, strong, and un-intimidated these women appeared. Participant 6 stated:

> They truly were trailblazers for women as far as being accepted in the men's club, if you will. We have, not that same opportunity, but we have opportunities every day to be who we are and still make a difference and blaze a trail for those who will come behind us.

The value of hearing from real, authentic leaders allowed participants to normalize women leader styles, while valuing a leadership approach of caring and nurturing women. Whatley, Popa, and Kliewer (2012) also found that interactive, collaborative, and experiential learning activities significantly enhanced individual leadership learning. Regarding the value of connections, Participant 1 said, "She patted me on the back and said 'of course you could do it.' That was huge coming from someone of her status."

Theme 5: A Relational Model for Leadership is Essential: A substantial theme was the beneficial impact of establishing social capital associations, women leadership networks, and leadership modeling. The value of connecting with other women with similar stories was instrumental in alleviating fears and concerns. Participant 4 noted, "The people that you meet was the biggest thing for me." Participants noted that WOLD training promoted co-orientation, allowing them to find cohorts of "women going the same direction." These social capital connections provided relational equity, information resources, and collaboration venues. Learning from real, inspirational women both inside and outside the industry fostered growth. Participant 3 stated the value of hearing "personal stories of how they triumphed over sexism, being passed over, being considered less than…and how/what they did about it." Seen as forging the way, the women role models became coaches, champions, cheerleaders, and guides, sharing their personal journey of how they were able to move past obstacles.

Additionally, networking, mentoring connections, and leadership modeling allowed women to solidify an informal system outside their individual organizations. Participant 2 observed: It's the relationships that have been built throughout the system. I have more resources and people to call. For me personally, when I was applying for the job that I am in now, I contacted several of those key contacts, asking them to be references. I got information from them. Asking them what aspects should I be working on to be in this role.

Alike to Dragoni's et al. (2014) and Bouchamma, Kalule, April, and Basque's (2014) findings, participants noted that the use of successful leader modeling and social capital resources improved overall role knowledge application and implementation.

Theme 6: Leadership Training Can Have Encompassing Impact on Employees: Although participants noted the personal development work required to participate in this program and the positive/negative impact of conducting training away from their offices, participating in this program promoted skill development, career enhancement, and improved leadership aptitude. Many interviewees commented on "aha" moments of self-discovery, validation of leadership philosophies, and the leadership identity transformation that had occurred. Participant 5 noted:

> We all struggle with our identity in some way, whether we're comparing ourselves to other women, feeling like we come up short because we don't have this or that skill or ability, because we aren't this type of personality - we second guess ourselves constantly. Women are more prone to do that than men. Participating in this, solidified for me, my understanding of what I do have to offer, what I can bring to the table.

Related discoveries were noted in Boaden (2006), where leadership development programs have meaningful impact on personal development with continued influence on an individual's role and career progression and in DeRue and Ashford (2010), where leadership development was relationally recognized and collectively endorsed during social influence processes.

Emergent Theme 7: Perceived Struggle of Women: During the initial interviews, the lead researcher noted interviewees alluded to the reasons why women struggled at work. Statements including "not being ashamed of being a women" (Participant 3) and "bias toward strong women" (Participant 5) as well as the contrast between traditional male and female modes of leadership were shared thoughts. Therefore, in subsequent interviews, participants were asked why they perceived women grapple with their leadership development.

Prior to the program, each of the women perceived a lack of women role models and had experienced gender infused stereotypes within their perspective workplaces. Participant 7 indicated:

> Several reasons, I mean the inequality and pay. Women aren't always valued. If we take charge, we're bitchy, and if a man takes charge, he's respected. If he gets gray hair around his ears, he's distinguished, if I get gray hair, I'm getting old. We need to break those stereotypical thoughts.

Chugh and Sahgal (2007) concurred and described sex-role orientation and gender stereotyping as common issues that plagued emerging women leaders. Other interviewees noted that empathy toward others may hamper their leadership progression and according to their experience, women leaders are viewed differently than men. Participants noted the learning process of realizing the negative cycle of comparing women leaders to male leaders and the need to embrace their uniqueness and strength-based approaches.

Themes with Supporting Participant Quotes:

1. **External/Positional – Changes in the Experience of Leadership**
   - It's a matter of learning my own strengths, go ahead and step into those strengths and not allow myself to stand in the background (Participant 5).
   - It's a program that will help you refine and define your leadership skills. It will expand ways of knowing things, and how to network with other people in more effective ways, help you to develop your leadership philosophy and layout some concrete ideas on how to move forward (Participant 3).
2. **Internal/Empowerment – Changes in the Personal Agency of Leadership**
   - It helps women collectively and individually learn to look insightfully into themselves and draw upon their strengths. We don't always recognize what we have and can bring to the table; we down play it. (Participant 5)
   - I have a strong personality; that doesn't always lend well to leadership because you have to learn what's important when you are leading people is not as important as having a strong personality. You must allow other people to be strong and shine that you look to other ways to serve other people even as a leader. I don't have to be something that I'm not in order to be who I am. (Participant 5).
3. **Equipping Cognition, Affect, and Behavior Growth**
   - When I have critical conversations, I have some tools I can use (Participant 2).
   - So my philosophy of leadership was definitely validated that to be a good leader you need to serve others (Participant 7).
   - I recognize the strengths that each of us have that are different, but they each play a crucial role in leadership and in creating a strong leadership program for any organization or school (Participant 5).
4. **Engage Learning Elements**
   - Book discussion and presenters stood out for me - interactions and activities helped the most. There was one training on accepting differences, and understanding about what's going on in a person's life before they have arrived where they are. (Participant 7).
   - The program is a wonderful opportunity for women to network, grow, and strengthen their leadership skills, it's a wonderful way to learn from others' experiences and bounce your ideas and expertise and get gain from others and they gain from you (Participant 4).
5. **Relational Model for Leadership is Essential**
   - I know that if I had a problem, I would pick up the phone, I would have people all across the state doing the exact same thing that I do and they would be able to tell me what they have done in that situation, or what somebody else at their center had done for whatever. (Participant 4).
   - It's bigger than networking. It allows us to build a system and collaborate across the system (Participant 2).
   - I think the networking and relationships will be lifelong resources for us as we grow and develop in our leadership roles (Participant 5).
6. **Encompassing Impact of Leadership Training**
   - I'm better at letting things go; I don't take things so personally. I attack it with a solution in mind and don't beat myself up over it (Participant 7).

- It's the single best leadership training that I have been involved in. An awesome experience - I'd even go as far as to say a life changing experience. Not only did it reinforce ideas about leadership, but I made lasting relationships with the people in the class (Participant 6).

7. **(Emergent) Perceived Struggle of Women**
   - We have this sense about us that men don't have. We care, about feelings, if we fire this person, then, they don't have a pay check, then their kids suffer that stuff all relates to us, I think men might have a better time at separating that (Participant 4).
   - We have to defend our right to step outside our home, especially if you are stepping into a role of leadership…there is still a lot of inequality and bias against strong women (Participant 5).

Synthesis and Essence of Experiences

Women who participated in the program gained an increased sense of being prepared for leadership, seeing leadership as a mindset. They felt more equipped for advancement to leadership positions are were also aware of the leadership potential in their current level of responsibilities. Overwhelmingly, they felt better prepared to assume leadership. This preparedness goes beyond gaining leadership skills and had a personal growth aspect to it. Class participants grew in personal agency, believing that if other women can achieve high places of leadership, they could succeed as well.

Participants experienced a broad range of training elements that were meaningful. These elements were comprehensive and addressed the cognition, affect, and behavior of leadership development. These highly regarded competencies were taught using authentic and practical methods, including experienced women leader speakers, role-playing, and scenario-based discussions, and group interaction. Participants found that connecting with other women associated with the leadership program was deeply meaningful. With these relational assets, most felt more courage when considering further leadership pursuits. The inspiration and collaboration gained from these relationships was generative. From developing connections to validating philosophies of leadership, the program had made them better leaders.

Application

Results from this study suggest several key elements, which are essential for transformational WOLD programs.

Fostering Systemic Relationships and Interconnectedness: As with Boatwright and Egidio (2003), Garman (2010), and Kim and Thompson (2012), results revealed the importance of viewing leadership development as a systemic program positively affecting the organization and individual. The interconnectedness and social capital resources among leaders, their organizations, and their peers fostered knowledge, skill, and talent development. All interviewees saw relationships, networking, mentoring, and informational connections as vital to leadership development. The collective endorsement of participants co-developing in a social environment reinforced a strong and stable desire to improve their leadership confidence.

Behavioral Modeling: Roles models used throughout WOLD training provided participants with relational support and role knowledge, confirming leadership development as a social learning process. Results from our study paralleled previous literature (Karelaia & Guillén, 2014) on the importance of organizational attitudes toward women and supporting mentoring practices, which can strengthen women's leadership identities. Additionally, Dragoni et al. (2014) noted the interactive effectiveness of senior leaders who both *showed* and *told* how they became a leader; this process enhanced the progress of women transitional leaders' self- perceived leadership acquisition. Participants craved women mentorship relationships with senior leaders who shared their stories and imparted wisdom. These women trailblazers provided authentic and descriptive examples of effective leadership.

Finding a Voice and Selling a Vision: Women leaders must find their own voice and communicate their vision despite fears or barriers. These fears or social factors can make it difficult for women to share their vision or step into leadership roles without sounding boastful or harsh. Participants noted the value of learning how to promote a balanced approach when performing corrective actions, managing conflict, leading personnel, and sharing their vision. Similarly, Ibarra and Ododaru (2009, p. 64) noted that "one of the biggest developmental hurdles that aspiring leaders, male and female alike, must clear is learning to sell their ideas." Program participants stated the value of developing, solidifying, and mapping their leadership philosophy. Several participants noted the critical moment of seeing their philosophy in writing, using it to visualize how they would professionally grow, and verbalizing it in their workplace.

Personal Agency: Personal agency, the desire to act assertively and confidently on one's own behalf, is a dominant need of high-achieving women leaders (Ruderman & Ohlott, 2005). Program participants noted doubts or a lack of self-confidence as a common barrier; however, participants stated increased feelings self-efficacy, confidence, and overall validation of their leadership potential as a result of WOLD involvement. Additionally, self-perception, confidence, and developmental efficacy appeared to be catalysts of leadership development.

Cognitive, Affective, and Behavioral Emphasis: Participants noted the significant impact of cognitive, affective, and behavioral changes within their leadership identity. Self-awareness and self-reflection opportunities as well as challenges to the way participants think, process, feel, and act helped to solidify their leadership values and styles. Comparably, Ruderman and Ohlott (2005) noted that "self-clarity allows women to grow by enabling them to recognize their values so they can live authentically, improve their ability to connect with others, enable their own agency, and make choices that produce feelings of wholeness" (p. 9). Cognitive, affective, and behavioral changes helped to construct and solidify participants' leadership identities.

Action Learning: Social learning strategies used in leadership development not only disseminated valuable knowledge and skills but also resulted in changed personal perceptions, attitudes, and behaviors. Similar to Stead (2014), we found that facilitating an action-learning environment, where woman can connect with authentic leaders, cultivate peer-learning connections, and seek to develop without fear of exposure promoted the best quality environment for learning potential. Participants indicated the impact of context-specific scenarios and authentic experiences, which helped facilitate learning and internalize their leadership identity.

Discussion and Conclusion

This study validates current theoretical literature on WOLD programs and clarifies how WOLD programs impact authenticity, and agency, and development of women leaders. Strengths of this phenomenological study include its validation of theoretical premises on WOLD programs, clarification the impact of these programs, analysis of interactive and gender sensitive learning elements for post-training leadership implementation, as well as identification of further research avenues. The current study's main limitation is nested in its qualitative design. Although considered a strength for gleaning deep and detailed descriptions of personal experience and meaning (Byrne, 2001, Moustakas, 1994), the homogenous and limited sample size of the study may restrict generalizability (Byrne, 2001; Creswell, 2012; Yardley, 2012).

Clarifying what learning elements were most beneficial in furthering women's leadership roles was the purpose of this research. A phenomenological approach allowed us to understand WOLD participants lived experiences. Discovered themes included perceptional and personal agency changes. Participants indicated that WOLD programs provided opportunities for authentic cognitive, affective, and behavioral growth, and should be centered on engaging learning activities as well as relational model methodologies. Action learning techniques, behavioral modeling, fostering interconnectedness, and philosophical leadership development activities will continue to help women reach their full potential.

References

Anderson, D., Vinnicombe, S., & Singh, V. (2008). Women only leadership development: A conundrum. In K.T. James, & J. Collins (Eds.), *Leadership learning: Knowledge into action* (pp. 147-161). London, Palgrave Macmillan.

Akingbola, K. (2013). Resource-based view (RBV) of unincorporated social economy organizations. *Canadian Journal of Nonprofit and Social Economy Research, 4*(1), 66-85.

Bandura, A. (1989). Human agency in social cognitive theory. *American Psychologist*, *44*(9), 1175-1184. doi:10.1037/0003-066X.44.9.1175

Berrios, R., & Lucca, N. (2006). Qualitative methodology in counseling research: Recent contributions and challenges for a new century. *Journal of Counseling and Development, 84*, 174-186.

Boaden, R. J. (2006). Leadership development: Does it make a difference? *Leadership & Organization Development Journal, 27*(1), 5-27. doi:10.1108/01437730610641331

Boatwright, K. J., & Egidio, R. K. (2003). Psychological predictors of college women's leadership aspirations. *Journal of College Student Development, 44*(5), 653-669.

Bouchamma, Y., Kalule, L., April, D., & Basque, M. (2014). Implementation and supervision of the professional learning community: Animation, leadership and organization of the work. *Creative Education, 5*(16), 1479-1491.

Browne-Ferrigno, T., & Muth, R. (2012). Call for research on candidates in leadership preparation programs. *Planning & Changing*, *43*(1/2), 10-24.

Byrne, M. M. (2001). Understanding life experiences through a phenomenological approach to research. *Association of Operating Room Nurses. AORN Journal, 73*(4), 830-832.

Chugh, S., & Sahgal, P. (2007). Why do few women advance to leadership positions? *Global Business Review 8*(2), 334-350. doi:10.1177/097215090700800209

Creswell, J. W. (2009). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches* (3rd ed.). Los Angeles, CA: Sage.

Creswell, J. W. (2012). *Qualitative inquiry & research: Choosing among five approaches* (3rd ed.). Los Angeles, CA: Sage.

Crumpton-Young, L., McCauley-Bush, P., Rabelo, L., Meza, K., Ferreras, A., Rodriguez, B., & Kelarestani, M. (2010). Engineering leadership development programs: A look at what is needed and what is being done. *Journal Of STEM Education: Innovations & Research*, *11*(3/4), 10-21.

Cunliffe, A. L. (2009). The philosopher leader: On relationalism, ethics and reflexivity – A critical perspective to teaching leadership. *Management Learning, 40*(1), 87-101. doi:10.1177/1350507608099315

Dahl, C. M., & Boss, P. (2005). The use of phenomenology for family therapy research: The search for meaning. In D. H. Sprenkle, & F. P. Piercy (Eds.). *Research methods in family therapy* (3rd ed., pp. 63-84). New York, NY: Guilford.

Debebe, G. (2011). Creating a safe environment for women's leadership transformation. *Journal of Managerial Education, 35*(5), 679-712. doi:10.1177/1052562910397501

DeRue, D. S., & Ashford, S. J. (2011). Who will lead and who will follow? A social process of leadership identity construction in organizations. *Academy of Management Review, 35*(4), 627-647.

Dragoni, L., Park, H., Soltis, J., & Forte-Trammell, S. (2014). Show and tell: How supervisors facilitate leader development among transitioning leaders. *Journal Of Applied Psychology*, *99*(1), 66-86. doi:10.1037/a0034452

Drees, J., & Heugens, P. (2013). Synthesizing and extending resource dependence theory: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Management, 39*(6), 1666-1698. doi:10.1177.0149206312471391

Dreher, G. F. (2003). Breaking the glass ceiling: The effects of sex ratios and work-life programs on female leadership at the top. *Human Relations, 56*(5), 541-562. doi:10.1177/0018726703056005002

Ely, R. J., Ibarra, H., & Kolb, D. M. (2011). Taking gender into account: Theory and design for women's leadership programs. *Academy of Management Learning & Education*, *10*(3), 474-493. doi:10.5465/amle.2010.0046

Ely, R. J., & Meyerson, D. E. (2000). Theories of gender in organization: A new approach to organizational analysis and change. *Research in Organizational Behavior, 22,* 103-151. doi:10.1016/S0191-3085(00)22004-2

Fine, M. G. (2009). Women leaders' discursive constructions of leadership. *Women's Studies In Communication*, *32*(2), 180-202. doi:10.1080/07491409.2009.10162386

Finlay, L. (2011). *Phenomenology for therapists: Researching the lived world*. Chichester, West Sussex: John Wiley & Sons, Ltd.

Fredricks, S. M. (2003). Creating and maintaining networks among leaders: An exploratory case study of two leadership training programs. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies Summer, 10*(1), 45-54. doi:10.1177/107179190301000104

Garman, A. N. (2010). Leadership development in the interdisciplinary context. In B. Freshman, L. Rubino, & Y. Reid Chassiakos (Eds.), *Collaboration Across the Disciplines in Healthcare* (pp. 43-64). Sudbury, MA: Jones and Barlett.

Gherardi, S., & Poggio, B. (2001). Creating and recreating gender order in organizations. *Journal Of World Business*, *36*(3), 245-259. doi:10.1016/S1090-9516(01)00054-2

Giorgi, A. (2009). The descriptive phenomenological method in psychology: A modified Husserlian approach. Pittsburgh, PA: Duquesne University Press.

Giorgi, A. (1997). The theory, practice, and evaluation of phenomenological method as a qualitative research practice procedure. *Journal of Phenomenological Psychology, 28*(2), 235-260.

Grant, A. D., & Taylor, A. (2014). Communication essentials for female executives to develop leadership presence: Getting beyond the barriers of understating accomplishment. *Business Horizons*, *57*(1), 73-83. doi:10.1016/j.bushor.2013.09.003

Groves, K. (2007). Integrated leadership development and succession planning best practices, *Journal of Management Development, 26*(3), 239-260. doi:10.1108/02621710710732146

Hackmann, D., & McCarthy, M. (2011). Clinical faculty in educational leadership programs: A growing force. *Planning & Changing*, *42*(3/4), 183-208.

Hirschfeld, R. R., & Thomas, C. H. (2011). Age- and gender-based role incongruence: Implications for knowledge mastery and observed leadership potential among personnel in a leadership development program. *Personnel Psychology*, *64*(3), 661-692. doi:10.1111/j.1744-6570.2011.01222.x

Hopkins, M. M., O'Neil, D. A., Passarelli, A., & Bilimoria, D. (2008). Women's leadership development strategic practices for women and organizations. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice And Research*, *60*(4), 348-365. doi:10.1037/a0014093

Ibarra, H., & Obodaru, O. (2009). Women and the vision thing. *Harvard Business Review*, *87*(1), 62-70.

Jacobs, C., & Coghlan, D. (2005). Sound from silence: On listening in organizational learning. *Human Relations, 58*(1), 115-138. doi:10.1177/0018726705050938

Karelaia, N., & Guillén, L. (2014). Me, a woman and a leader: Positive social identity and identity conflict. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 125*(2), 204–219. doi:10.1016/j.obhdp.2014.08.002

Kessels, J. W. M., & Poell, R. F. (2004). Andragogy and social capital theory: The implications for human resource development. *Advances in Developing Human Resources, 6*(2), 146-157. doi:10.1177/1523422304263326

Kim, T., & Thompson, J. M. (2012). Organizational and market factors associated with leadership development programs in hospitals: A national study. *Journal Of Healthcare Management*, *57*(2), 113-131.

Küpers, W. M. (2013). Embodied inter-practices of leadership – Phenomenological perspectives on relational and responsive leading and following. *Leadership, 9*(3), 335-357. doi:10.1177/1742715013485852

Kvale, S., & Brinkman, S. (2009). *Interviews: Learning the craft of qualitative research interviewing* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Lin, N. (2001). *Social capital: A theory of social structure and action.* Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Lincoln, Y. S., & Guba, E. G. (1985). *Naturalistic inquiry.* Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

Mandell, B., & Pherwani, S. (2003). Relationships between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership: A gender comparison. *Journal of Business and Psychology. 17*(3), 387-404. doi:10.1023/A:1022816409059

Marshall, C., & Rossman, G. B. (2011). *Designing qualitative research* (5th ed.). Los Angeles, CA: Sage.

Maxwell, J. A. (2005). *Qualitative research design: An interpretive approach* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Moerer-Urdahl, T., & Creswell, J. W. (2004). Using transcendental phenomenology to explore the "ripple effect" in a leadership mentoring program. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods, 3*(2), 19-35. Retrieved from http://ejournals.library.ualberta.ca/index.php/IJQM/article/view/4470/3594

Moustakas, C. (1994). *Phenomenological research methods.* Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.

Oklahoma Department of Career and Technology Education (2014). *CareerTech Women in Leadership*. https://www.okcareertech.org/

Patton, M. Q. (2002). *Qualitative research and evaluation method*s (3ed ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Pfeffer, J., & Salancik, G. (1978/2003). *The external control of organizations: A resource dependency perspective.* Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press.

Ponton, M. K., & Rhea, N. E. (2006). Autonomous learning from a social cognitive perspective. *New Horizons in Adult Education & Human Resource Development, 20*(2), 38-49.

Pratch, L., & Jacobowitz, J. (1996). Gender, motivation, and coping in the evaluation of leadership effectiveness. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice And Research*, *48*(4), 203-220. doi:10.1037/1061-4087.48.4.203

Rai, H., & Singh, M. (2013). A study of mediating variables of the relationship between 360° feedback and employee performance. *Human Resource Development International*, *16*(1), 56-73. doi:10.1080/13678868.2012.740797

Rendtorff, J. D. (2015). Case studies, ethics, philosophy, and liberal learning for management profession. *Journal of Management Education, 39*(1), 36-55. doi:10.1177/1052562914562282

Ruderman, M. N., & Ohlott, P. J. (2005). Leading roles: What coaches of women need to know. *Leadership in Action, 25*(3), 3-9.

Schwandt, T. A., Lincoln, Y. S., & Guba, E. G. (2007). Judging interpretations: But is it rigorous? Trustworthiness and authenticity in naturalistic evaluation. *New Directions for Program Evaluation, 114*, 11-25. doi:10.1002/ev.223

Simmonds, D., & Tsui, O. (2010). Effective design of a global leadership programme. *Human Resource Development International*, *13*(5), 519-540. doi:10.1080/13678868.2010.520478

Sirianni, P. M., & Frey, B. A. (2001). Changing a culture: Evaluation of a leadership development program at Mellon Financial Services. *International Journal Of Training & Development*, *5*(4), 290-301. doi:10.111/1468-2419.00141

Smith-Doerr, L., Kemekliene, G., Teutonico, R., Lange, L., Villa-Komaroff, L., Matthiessen-Guyader, L., & Murray, F. (2011). A global need for women's biotech leadership. *Nature Biotechnology*, *29*(10), 948-949.

Smith, J. A., Flowers, P., & Larkin, M. (2009). Interpretative phenomenological analysis: Theory, method and research. London, England: Sage.

Stead, V. (2014). The gendered power relations of action learning: A critical analysis of women's reflections on a leadership development programme. *Human Resource Development International*, *17*(4), 416-437. doi:10.1080/13678868.2014.928137

Sturm, R. E., Taylor, S. N., Atwater, L. E., & Braddy, P. W. (2013). Leader self-awareness: An examination and implications of women's under-prediction. *Journal of Organizational Behavior 35*, 657-677. doi:10.1002/job.1915

Tessens, L., White, K., & Web, C. (2011). Senior women in higher education institutions: Perceived development needs and support. *Journal Of Higher Education Policy & Management*, *33*(6), 653-665. doi:10.1080/1360080X.2011.621191

Vinnicombe, S., & Singh, V. (2003). Women-only management training: An essential part of women's leadership development. Journal Of Change Management, 3(4), 294.

Whatley, L. R., Popa, A. B., & Kliewer, H. (. (2012). Community and Leadership: The Role of Humility, Rhythm, and Experiential Learning. *Journal Of Leadership, Accountability & Ethics*, *9*(4), 113-143

Willig, C. (2008). *Introducing qualitative research in psychology: Adventures in theory and method* (2nd ed.). New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.

Yardley, L. (2008). Demonstrating validity in qualitative psychology. In J. A. Smith (Ed.), *Qualitative psychology: A practical guide to research methods* (2nd ed., pp. 235-251). London, England: Sage.

Zahidi, S., & Ibarra, H. (2010). *The Corporate Gender Gap Report 2010*. World Economic Forum. Geneva, Switzerland.

POSTERS

Images of Culture: Exploring Photographic Representations of Cultural Experiences
Natalie Coers, University of Florida

Cultivating Visionary Leaders to Transform Our World
Natalie Coers, University of Florida

Identifying the Most Critical Competencies for Entry-Level Leader Lawyers
Chris Leupold, Sarah Kowalkowski, Sibley Fillette, & Alicia Norton
Elon University

Surfacing the Iceberg of Leadership: A New Taxonomy of Leadership Concepts and Theories
D. Adam Cletzer, University of Missouri
Eric K. Kaufman, Virginia Tech

How does leadership education shape students' definitions of leadership? Insights from the Multi-institutional Study of Leadership
Eric K. Kaufman, John Thornton, & Jama Coartney
Virginia Tech

Determining How Participation in a Strengths-Based Curriculum May Affect Authentic Self-Awareness in First-Year College Students
Clay Hurdle, University of Florida

The Development and Maintenance of Social Identity within a Military Motorcycle Club
Dr. Todd Wiggen, Southwestern Oklahoma State University

Online Leadership Short Course for County Extension Directors
Jera Niewoehner, Matt Benge, & Matthew Sowcik
University of Florida

The Content, Tools and Resources to Teach Humility in Your Leadership Class
Matthew Sowcik & Austin D. Council
University of Florida

Global Leadership Exchange: An exploration of homelessness
Judy G. Craven & Hannah Moon
Kennesaw State University

Effects of Leadership Education and Personality Types on Motivation to Lead of Undergraduate Students Studying Leadership
Madison Wilkerson, Allison L. Dunn, & Summer F. Odom
Texas A&M University

Utilizing Biomimicry to Teach Organizational Sturcture, Culture, and Decision-making in an Introductory Leadership Course
Allison L. Dunn, Summer F. Odom, Robert Strong, Jr., & Tracy Rutherford
Texas A&M University

An Assessment of the Undergraduate Leadership Teaching Assistant Experience (ULTA): Students' Change in Transformational Leadership Behaviors
Whitney Green, Summer F. Odom, & Lori L. Moore
Texas A&M University

Exploring the Embodiment of Story in Nonprofit Leadership
Margaret Hunt & Lori M. Throupe
Christopher Newport University

Life Cycle of a Theory to Pedagogy
Nicole Stedman & Anthony C. Andenoro
University of Florida

Buzz Groups and Role Simulation: Interactive Teaching Methods for Interpersonal Leadership Skills
James Edd Jason Headrick, University of Nebraska-Lincoln

Using PhotoVoice to Understand how Undergraduate Students Make Meaning of Leadership Theories & Concepts
Caroline W. Clement, Abigail V. Whitaker, & Dr. Jackie Bruce
North Carolina State University

All That Jazz: Music and Multi-Cultural Leadership
Lisa Kendall & Michael Stephens
Johnson & Wales University

Images of Culture: Exploring Photographic Representations of Cultural Experiences

Natalie Coers
University of Florida

Abstract

Study abroad experiences are common among undergraduate students. A case study approach offers insight into a study abroad experience designed for agricultural leadership, including service, cultural immersion through homestays, and agricultural tourism experiences over 10-12 days in a South American country. Photo elicitation methods provide a unique opportunity for students to reflect on meaningful moments of cultural experiences on a short-term study abroad. Results will inform future study abroad experience planning and be reported in a similarly create method to the data collection.

Introduction

The continued growth in popularity and priority in higher education of international elements in curriculum and experiential activities serves as an encouragement for progress in this initiative (Altbach and Knight, 2007; Moore, et al., 2011). The long-term impact of an international experience, especially for students, may never be known; yet, today's increasingly global society places the development of intercultural competence as an imperative skill for students. It is clear that institutions of higher education continue to make internationalization a priority, and must resolve to adequately prepare students to embrace cultural experiences, minimize barriers for international experiences, and engage students in various opportunities to learn about different cultures (Irani, et al., 2006; Connors, 2004; Tonkin & Quiroga, 2004; Radhakrishna & Dominguez, 1999; Wingenbach, et al., 2003; Greenberg, 2008). Coers, Rodriguez, Roberts, Emerson, & Barrick (2012) noted:

The current generation of collegiate students has been raised in a culture that embraces globalization and connectedness; yet, true understanding of other cultures and practices is limited among students. International educational experiences, including both short-term and long-term travel, immerse students into a culture and offer the opportunity for application of skills and development of personal understanding of global citizenship. (p.60)

Students who engage in study abroad opportunities, as well as other internationalization efforts, often share of the impact such experiences have in their life. The lack of connectivity between student experiences and desired intercultural skills from future employers drives the focus of inquiry. The purpose of this study is to explore photographic representations of students' cultural experiences in relation to their expressed definition of culture and perceived intercultural orientation. This study aims to provide insight to the cultural experiences that impact students most while traveling abroad and determine if the perceived intercultural orientation and individual definition of culture effects how a student is experiencing another culture. Insights gained through a qualitative analysis of student experiences in these areas abroad will inform the model to enable improvements to developing short-term study abroad experiences that reflect the intention and outcomes desired from international activities.

Background

The Institute of International Education (IIE) reports in their 2012 "Fast Facts" that participation in study abroad experiences has more than tripled over the past two decades. Among the nearly 275,000 U.S. students that studied abroad in 2010-2011 for academic credit, 58.1% were engaged in a short term experience (summer or eight weeks or less) (IIE, 2012). The continued investment of time and student services to the experience of study abroad, as well as growth in student engagement in study abroad programs, is a clear indication of its potential benefits for students. Several benefits of study abroad are supported throughout the literature, including: positive impacts on student views of world affairs, maturity, self-awareness, improved classroom engagement and cultural knowledge, positive college engagement, and student transformation (Anderson, Lawton, Rexeisen, & Hubbard, 2006; Gonyea, 2008; Rhodes, Biscarra, Loberg, & Roller, 2012). Study abroad experiences offer a great opportunity for students, as Wingenbach, Boyd, Lindner, Dick, Arispe, & Haba, (2003) noted the importance for students to increase their awareness and understanding of global events and become intentional about applying new insights. However, it is important for students to be fully engaged in the process as a whole—entering the experience prepared, creating meaningful experiences while in country, and processing the experience upon reentry to their home country—to gain the full benefits of the study abroad experience (Coers, et al., 2012; Connors, 2004). In order to do so, time and reflection are imperative to glean the most value from an international experience and create meaningful connections regarding cultural awareness and understanding (Coers, et al., 2012; Irani, Place, & Friedel, 2006). While the benefits of study abroad, as well as the need for intercultural competence, are well documented, additional research is needed to facilitate an understanding of students' experiences abroad and how various activities influence the development of intercultural competence.

It is clear that institutions of higher education play an integral role in the development and preparation of students to enter a global society. In today's environment, not only is international experience and global awareness valuable for career success, but it also adds a competitive edge for the individual's local community (Acker and Scanes, 1998; Battistoni, Longo, & Jayanandhan, 2009; Bender, Wright, & Lopatto, 2009; Connors, 2004; Fogel & Malson-Huddle, 2012; Irani, et al., 2006; Moore, et al., 2011). As brick and mortar institutions of higher education move forward in a technologically-driven society, it is evident that the original vision and values must adapt to the needs of a global community. Fogel & Malson-Huddle (2012) noted specifically, "Connecting land-grant missions to global realities is not an end in itself but a means – the next step of innovation – to advance core values in a new environment" (p. 160). Although recognized as a valuable asset for a student's future career, the commitment to internationalization efforts varies greatly from campus to campus (NAFSA, 2008). However, Connors (2004) emphasized that international activities have an important role for students within colleges of agriculture, as the networks of agricultural resources continue to expand around the globe. Leadership must be exhibited and exemplified by institutions of higher education to respond and adapt to the changing needs of people, rising to meet the opportunities for education and engagement around the world (Fogel & Malson-Huddle, 2012). Likewise, students should develop leadership skills, experience other cultures and societies, and have a basic grasp on our global system, which will prepare them to excel in an expanding global

market upon graduation (NAFSA, 2008). To address the various elements and opportunities for international engagement and awareness, land-grant institutions not only have the responsibility to offer such opportunities, but also must invest in assuring that students connect that experience to a tangible, transferable lesson that will influence their frame of reference for future interactions at a local, national, or international level.

With such responsibility outlined, global awareness and understanding will lay the foundation for this generation of students to rise as leaders in various contexts (Munck, 2010; Moore, et al., 2011; Mayo, M., Gaventa, J. & Rooke, A., 2008; Battistoni, et al., 2009; Hanson, 2010). Many opportunities exist for students today to gain international or intercultural experiences; study abroad, focused study tours, service learning, and various campus events with an emphasis on global education are available throughout institutions of higher education across the United States. The National Leadership Education Research Agenda Priority Area VII "encompasses a focused charge for the development of global and intercultural competence and increased understanding of leadership in a global context" (Andenoro, et al., 2013, p. 25). Short-term study abroad experiences offer an opportunity for students to develop global and intercultural competence through experiential learning.

Methodology

A qualitative approach was selected for this study, as it aligns with the nature of inquiry related to the development of intercultural context within a study abroad experience through student experience (Ary, Jacobs, & Sorensen, 2010). Qualitative study is also the recommended approach for inquiries specific to intercultural development, as agreed upon by a panel of intercultural experts (Deardorff, 2006). Photo elicitation engages participants through the submission of 5-10 photos from their international experience with descriptive text to provide rationale for the inclusion of each photo in their submission. Photos and descriptive text are analyzed to see common threads among student participants, as well as individual connections between definition of culture and selected photos. The descriptive text is analyzed for a creative, reflective poetic representation of the data and shared international experience.

Current Results

Results to date include the analysis of the collective photo descriptions into a poetic reflection of the qualitative data set. Further analysis will be conducted on the photo themes and individual connections between definition of culture and photo selections.

An Ode to an Argentina Adventure

"The children are born, we live, and so we start to dream";
"Striving to be an example to the community" it would seem.

"Without words they demonstrate such beauty, elegance and power";
At such "intimate communication," other cultures may cower.

"I wish I could just sit in one place and stay there to try to capture the details";

"The awe I felt at the majesty of nature was almost overwhelming" without fail.

"I look back on this photo and laugh," yet it "demonstrated to me the perseverance and effort" of putting one's faith on the line;
With exhaustion and the happiness of victory,
"Seeing the city of Salta at sunset was sublime."

"Our journey from Salta to Cafayate" "captured the natural beauty of the land";
"So remote and peaceful" "could have stayed there forever" in awe of the expanse so grand.

"One of the many best day's ever", "I will never forget the memories we made";
"The universal language of music was truly a gift" of their culture we received as they played.

We came to "gain some insight about the lives of farmers in the Andean Northwest";
After many things "I never thought I would do", we left so grateful and blessed.

To "share a home with these people I am lucky enough to call good friends of mine";
"This family welcomed us very warmly" and "accepted us into our home" with hospitality divine.

"Such a big event for us, but second nature for them" to make empanadas at such a quick pace;
"Argentina would not be the same without these pockets of joy," the common thread yet unique at every place.

A final "sunrise of Cafayate" with this new family that deeply cared;
"It was about the journey", so "just live in the moment" of experiences shared.

Conclusions/Recommendations

Initial analysis demonstrated the profound impact of the study abroad experience on student participants. Additional data analysis must be completed before conclusive recommendations can be made regarding which elements of the study abroad experience can be indicated as most beneficial to cultural learning. Likewise, additional analysis will be needed for conclusive remarks to be made regarding insight to individual connections of cultural definitions to reflective selection of photos.

References

Acker, D.G. & Scanes, C.G. (1998). A case for globalizing U.S. colleges of agriculture. *Journal of International Agricultural and Extension Education, 5*(1), 59–62.

Altbach, P.G. & Knight, J. (2007). The internationalization of higher education: Motivations and realities. *Journal of Studies in International Education, 11*(3/4), 290-305.

Anderson, P.H., Lawton, L., Rexeisen, R.J., & Hubbard, A.C. (2006). Short-term study abroad and intercultural sensitivity: A pilot study. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 30*(4), 457-469.

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

Battistoni, R.M., Longo, N.V. & Jayanandhan, S.R. (2009). Acting locally in a flat world: Global citizenship and the democratic practice of service-learning. *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement, 13*(2), 89-108.

Bender, C., Wright, D., & Lopatto, D. (2009). Students' self–reported changes in intercultural knowledge and competence associated with three undergraduate science experiences. *Frontiers: The Interdisciplinary Journal of Study Abroad, 18*, 307–321.

Bradt, G. (2012). Three essential questions of big data: What? So what? Now what?. Forbes. Retrieved from http://www.forbes.com

Campbell, J.R. (1998). *Reclaiming a Lost Heritage*. East Lansing, MI: Michigan State University Press.

Coers, N., Rodriguez, M.T., Roberts, T.G., Emerson, H.C., & Barrick, R.K. (2012). Examining the student impacts of three international capstone experiences. *NACTA Journal, 56*(2), 55-62.

Connors, J.J. (2004). FFA Costa Rican travel seminar participants' international agriculture knowledge and perceptions. *Journal of International Agricultural and Extension Education, 11*(1), 71-79.

Crotty, M. (1998). *The foundations of social research: Meaning and perspective in the research process*. London: Sage.

Deardorff, D. K. (2006). Identification and assessment of intercultural competence as a student outcome of internationalization. *Journal of Studies in International Education, 10*, 241-266. doi:10.1177/1028315306127002.

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

Doerfert, D. L. (Ed.) (2011). National research agenda: American Association for Agricultural Education's research priority areas for 2011-2015. Lubbock, TX: Texas Tech University, Department of Agricultural Education and Communications.

Doolittle, P. E., & Camp, W. G. (1999). Constructivism: The career and technical education perspective. Journal of Vocational and Technical Education, 16(1). Retrieved from http://scholar.lib.vt.edu/ejournals/JVTE/v16n1/doolittle.html

Etling, A.W. (1994). Creating a stronger model for international youth exchange: A case study. *Journal of Agricultural and Extension Education, 1*(2), 70–79.

Fogel, D.M. & Malson-Huddle, E. (Eds.) 2012. Precipice or Crossroads? Where America's Great Public Universities Stand and Where They Are Going Midway through Their Second Century. Albany, NY: State University of New York Pres.

Gonyea, R.M. (2008). The impact of study abroad on senior year engagement. Presentation at the Annual Meeting of the Association for the Study of Higher Education. Jacksonville, FL.

Greenberg, D.J. (2008). Teaching global citizenship, social change, and economic development in a history course: A course model in Latin American travel/service learning. *The History Teacher, 41*(3).

Hammer, M.R. (2011). Additional cross-cultural validity testing of the Intercultural Development Inventory. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 35*(4), 474–487.

Hanson, L. (2010). Global citizenship, global health, and the internationalization of curriculum: A study of transformative potential. *Journal of Studies in International Education, 14*(1), 70–88.

Institute of International Education (2012). Fast Facts Open Doors 2012. Retrieved from http://www.iie.org/Research-and-Publications/Open-Doors

Irani, T., Place, N.T. & Friedel, C. (2006). Beliefs, attitudes, perceptions, and barriers toward international involvement among college of agriculture and life science students. *Journal of International Agricultural and Extension Education, 13*(2), 27-37.

Light, G., Cox, R., & Calkins, S. (2009). L*earning and teaching in higher education: The reflective professional*. SAGE Publications: London.

Mayo, M., Gaventa, J. & Rooke, A. (2009). Learning global citizenship? Exploring connections between the local and the global. *Education, Citizenship and Social Justice, 4*(2), 161–175.

McAleese, R. (1998). The knowledge arena as an extension to the concept map: Reflection in action. *Interactive Learning Environments, 6*, 1-22.

Moore, L.L., Williams, J., Boyd, B.L., & Elbert, C.D. (2011). International experiences of agricultural leadership and development seniors. *International Journal of Business Management and Economic Research, 2*(1), 117-123.

Munck, R. (2010). Civic engagement and global citizenship in a university context: Core business or desirable add–on? *Arts and Humanities in Higher Education, 9*(1), 31–41.

NAFSA: Association of International Educators. (2008). Strengthening study abroad:

Recommendations for effective institutional management for presidents, senior administrators, and study abroad professionals.

Radhakrishna, R.B. and Dominguez, D. (1999). Global awareness and understanding of governor school scholars: A four-year study. *Journal of International Agricultural and Extension Education, Fall*, 19-25.

Rhodes, G., Biscarra, A., Loberg, L. & Roller, K. (2012), Study abroad as a collaborative endeavor. *About Campus, 16*(6), 2–10. doi: 10.1002/abc.20081

Roberts, T.G. (2006). A philosophical examination of experiential learning theory for agricultural educators. *Journal of Agricultural Education, 47*(1), 17-29.

Rosch, D. & Coers, N. (2013). How are we educating agricultural students? A national profile of leadership capacities and involvement in college compared to non-agricultural peers. *Journal of Agricultural Education, 54*(1), 83-96. doi: 10.5032/jae.2013.01083

Tonkin, H. & Quiroga, D. (2004). A qualitative approach to the assessment of international service–learning. Frontiers: *The Interdisciplinary Journal of Study Abroad 10*,131–149.

Weimer, M. (2002). *Learner-centered teaching: Five key changes to practice*. Jossey-Bass: San Francisco.

Wingenbach, G.J., Boyd, B.L., Lindner, J.R., Dick, S., Arispe, S., & Haba, S. (2003). Students' knowledge and attitudes about international agricultural issues. *Journal of International Agricultural and Extension Education, 10*(3), 25-35.

Zhai, L. & Scheer, S.D. (2004). Global perspectives and attitudes toward cultural diversity among summer agriculture students at the Ohio State University. *Journal of Agricultural Education, 45*(2), 39-51.

Cultivating Visionary Leaders to Transform Our World

Natalie Coers
University of Florida

Abstract

Vision has long been a quality and characteristic defining leadership. To cultivate vision among undergraduate students in a course, the United Nations' Sustainable Development Goals are utilized as a foundation to inspire a vision that connects local service and personal interests to global, complex issues. Students select a goal to work with for various projects throughout their courses in a program, culminating with the selection of a goal to build a vision around for future contribution as leaders in our world. Student feedback indicated a positive impact of the SDGs on the awareness of global issues and the role each can play at the local level for progress to continue moving forward.

Introduction

The Sustainable Development Goals provide an excellent exemplar for international collaboration toward leading global change through inclusive strategies and coalition building. In September 2000, the United Nations Millennium Declaration outlined fundamental values for international relations and a resolve to address issues of peace, security and disarmament, development and poverty education, protection of our common environment, human rights, democracy and good governance, and others to strengthen the ties within the United Nations. The subsequent Millennium Campaign – also known as the Millennium Development Goals – identified eight specific goals for global leaders to attain by 2015, including: End Hunger, Universal Education, Gender Equity, Child Health, Maternal Health, Combat HIV/AIDS, Environmental Sustainability, and promoting Global Partnership. Each of these broad areas included specific targets to be reached by 2015; though significant progress has been made through the MDGs, focus must remain on fighting hunger and poverty to establish global food security for the world's poorest (Feed the Future, 2014; FAO, IFAD, and WFP, 2015). The post-2015 agenda process reassessed what global needs should take priority on the international leadership stage through an inclusive process that included a social media campaign and several multi-level stakeholder meetings. The Sustainable Development Goals were approved in September 2015, with the official campaign launch in January 2016. Seventeen goals now set forth an ambitious agenda for our world leaders, including the areas of poverty alleviation, zero hunger, clean water and sanitation, climate action, responsible consumption and production, quality education, etc. For lasting change to occur, more developmental efforts will be needed – beyond relief and rehabilitation – and may require collaboration across various organizations with similar purposes (Corbett and Fikkert, 2012). To achieve such ambitious goals, local understanding and action are needed through engagement in education.

Background

Over the past 20 years, the internationalization of curricula within agriculture and leadership development disciplines, as well as the overall higher education student experience, has

continued to develop in both popularity and research efforts (Altbach & Knight, 2007; Moore, Williams, Boyd, & Elbert, 2011). Deardorff (2011) describes internationalization in postsecondary education as efforts both through the curriculum and through co-curricular activities that bring intercultural elements to a student's experience in college. A key outcome of internationalization activities in institutions of higher education is the development of intercultural competence – defined as "effective and appropriate communication and behavior in an intercultural situation: - in participating students (Deardorff, 2006, p. 66). Numerous youth and collegiate leadership programs utilize the Social Change Model (Komives, Wagner, & Associates, 2009; Wagner, Ostick, & Komives, 2009) with its presented individual, group, and societal/community values perspectives framing the eight "C" elements of the model: consciousness of self, congruence, commitment, collaboration, common purpose, controversy with civility, citizenship, and change. These elements are integrated into a reciprocal model to facilitate change. The National Leadership Education Research Agenda Priority Area VII "encompasses a focused charge for the development of global and intercultural competence and increased understanding of leadership in a global context" (Andenoro, et al., 2013, p. 25). The agenda also connects Priority VII to Priority VI (Social Change & Community Development), noting that "intercultural leadership promotes and advances social change in international contexts, with respect to systems-based and complexity-based leadership frameworks" (Andenoro, et al., 2013, p. 25). A deep understanding of creating positive change is a needed attribute to develop in learners to facilitate the forward progress of the global agenda set forth in the Sustainable Development Goals.

Description

The Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) are introduced to students through a classroom lecture within the first few weeks of the semester. This lesson provides the background regarding the formation of the SDGs, an overview of the structure of the goals and their respective progress, targets, and indicators. Students are encouraged to identify with one or more of the goals as it pertains to their personal and/or professional interests. Students then utilize one of the SDGs as a connection point for selecting an individual organization to serve within for the duration of the semester(s) to reach a minimum of 25 hours. The SDGs are interspersed throughout additional curriculum items, culminating in the global vision assignment. This assignment challenges students to critically think about their selected SDG and determine a vision for a project, initiative, or organization they would like to pursue in the future if their personal financial state were not a factor. They must indicate the endeavor's meaningfulness, timeline for implementation, key stakeholders, and impact on the identified SDG and community. The concept is then presented in a fashion similar to a pitch for investors to grasp their concept and plan. An initial inquiry through a programmatic portfolio question provided feedback to the impact of including the Sustainable Development Goals as part of the curriculum. Seven of ten students submitting portfolios answered the SDG prompt as a part of their reflection; their feedback is discussed below.

Current Results

Student 1: "The fact the Millennium [Sustainable] Development Goals were included early on, really helped set this opening into motion and more importantly for me to show that globally

there are many issues that are plight us all such as education, health and environment. These issues may just take different forms but the root issue is the same, we all could improve in many ways."

Student 2: "The focus on the Millennium and Sustainable Development Goals re-opened my eyes to global issues. My high school geography and history classes focused a lot on world problems, but my classes in college have mostly been specifically related only to course content. The MDGs and SDGs have helped me remember that there is a whole world outside of college, and that it's possible for us as leaders to make a difference in the world. We all have diverse interests and skills, and I think with the right amount of motivation and planning, all of us in the program are capable of doing something that's going to help the progress of several of these goals."

Student 3: "Prior to my inclusion in this program I had not heard of the Millennium Development Goals, and it was incredibly exciting to learn more about what global leaders are doing to address some of the most complex problems our world is facing."

Student 4: "I thoroughly enjoyed learning more about the Millennium Development Goals and Sustainable Development Goals. I was unaware that either existed before this program and it brings facts and figures in a simple demographic that everyone can understand to really see what needs to be done."

Student 5: "The Millennium Development Goals really illustrated the scope of problems that our world faces. While you hear about global issues such as world hunger and climate change as pressing issues, you do not realize the severity of the problems until you are given numbers. It was also interesting because it is easy to get caught up in your field of interest, so there are many MDGs that I never thought of as being such a huge world problem as they just weren't in my frame of reference. The MDGs proved to be very eye opening. In a different light, it is endearing to see the world coming together to try and solve such devastating global issues. The MDGs were very humbling and by incorporating these goals into multiple assignments it really demonstrated to us how every little bit, even if it is not directly related to the exact goal helps achieve them."

Student 6: "The Millennium Development Goals helped to broaden my understanding of global issues. It is too easy to narrow your worldview to only your life and the things that directly impact you. Even your career narrows your worldview. As a future veterinarian, I used to only concern myself with animal-related issues, however there are so many more issues in the world, and they are all connected. We don't get to pick and choose that the global issues are or are not. The Millennium Development Goals also helped to categorize overwhelming issues in a way that are easier to grasp and for someone like myself who doesn't have a strong background in humanitarian issues."

Student 7: "The inclusion of Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) brought reality into the picture. It made me realize why I was working to become a leader in the first place. The awareness of MDGs is almost like an elephant being in the room sometimes because it seems like we have all the resources and man power to solve some of these problems but people are not

working together or sharing ideas to try to solve these problems. It makes learning about leadership even more important to me."

Conclusions/Recommendations

A brief qualitative review of the initial comments regarding the inclusion of the Sustainable Development Goals provided encouragement for the instructor to pursue additional research inquiries. Future research will address the various aspects of the SDG lesson, knowledge gained through the creative process, and integration of the SDGs into the programmatic curriculum. This future research could offer leadership educators a key resource to promoting critical and creative thinking around global issues, as well as help students connect local actions to global initiatives toward a deeper understanding of their role in making a difference within a complex world.

References

Altbach, P.G. & Knight, J. (2007). The internationalization of higher education: Motivations and realities. *Journal of Studies in International Education, 11*(3/4), 290-305.

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

Corbett, S., & Fikkert, B. (2012). When helping hurts: How to alleviate poverty without hurting the poor...and yourself. Chicago: Moody Publishers.

Deardorff, D. K. (2006). Identification and assessment of intercultural competence as a student outcome of internationalization. *Journal of Studies in International Education, 10*, 241-266.

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

Feed the Future. (2014). Feed the Future progress report: Accelerating progress to end global hunger. www.feedthefuture.gov.

Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, International Fund for Agricultural Development, and World Food Programme. (2015). The State of Food Insecurity in the World. Meeting the 2015 international hunger targets: taking stock of uneven progress. Rome: Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations.

Komives, S.R. & Wagner, W., & Associates. (2009). Leadership for a better world. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Moore, L.L., Williams, J., Boyd, B.L., & Elbert, C.D. (2011). International experiences of agricultural leadership and development seniors. *International Journal of Business Management and Economic Research, 2*(1), 117-123.

Wagner, W., Ostick, D. T. & Komives, S. R. (2009). Leadership for a better world: Understanding the social change model of leadership development (Instructor's Manual). Online: National Clearinghouse for Leadership Programs. Accessed from https://nclp.umd.edu/publications/Default.aspx.

Identifying the Most Critical Competencies for Entry-Level Leader Lawyers: The Importance of Relational Leadership and Professionalism Competencies

Christopher R. Leupold, Sarah Kowalkowski, Sibley Fillett, & Alicia Norton
Elon University

Abstract

The general legal education curriculum has come under heavy criticism over the recent decades, primarily because of its continued focus on its 'traditional' form of teaching. While law school educators and administrators remain heavily dedicated to teaching doctrinal content (i.e., torts, civil procedure, etc.), they do so at the expense of developing the leadership and broader professionalism skills that their graduating students sorely need. The current study is a qualitative investigation which sought to identify the particular skills and competencies that employers deemed most essential for new entry-level lawyers to possess. The transcripts of 21 separate interviews with a cross-section of subject matter experts (i.e., career services administrators and practicing attorneys of varying levels of experience) were content analyzed to identify common themes and trends. Results found that there was strong agreement among these experts that multiple relational leadership competencies and other general attributes related to professionalism were as at least if not more critical than traditional technical competencies. These findings are discussed, as are their implications for legal education.

Introduction

Attending law school requires tremendous financial, time, and emotional investments for those seeking careers in the legal profession. As such, it is imperative that law schools ensure that their graduates are fully prepared to embark on successful careers. In 1992, the American Bar Association published the hallmark MacCrate Report which called into question whether law school curricula were truly preparing students for employment success. More specifically, the report lamented the fact that, while schools continue to teach standard doctrinal courses like torts, criminal law, and civil procedure; they devote little to no attention to practice and leadership skills like planning, facilitation, and conflict management. The current qualitative study sought to identify the competencies that employers found most critical for entry-level lawyers. The results from this study and others like it add to the concern that lawyers, and particularly entry-level ones, may often be ill-equipped to perform in the roles they worked so hard to attain because they lack the interpersonal and softer skills associated with relational leadership.

Background

The process of educating professionals is highly complex and dependent upon the ability of several areas of focus to fuse and form a well-rounded education system. Law school curricula have historically focused primarily on theoretical scholarship, abstract theory, and legal interpretation in order to provide students with well-honed legal analytical skills (Hall, 2005; Smith & Marrow, 2009; Sullivan, Colby, Wegner, Bond, & Shulman, 2007). In the first year in particular, the curricular focus is primarily on students' gaining an understanding of legal

processes, analyzing cases from various perspectives, perfecting language skills, and providing other experiences that enable students to begin "thinking like a lawyer" (Sullivan et al., 2007; Smith & Marrow, 2009). In 1992, the American Bar Association formed a task force to examine among other issues the state of legal education; the summary outcome of this study is widely referred to in the field as the MacCrate Report (1992). This body reminded legal educators of their enormous role in planning for changes within the legal profession and cautioned them from avoiding "responsibility for some of the more grievous shortcomings of the profession" (Howland & Lindberg, 1993, p. 4). In 2007, the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching's two-year study on legal education concluded that most current law school curricula were insufficient and failed to nurture the full development of students' professional competence or identity. As such, this report made a strong call for an integrated approach to better educate future lawyers by emphasizing a more well-rounded skill professional skill set to better serve clients and enjoy a personally fulfilling career. Although the authors did not cite the model specifically, they were in essence describing the Relational Leadership Model (RLM; Komives et al., 2013), which describes leadership as "a relational and ethical process of people together attempting to accomplish positive change." Moreover, this model is fundamentally built on the active inclusion of members and empowering them to share in the leadership process by engaging in such behaviors such as facilitating dialogue, communicating effectively, and inspiring others. Twenty years later, however, many of the same curricular concerns in these earlier reports were noted by Bilek et al. (2013) in their own report on the state of legal education.

A small, but growing, cadre of researchers and educators has made similar cases for a more well-rounded legal education to optimally prepare lawyers, particularly in light of the current legal profession landscape. Regarding the changing nature and expectations of the legal profession Smith and Marrow (2008) note that, "simply ensuring high levels of technical skills and professional expertise is no longer sufficient. Attorneys must adopt new and enhanced leadership skills as well. The well-worn, familiar, tried-and-true methods and lessons of the past are, and will be, inadequate" (p. 1). As these organizational psychologists point out, law firms and practitioners are finding a host of other competencies are essential for optimal client service and a rewarding personal professional career. MacFarlane (2008) also suggests that the many changes in the "structural, economic and procedural character of legal practice" have not led to recognizable changes in "the ways in which students are primed to enter the practice" (p. 14).

Cullen (2010) argues that entry-level lawyers, who are now competing with more lawyers than ever before, must be able to "successfully navigate their clients through an ever-increasing sea of laws, regulations, and sophisticated business concepts in a way that separates themselves from their competition" in order to lead a successful career (p. 9). Cullen suggests that leadership skills and exceptional client service will be key components that distinguish one new attorney from another (p. 9). As an initial step to empirically determining identifying the broad array of skills required for successful lawyer, prominent organizational psychologist Sheldon Zedeck and legal scholar Marjorie Shultz (2008) conducted a massive investigation in which they identified 26 competencies that included, among 'legal' ones related to legal research and writing, other 'softer' and 'personal' ones like seeing the world through the eyes of others, stress management, and personal development. The prominent consulting firm, the Center for Creative Leadership,

has proposed a similar type model in making its case for the 'Lawyer Leader' (Smith & Marrow, 2008).

The absence of opportunity to develop a broader array of nondoctrinal knowledge and professional skills within the curricula creates a challenge for legal students to maintain confidence in their ability to succeed as a lawyer (Sullivan et al., 2007). Standard 302 of the American Bar Association Section of Legal Education Admission to the Bar Standards Review Committee reiterated the need for a new set of defined learning outcomes that address competencies in areas of legal theory and procedure, professional skills, and the values of the legal profession. Though these proposals for change have provided fairly vague guidelines as to specific outcomes, a few law schools around the nation are beginning to make changes in their curriculum to include experiential learning requirements and provide more flexible learning environments that foster the development of tangible legal analysis and professional skills (Mangan, 2011). However, particularly if the focus is on best preparing law graduates for their first job, the first step is to determine what employers' expectations are around competencies are for entry-level lawyers. The current qualitative and descriptive study aims to answer this question.

Methodology

Participants

A total of 21 (8 males, 13 females) individuals from North Carolina and who had intimate knowledge of entry-level lawyer performance expectations were interviewed. This convenience sample included 14 private practice lawyers (6 of whom were trial attorneys), 1 in-house council, and 6 career services professionals. The sample was designed to be a cross section of employment perspectives, so included people from large and small firms with experience ranging from three years post law school graduate to over 25.

Procedure

Semi-structured phone interviews ranging from 20 to 60 minutes were conducted and recorded verbatim. Prior to the interview, the participants were provided with a sample of the questions in order to help 'prime' them to talk about entry-level lawyer expectations. Participants were prompted with the questions:

"What do you think are the most important competencies or job skills that new law school graduates need to have?"

"Tell me about the best/worst new lawyer you ever observed. What sorts of things did they do that made them so great/poor?"

Participants were probed to provide specific behavioral examples to these questions. All 21 interviews were transcribed in their entirety and entered into the Atlas TI Software in preparation for an inductive qualitative analysis. Two analysts compared their individual behavior codings to determine inter-rater reliability, and achieved an agreement rate of 60.2%. The analysts and

another researcher then engaged in an iterative process to identify 14 competencies that minimized overlap and redundancy while capturing all reported behaviors. This was done to establish a manageable number of competencies.

Results

The final set of competencies were examined for the relative frequency each was identified among the 21 participants; based on this, they were grouped by relative importance. Those which were identified by at least half the participants were deemed 'critical' and those identified by at least 20 of the 21 participants were labeled 'most critical.' The findings are presented in Table 1.

Table 1
Summary of Relative Criticality of Competencies for Entry-Level Lawyers as Determined by Subject Matter Experts

Most Critical Competencies/Skills:
- Interpersonal Soft Skills, Communication, Work Ethic, Internal Stakeholder Relationships, External Stakeholder Relationships

Critical Competencies/Skills:
- Professionalism, Humility/Respectful, Confidence, Writing Skills, Adaptable, Ask Questions/Observe, Business Skills, Practical Skills, Intellectual Capacity

Other Important Competencies/Skills:
- Time Management, Ethics, Conducting Research, Academic Knowledge, Activity in Community, Technological Skills, Critical Thinking, Preparedness, Maturity, Specialization, Detail Oriented, Organization Skills, Leadership

The results here show that the overwhelming majority of highly critical competencies for entry-level lawyers relate to 'softer' or 'more personal' skills typically not found in law school curricula but are necessary for effective relational leadership. While competencies related to critical thinking and writing skills are certainly essential for new lawyers' success, they were mentioned no more than management relationships and communication.

Conclusions & Next Steps

This study builds on the work of Schultz and Zedeck and their 26 Success Factors in that it helps prioritize them, and particularly for the population of lawyers who have the most heightened sense of urgency as to how to succeed. To note, the aim of this study was to prioritize a general set of competencies that would be applicable across a range of entry-level legal jobs. Future studies could examine whether specific differences exist, for example, between corporate and private practice firms. However, as the results echo themes and findings of previous studies and the participants' responses tended to coalesce around similar themes; it appears that the competencies identified do reflect the importance of skills not taught in doctrinal courses and are generally ignored in legal education.

Further research should examine how these competencies and skills might be more intentionally infused into coursework, which is admittedly a challenge given ABA regulations and precious class time. Perhaps legal educators' infusing more live and face-to-face simulations, project work, and intentional learning outcomes in clinics and internships will better prepare their students and society's future lawyer leaders. Additionally, as is often done in other professions, examining how the relative priority of competencies changes over the course of a lawyer's professional career would be fruitful. This would provide insight into job expectations and career planning, as well as training and development for individuals across their careers.

References

Bilek, M.L., Camper, D., Dennis, R.J., Dinerstein, R.D., Garth, B.G., Gasaway, L.N., Haddon, P.A., Hertz, R., Thiem, R.S. (2013). *Twenty years after the MacCrate Report: A review of the current state of the legal education continuum and the challenges facing the academy, bar, and judiciary.* Chicago, IL: American Bar Association.

Cullen, R.W. (2010). *The leading lawyer: A guide to practicing law and leadership*. Thomson Reuters.

Hall, L.E. (2005). What makes for good lawyering. *Transcript, summer,* 22-24.

Komives, S.N., Lucas, R., & McMahon, T.R. (2013). McMahon, T.R. (2013). *Exploring leadership: For college students who want to make a difference* (3rd ed.). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Mangan, K. (2011, February 27). Law schools revamp their curricula to teach practical skills. *The Chronicle of Higher Education*.

MacFarlane, J. (2008) *The new lawyer: How settlement is transforming the practice of law.* Vancouver, Canada: UBC Press.

MacCrate, R., Martin, P.W., Winograd, P.A., & Norwood, J.M. (1992). Task force on law schools and the profession: Narrowing the gap. *ABA Section of Admissions to the Bar, Legal Education, and Professional Development – An Educational Continuum.* Chicago, IL: American Bar Association.

Shultz, M.M., & Zedeck, S. (2008). *Identification, development, and validation of predictors for successful lawyering*. Berkley, CA: Marjorie M. Shultz and Sheldon Zedeck.

Smith, R.B. & Marrow, P.B. (2008). The changing nature of leadership in law firms. Greensboro, NC: Center for Creative Leadership (reprint from the *New York State Bar Journal, 80,* 2008).

Sullivan, W.M., Colby, A., Wegner, J.W., Bond, L., & Shulman, L.W. (2007). *Educating lawyers: Preparation for the profession of law*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Surfacing the Iceberg of Leadership:
A New Taxonomy of Leadership Concepts and Theories

D. Adam Cletzer
University of Missouri

Eric K. Kaufman
Virginia Tech

Abstract

Leadership scholars have long sought to impose order on the numerous theories in leadership literature. While mid-level theories abound, no taxonomy exists to provide hierarchy and a mechanism for explaining how theories interrelate. This poster offers a new taxonomy for organizing leadership theories and concepts based on the metaphor of an iceberg. It invites leadership scholars to vet their own leadership courses and undergraduate leadership programs to determine the depth to which they explore leadership.

Introduction/Need for Idea

Leadership scholars have long sought to impose order on the numerous and sundry traits, skills, behaviors, styles, approaches, and other concepts and theories in the leadership literature. Northouse (2013) organizes his taxonomy to mirror the chronological progression of academic research (e.g., traits approach, skills approach, etc.); Jackson and Parry (2011) organize their taxonomy by the primary focus of the theory (e.g., leader-centered perspectives, follower-centered perspectives, and distributed perspectives).

While these taxonomies are useful for summarizing and critiquing the literature, they do not offer a hierarchy of leadership concepts, nor do they adequately explain how concepts may interrelate — there is little integration of the many mid-level theories (Bass, 1990; Chemers, 2000; Yukl, 2006). This can leave leadership students unsure of how to integrate the theories and concepts presented in leadership courses. It can also leave undergraduate and, particularly, graduate leadership programs without a clear progression of coursework.

In this abstract, I offer a new taxonomy of leadership concepts in an attempt to provide a clear hierarchy for leadership literature and a framework for discussing the interrelatedness of both longstanding and emergent leadership concepts and theories. I use the metaphor of an iceberg because: (a) it provides a conceptual model for moving from a more superficial, surface level understanding of leadership to a more fundamental, deeper understanding of leadership, and (b) it implies that we often only scratch the surface of leadership in our courses and programs.

Methodology

Fleishman and Quaintance (1984) identify three basic principles of taxonomic science required of any classification effort. First, articulate an explicit definition of each domain. Second, establish the defining variables of each domain. Third, provide a mechanism for the evaluation of

the classification scheme. These basic principles, combined with a review of leadership literature, were utilized to establish the following taxonomy.

How It Works/Steps

The proposed taxonomy has six levels. From the most superficial, surface level, to the most fundamental, deepest level, they are: (a) Leader Identity, (b) Leader Strategy, (c) Leader-on-follower Forces, (d) Follower-on-leader Forces, (e) Complexity Forces, and (f) Biological Forces. I begin with the most fundamental, deepest level and continue through the most superficial, surface level.

Biological Forces

Biological Forces is defined as innate biological conditions in humans that predispose us to seek out and engage with others in groups. This level is concerned with understanding the biological factors that result in the universality of leadership — the idea that leadership is a universal phenomenon in humans (Bass & Bass, 2009). Humans evolved as group-living animals, and, according to evolutionary psychology, developed universal needs that drive individual and group behavior: (a) attention and approval, (b) status hierarchy, and (c) meaning, structure, and order (Hogan, Curphy, Kaiser, & Chamorro-Premuzic, In Press). This level forms the fundamental conditions for humans interacting to manifest leadership across all cultures and all time.

Complexity Forces

Complexity Forces borrows its definition from complexity science, which is the process by which "emergent structures are produced by a combination of microdynamic…and macrodynamic forces" (Marion & Uhl-Bien, 2001, p. 392). This level is concerned with understanding the phenomena by which myriad interactions of humans lead to the emergence of structures and behaviors that we recognize as leadership and the products of leadership (e.g., organizations, social movements, communities) in our society. This level includes such frameworks as complexity leadership theory (Lichtenstein et al., 2006). If Biologic Forces provides the innate desire to engage in leadership, Complexity Forces provides the mechanism that translates those micro-level interactions of humans into identifiable macro-level structures.

Follower-on-Leader Forces

Follower-on-Leader Forces is defined as societal forces that serve to select, enable, constrain, or otherwise influence leaders in a given society. This level focuses on the manner and degree to which societal forces influence who is chosen as a leader and how, such as discursive elements that inform society's understanding of what a leader is, what leadership should be, and how followers should orient themselves to leaders in a particular time period (Western, 2013). It is also concerned with the manner in which followers, *en masse*, seek to extract from leaders their universal needs described above. Examples include Heifetz's (1998) concept of flight to authority.

Leader-on-Follower Forces

Leader-on-Follower Forces is defined as individual forces that serve to influence thoughts, emotions, and behaviors in followers. This level is concerned with the influence of individual leaders on followers, and the manner in which leaders provide for the universal needs of followers described above. This level includes such theories as transformational leadership theory (Bass, 1985).

Leader Strategy

Leader Strategy is defined as recognized and accepted social mechanisms utilized by leaders and followers, together. This level focuses on the practices, processes, and organizational structures put in place by leaders with followers' consent in a given society and time. This includes Path-Goal Theory (House, 1971), but also the many normative forms of organizational interaction, such as teams, communities, and social movements, as well as more hierarchical or more ecological organizations.

Leader Identity

Leader Identity is defined as the personal, internalized amalgamation of traits, skills, and behaviors that a given society in time believes a leader should possess. This level focuses on identifying individuals as leaders, with particular attention paid to the evolutionary nature of this phenomenon across time and culture. This level includes such theories as traits approach (e.g., Stogdill, 1948) and skills approach (e.g., Katz, 1955).

Implications/Future Plans/Advice to Others

It is likely that a majority of leadership theories and, no doubt, leadership education programs focus on the most superficial of levels (i.e., Leader Identity, Leader Strategy, and Leader-on-Follower Forces), as these are the levels most immediate to the needs of those wishing to engage in leadership. However, the more fundamental three levels provide tremendous context for our understanding of leadership and predictive power for what trends may come.

While this taxonomy certainly needs refinement, it may provide a useful instrument to gauge the level of depth undergraduate and graduate leadership education programs plumb, as well as a guide for organizing content in individual courses. Future plans include further development of the taxonomy according to Fleishman and Quaintance's (1984) method, including more robust descriptors of each domain's variables and a method of evaluating the system.

References

Anderson, N., Ones, D. S., Sinangil, H. K., & Viswesvaran, C. (Eds.). (2001). *Handbook of industrial, work & organizational psychology: Volume 1: Personnel psychology*. Sage.

Bass, B. M. (1985). *Leadership and performance beyond expectation.* New York: Free Press.

Bass, B. M. (1990). *Bass and Stogdill's handbook of leadership: Theory, research, and managerial applications* (3rd ed.). New York: Free Press.

Bass, B. M., & Bass, R. (2009). *The Bass handbook of leadership: Theory, research, and managerial applications.* Simon and Schuster.

Chemers, M. M. (2000). Leadership research and theory: A functional integration. *Group Dynamics, 4,* 37–43.

Fleishman, E. A., & Quaintance, M. K. (1984). *Taxonomies of human performance: The description of human tasks.* Orlando, FL: Academic Press.

Heifetz, R. A. (1998). *Leadership without Easy Answers.* Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Hogan, R., Curphy, G., Kaiser, R. B., & Chamorro-Premuzic, T. (In Press). Leadership in Organizations. In N. Anderson, D. S. Ones, H. K. Sinangil, & C. Viswesvaran (Eds.) *The Sage Handbook of Industrial, Work, and Organizational Psychology: Volume 2 Organizational Psychology.* London: SAGE.

Hogg, M. A. (2001). A social identity theory of leadership. *Personality and social psychology review*, *5*(3), 184-200.

House, R. J., & Mitchell, T. R. (1975). *Path-goal theory of leadership* (No. TR-75-67). Washington University of Seattle University.

Jackson, B., & Parry, K. (2011). A very short, fairly interesting and reasonably cheap book about studying leadership. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.

Katz, R. L. (1955). Skills of an effective administrator. *Harvard Business Review, 33*(1), 33-42.

Lichtenstein, B. B., Uhl-Bien, M., Marion, R., Seers, A., Orton, J. D., & Schreiber, C. (2006). Complexity leadership theory: An interactive perspective on leading in complex adaptive systems. Retrieved from http://digitalcommons.unl.edu/managementfacpub/8/.

Marion, R., & Uhl-Bien, M. (2001). Leadership in complex organizations. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *12*(4), 389–418.

Northouse, P. G. (2013). *Leadership theory and practice* (6th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Stogdill, R. M. (1974). *Handbook of leadership: A survey of theory and research.* New York: Free Press.

Western, S. (2013). *Leadership: A Critical Text*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Yukl, G. A. (2006). *Leadership in organizations* (6th ed.). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

How does leadership education shape students' definitions of leadership? Insights from the Multi-institutional Study of Leadership

Eric K. Kaufman, John Thornton, & Jama Coartney
Virginia Tech

Abstract

The Multi-institutional Study of Leadership (MSL) is an international research program focused on understanding the influences of higher education in shaping socially responsible leadership capacity and other related student outcomes. While there have been numerous reports on the quantitative findings from the MSL, the published research tends to ignore data from the qualitative prompt: "Please provide a brief definition of what the term leadership means to you." By coding and categorizing those responses, we are able to explore the relationship between the students' definitions and their participation in leadership education program activities. This poster will highlight emerging findings from one institution's MSL data, including analysis of 1,570 definitions of leadership.

Introduction

The Multi-institutional Study of Leadership (MSL) is an international research program focused on understanding the influences of higher education in shaping socially responsible leadership capacity and other related student outcomes (Dugan, Kodama, & Correia, 2013; Dugan & Komives, 2007). The MSL covers more than 400 different variables, including questions about leadership efficacy, social perspective-taking, mentoring relationships, academic college experiences, formal leadership training experience, community service involvement, etc. Leadership educators may have particular interest in the open-ended survey question: "Please provide a brief definition of what the term leadership means to you." However, published findings from the MSL generally highlight only quantitative analyses. To integrate the qualitative data into the MSL analyses, we can consider models and schemes for coding the definitions and then analyzing the relationships with other variables.

Background

In *Leadership: A Very Short Introduction*, Grint (2010) introduces four definitions of leadership: leadership as position, leadership as person, leadership as result, and leadership as process. While Grint's framework captures different perspectives, they are not mutually exclusive. There are a variety of scholarly commentaries discussing the complexities of Grint's framework. For a practical overview, though, Webster (2013) offers a helpful summary:

1. **Leadership as Position:** Position-based leadership assumes it is *where* people operate that makes them leaders. This view usually takes the form of authority in a formal hierarchy (e.g., the general or CEO). This definition implies that the character of the leader is less important than their position.

2. **Leadership as Person:** This definition of leadership emphasizes the importance of the person's character. Person-based — or character-based — leadership says it is *who* you are that makes you a leader.
3. **Leadership as Result:** With this definition of leadership we look at the results of leadership. Results-based leadership focuses on *what* leaders do.
4. **Leadership as Process:** The process-based definition of leadership considers the relationship between leader and practice. It is what leaders *do* that matters.

The Leadership Identity Development (LID) model provided by Komives and colleagues (2005) suggests the growth of our identity as leaders evolves through six stages. While the scholars who created the model provide a variety of academic writings on the stages, Ballard (2014) offers a helpful summary in practical terms:

1. **Awareness** – When we are children, we become aware that some people are called leaders. There are leaders in our culture, our community, our home. We develop the concept that some people are leaders.
2. **Exploration/Engagement** – As we grow older, most children and teenagers become involved in groups. We become active participants or followers in various group activities. We begin to develop relational skills, learning to interact with others.
3. **Leader Identified** – At this stage we recognize that some positions are for leaders. They direct us and get things done. Komives found high school students and some first year college students were at this stage.
4. **Leadership Differentiated** – At some point we realize the position leader may or may not be the actual leader. We realize leadership can emerge from followers. We enhance our group skills and participate more actively in group decisions. People who are already in formal leadership roles may feel empowered by their growing awareness of leadership and its possibilities.
5. **Generality** – We move beyond awareness of leadership processes to a larger sense of responsibility to the greater good. Leaders may become more compassionate and caring.
6. **Integration/Synthesis** – We know we are leaders, we have the capacity to lead, and we seek opportunities for self-improvement as a natural part of our lives.

Description of program, research, or methodology

This poster will highlight findings from one institution's data collected as part of the 2015 MSL. The total number of respondents for this sample was 1,686 college students. Of those, 1,570 provide an answer to the request for a definition of leadership. The research team coded the collected definitions using Grint's (2010) framework for definitions of leadership, as well as Komives and colleagues' (2005) Leadership Identity Development (LID) model. Two researchers independently coded the first 100 definitions, counted the discrepancies in ratings and calculated the inter-rater reliability to be 83%, which we considered sufficient for this exploratory research. After the leadership definitions were coded, we used SPSS to calculate descriptive statistics and bivariate correlations, focusing particularly on the MSL variables associated with Leadership Education.

Current results

Based on coding of definitions from one institution's MSL respondents (n=1,570), we identify the dominant perspective within Grint's (2010) framework as "leadership as process" (71%, n=1,122). The other areas are "leadership as person" (29%, n=458), "leadership as result" (24%, n=375), and "leadership as position" (20%, n=314). Related to the Leadership Identity Development (LID) model provided Komives and colleagues (2005), the dominant stage is level 4, "leadership differentiated" (95%, n=1,497). The next most common LID stage identified was level 5, "generativity" (4%, n=62). For examples of leadership definitions associated with each category, see Table 1.

As we consider the relationship between leadership definitions and leadership experiences, we explored bivariate correlations between the coded definitions and students' leadership development experiences while in college. Preliminary analysis reveals significant correlations with the following variables:

- Since starting college, have you ever participated in a leadership training or leadership education experience of any kind (ex: leadership conference, alternative spring break, leadership course, club president's retreat)? (ENV10)
- Since starting college, to what degree have you been involved in the following types of leadership training or education?
    - Leadership Conference (ENV10A1)
    - Leadership Retreat (ENV10A2)
    - Leadership Lecture/Workshop Series (ENV10A4)
    - Positional Leader Training (ex. Treasurer's training, Resident Assistant training, Student Government training) (ENV10A5)
    - Leadership Course (ENV10A7)
    - Living-Learning Leadership Program (ENV10A12)
    - Women's Leadership Program (ENV10A15)
- Leadership Minor - Since starting college, have you been involved in the following types of leadership training or education? (ENV10A8)

Conclusions/Recommendations

Our classification of the leadership definitions reflects what scholars might expect, based on what has already been revealed in the literature about the two frameworks. The coded definitions may be most valuable for considering the relationship with other variables. Although correlations do not convey causation, the relationships between leader development activities and students' definitions of leadership should be of interest to leadership educators. Additional analysis is warranted to uncover the most important predictors of a student's definition of leadership. This poster presentation can be a catalyst for conversations about practical considerations and ideas for future research.

Table 1
Sample leadership definitions and their relationship to Grint's (2010) approaches to leadership, as well as the Leadership Identity Development (LID) model provided Komives and colleagues (2005).

Leadership Definition	Approach to Leadership				LID Stage
	Position	Person	Result	Process	
"To me leadership is being able to bring people together to collectively reach an agreed upon goal. To inspire and encourage individuals and the group as a whole and to embrace differences within that collective. A leader should be approachable by colleges [sic] but firm with the power to make final decisions that has been appointed to them."	X	X	X	X	4
"Set the standard by example. Push others to do better and be better, while also pushing yourself. Getting done what needs to get done."		X	X	X	4
"Motivating and guiding yourself or a group through and obstacle or challenge to the end goal."			X	X	4
"Coordinating others."				X	3
"How one person influences others to a greater common good."				X	5
"I think leadership is something learned over time and while theories and can be taught, an effective leader has years of experience of both leading and following."				X	6
"Leadership is recognizing a goal and working to bring you and your team there."			X		4
"Joining people's talents and efforts to positively and effectively accomplish a goal."			X		4
"A person who inspires others through either direct or indirect contact and sets an example for others to follow."		X			4
"Demonstrating exemplary qualities that instill trust in those who follow you."		X			4
"In simplest terms, being followed by others."	X				4
"The position or function of a leader; a person who guides or directs a group."	X				4

References

Ballard, J. (2014). Leader Identity Development: Not Just for Colleges and Universities. Retrieved from http://www.johnballardphd.com/blog/leader-identity-development-not-just-for-colleges-and-universities

Dugan, J. P., Kodama, C., & Correia, B. (2013). Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership insight report: Leadership program delivery. *College Park, MD: National Clearinghouse for Leadership Programs.*

Dugan, J. P., & Komives, S. R. (2007). Developing leadership capacity in college students. *College Park, MD: National Clearinghouse for Leadership Programs*.

Grint, K. (2010). *Leadership: A very short introduction* (Vol. 237). New York, NY: Oxford University Press.

Komives, S. R., Owen, J. E., Longerbeam, S. D., Mainella, F. C., & Osteen, L. (2005). Developing a leadership identity: A grounded theory. *Journal of College Student Development, 46*(6), 593-611.

Webster, M. (2013). 4 Different Approaches to Leadership — A Definition of Leadership. Retrieved from http://www.leadershipthoughts.com/definition-of-leadership/

Determining How Participation in a Strengths-Based Curriculum Contributes to the Authentic Self-Awareness in First-Year College Students

J. "Clay" Hurdle
University of Florida

Abstract

This proposed research study will attempt to determine if participation in a StrengthsFinder curriculum affects the *authentic* self-awareness in first-year college students. Through a pre- and post-Strengths reflective essay, it is believed that first-year college students may articulate their synthesis of Strengths education in their daily life and throughout their campus leadership roles. Additionally, this study could provide insight linking the enrichment of these students' self-awareness and other elements of their authentic leadership development. Furthermore, results of this study may lead to the conduction of other, more generalizable studies that could prove useful to university students, university administrators, student affairs professionals, and leadership educators.

Introduction

For centuries, universities have worked to develop many of society's leaders. For example, in his 2016 state of the university address, University of Texas at Austin President Gregory Fenves noted his institution's role in the development of ethical leaders in a complex world that becomes more interconnected with each day (2016). Specifically, Fenves (2016) noted:

> High-quality education is the gateway to opportunity, and our unique role at The University of Texas is to educate the leaders of tomorrow … (para. 16) We educate students for leadership in a complex and interconnected world. Preparing leaders means providing the opportunity to learn with, and from, a wide range of people … (para 32).

In 2014, there were approximately 17.3 million students enrolled in an institution of higher learning (National Center for Education Statistics, 2016). Of that group, the vast majority were comprised of millennials, those who are considered by some scholars as society's problem solvers (NCES, 2016; Pew Research Center, 2016; Borges, Manuel, Elam, & Jones, 2010). Because of the complex systems which govern society and the multidimensional problems which it may face, leaders may find themselves in a state of disconnect with followers and even themselves. Ilies, Morgeson, and Nahrgang proposed that leaders who are more self-aware may experience a variety of positive outcomes, one of which is more positive relationships with others (2005). In an effort to cultivate leaders whose character and impact are genuine, it is important that universities consider the means by which their students develop their authentic leadership.

Background

Recent decades have seen a variety of controversial or negative occurrences which have adversely affected societal perspectives of leadership (Northouse, 2016). Examples may include

9/11, the Nixon and Clinton presidential scandals, corporate scandals with organizations such as Enron, or even broader, global crises such as the Financial Crisis of 2008. In general, people feel comforted by trustworthiness or leaders who are honest and genuine (Northouse, 2016). In light of the mentioned occurrences, there seems to be a general desire for leaders who are authentic (Northouse, 2016).

The term authenticity, finds its roots in Greek thought and deals with being true to oneself (Avolio & Gardner, 2005). Through the analysis of themes in positive psychology, transformational leadership, and authenticity, Avolio, Luthans, and Walumbwa (2004, p.4) determined that authentic leaders are:

> … those who are deeply aware of how they think and behave and are perceived by others as being aware of their own and others' values/moral perspectives, knowledge and strengths; aware of the context in which they operate; and who are confident, hopeful, optimistic, resilient, and of high moral character (as cited in Avolio, Gardner et al., 2004).

As leadership theory has evolved as a field of study, researchers have agreed that various types of leadership styles or approaches may somehow be developed by aspiring leaders (Northouse, 2016). Contrary to trait-based leadership theory, authenticity may be nurtured and developed in leaders (Northouse, 2016).

Although multifaceted, Avolio and Gardner note that leadership theorists are beginning to believe that self-awareness in leaders is a suitable point to begin considering the themes that comprise authentic leadership (2005). Self-awareness is then defined as the "… process where one continually comes to understand his or her unique talents, strengths, sense of purpose, core values, beliefs, and desires" (Avolio & Gardner, 2005, p. 324).

Basic Assumptions

Congruent with qualitative research practices, this study assumes that a clearer understanding of first year student's self-held perceptions of their authentic leadership development may be achieved through the recognition of the multifaceted nature of each student's life and the context surrounding his or her academic, extracurricular, and social achievements.

Within this study, it is assumed that participants:
1. Will attend the majority of their first year experience class sections throughout the semester
2. Will either purchase or be given a copy of the StrengthsFinder 2.0 book
3. Will take the StrengthsFinder assessment
4. Will maintain an open mind and engage in their Strengths education
5. Will participate regularly in class discussions
6. Will provide honest and detailed responses for both the pre- and post- Strengths philosophy statement

Finally, it is assumed that researcher bias could affect the interpretation of this study's data and adversely impact the study's credibility. Researcher roles and instrumentation are discussed further in the methodology section.

Purpose

The purpose of this qualitative study is to determine how participation in a Strengths-based curriculum contributes to the *authentic* self-awareness in first-year college students. Specifically, a StrengthsFinder education session, which includes an introduction to Strengths-based education, the 34 StrengthsFinder themes, and taking the StrengthsFinder quiz to determine one's Top 5, will serve as this study's independent variable.

This study's research objective is to understand how StrengthsFinder contributes to first year experience program's students' authentic self-awareness through the examination of four dependent variables. The aforementioned dependent variables are listed below:

1. Goal articulation
2. Identification of value and/or beliefs
3. Identity expression
4. Emotional revelation

These dependent variables are core components of authentic self-awareness as outlined by Avolio and Gardner (2005).

This study will also offer the chance to gauge how first-year students synthesize Strengths-based concepts in their writing. Furthermore, this study will offer the chance to describe any differences among selected demographics such as gender, academic discipline, and socioeconomic background.

Methodology

This qualitative study will involve students who participate in a first year experience program at a southern land-grant university during the academic year. The first year experience program in question consists of a one-credit course which aims to aid in the successful academic and social transition of the university's first-year students. Within the various sections of the class, course syllabi dedicate a portion of the semester to StrengthsFinder instruction.

Selection of the study participants will result from a one-stage random cluster sampling of the first year experience course's classes. The first year experience program is comprised of dozens of individual class sections which accounts for hundreds of students. This study would include no more than 50 students implying that two course sections should be sufficient for this study's protocol.

This study proposes that a pre- and post- Strengths leadership philosophy essay would serve as the mechanism for a content analysis that would seek to meet the study's research objective as it relates to the four dependent variables stated in the purpose section.

The pre- and post- Strengths philosophy essay would include a prompt guiding the students in an effort to have them articulate aspects of the study objectives. Responses would be limited to a minimum of 500 words. In both instances, students will have a week to write their philosophy statement, so that they may choose whatever environment they desire to write the essay. The students' responses will be recorded electronically through Qualtrics and will be authenticated by their university username and password credentials. To ensure the consistency of a contextualized learning environment, the Strengths instruction for each section would be provided by the same Gallup, Strengths-certified instructor.

Data Analysis

Data analysis for this project will be conducted as a content analysis of the leadership philosophy essays. The principal investigator and three co-investigators will each analyze the pre- and post-Strengths leadership philosophy essays individually. The four dependent variables, goal articulation, identification of value and/or beliefs, identity expression, and emotional revelation, will be assessed via scoring rubric.

Through the rubric, investigators will be able to rate each of the variables on three criterion: clarity, depth, and application to self. Investigators will be able to rank these on five point scale denoting how strong or weak each of the criterion areas is. Furthermore, the rubric will allow investigators to make observations about the frequency of and the synthesis of Strengths language and Strengths-specific concepts in the essays. Furthermore, observation will be made regarding the participants' writing tone so that it may be rated as on a scale that encompasses tones that are optimistic, neutral, or pessimistic.

The scoring rubric will be developed within Qualtrics and will be accessible to investigators only. The scoring instruments will be protected via the university server and faculty/staff password credential encryption.

Anticipated Conclusions, Possible Implications, and Prospective Contributions

Based on the results of this study, the design could be replicated and applied to other course sections of the first year experience program to analyze the writings of different subject pools to enrich data sets and attempt to establish commonality amongst different first-year student groups at this study's university. Furthermore, if the results of this and other such studies imply that there are some types of positive effects on the self-awareness and authentic leadership development in first-year students due to participation in a Strengths-based curriculum, quantitative studies could and likely should be developed to garner a numeric sense of the benefits, or lack thereof, associated with participation in such a curriculum. In this way, new findings could be generalized for the academic community of this study's university and for other university communities as well.

Furthermore, implications from this study and ensuing research endeavors like it could provide insight as to whether or not this study's university or other institutions of higher learning should institute a campus-wide Strengths-based curriculum in an effort to develop authentic student leaders. This insight, were it consistent enough, could then provide justification for further

research on StrengthsFinder curriculums and other curriculums based in personality indicators. This information could be useful organizations such as Gallup, True® Colors Intl., and DiSC® and the leadership education programs often found in university colleges of agriculture, business, and education. Furthermore, congruent with Avolio's affirmation that colleges and universities are typically concerned with leadership development as a part of either an institutional mission or goal (2010), this study could also prove useful to university administrators and student affairs professionals whose work focuses on student leadership development.

References

Avolio, B. J. (2010). Pursuing authentic leadership development. In N. Nohria & R. Khurania (Eds.), *Handbook of leadership theory and practice,* (pp. 739-768). Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Publishing Corporation.

Avolio, B. J., & Gardner, W. L. (2005). Authentic leadership development: Getting to the root of positive forms of leadership. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *16*(3), 315-338.

Avolio, B. J., Gardner, W. L., Walumbwa, F. O., Luthans, F., & May, D. R. (2004). Unlocking the mask: A look at the process by which authentic leaders impact follower attitudes and behaviors. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *15*(6), 801-823.

Avolio, B. J., Luthans, F., & Walumbwa, F. O. (2004). *Authentic leadership: Theory building for veritable sustained performance.* Lincoln: Gallup Leadership Institute.

Borges, N. J., Manuel, R. S., Elam, C. L., & Jones, B. J. (2010). Differences in motives between millennial and generation X medical students. *Medical Education*, *44*(6), 570-576.

Fenves, G. L. (2016, September). *State of the university address.* Speech presented to the University of Texas at Austin student body and faculty, Austin, Texas.

Fry, R. (2016). *Millennials overtake baby boomers as America's largest generation.* Retrieved from http://www.pewresearch.org/fact-tank/2016/04/25/millennials-overtake-baby-boomers/

Ilies, R., Morgeson, F. P., & Nahrgang, J. D. (2005). Authentic leadership and eudaemonic well-being: Understanding leader–follower outcomes. *The Leadership Quarterly, 16*(3), 373-394. doi: 10.1016/j.leaqua.2005.03.002

National Center for Education Statistics. (2016). *Characteristics of postsecondary students.* Retrieved from https://nces.ed.gov/programs/coe/indicator_csb.asp

Northouse, P. G. (2016). *Leadership: Theory and practice* (7th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

The Development and Maintenance of Social Identity within a Military Motorcycle Club: An Autoethnograhy

Dr. Todd Wiggen
Southwestern Oklahoma State University

Abstract

This autoethnographic study examined the development and maintenance of social identity within the context of a voluntary association, a military motorcycle club, the influence of social identity on individual behavior within the organization, and the impact of low salience on organizational identity, organizational stagnation and member attrition. Social identity theory was used as the theoretical basis to examine an individual's role and associated behaviors within the organization. Findings revealed that the application of transformational leadership practices positively affected the development and maintenance of social identity within a voluntary association, specifically the military motorcycle club. Additionally, transformational leadership practices positively influenced member retention. Findings further indicated that the strength of social identity tended to impact a member's *willingness* to serve as opposed to the *desire* to serve.

Introduction

The concept of social identity theory contends that individual behavior within a social group is influenced based on the meaning and expectations associated with the role to which an individual is assigned (Smith & Woodward, 2012). The social group may be a formal or informal association in which members maintain similar social standing (Stets & Burke, 2000). When an individual is placed in a social group, the associated identity is triggered (Stets & Carter, 2011). Once identity is triggered and group members develop stronger identification with that group, or salience, the more that group becomes a source of social norms and reality (Hirst, Van Dick & van Knippenberg, 2009). As a result, the individual will increase commitment to the organization and that commitment will positively influence the actions an individual may take in a given situation.

Members that maintain a strong identification with the organization, and their role within it, will tend to select leaders that seemingly possess characteristics that are prototypical of the group (Hogg, van Knippenberg & Rast, 2012b). Further, if a member develops a strong associated identity, and self-identifies as a prototypical member, they are more likely to seek leadership opportunities. Members that exude characteristics that are prototypical of group norms become more well-liked and more socially attractive to other members (Hogg, 2001). This allows the prototypical member to have greater influence upon other members. The prototypical member will have their ideas accepted more often than others which empower the leader to exercise influence (Hogg, 2001; Hogg, van Knippenberg & Rast, 2012b). Prototypical leaders are viewed as more representative of the organization and will garner the trust of the membership (Hirst, van Dick & van Knippenberg, 2009). However, if a member fails to develop or maintain a strong associated identity they are likely to reduce participation or leave the organization.

This autoethnographic study provided an in depth examination of the development and maintenance of social identity within a voluntary association, a military motorcycle club, and the subsequent impact on behavior and leadership within the organization during my 13 years of membership in the club. A voluntary association is an organization where members come together due to common interests (Gartner, 1993; Knoke & Prensky, 1984). Members may join or leave freely and do not derive income from their association. Members of the club merge multiple identities, including that of a military member or veteran, a family member, and a member of a motorcycle club, and develop a hierarchy based upon the importance of each role they identify with. Determining the order of role occupancy, the salience of a member's identities, and how the member learned role expectations are necessary to understand the impact that role has on participation and leadership behavior.

The motorcycle club subculture is unique in that it offers a social experience often closed to outsiders. The study not only added to the existing literature on the motorcycle club subculture but also applied social identity theory to a voluntary association. The growth and development of the club within the context of the development and maintenance of social identity was examined through reflexivity and chronicling past experiences, in-depth interviews with co-participants, and participant observation, which allowed a better understanding of the development and maintenance of roles and identities of club members and their influence on the organization (Adams, Jones & Ellis, 2015; Chang, 2008). The autoethnographic approach provided an in-depth examination of the leadership practices that I, and others, used to develop the organization and create a social identity for the club membership.

In 2002, I gathered a small group of active duty military members and reserve military members, who rode motorcycles, to form a military motorcycle club. The intent was to create an organization that resembled traditional motorcycle clubs but was specifically focused on a membership of like-minded military men and women that agreed that duty and family should be placed before the organization. Developing an organization from the ground up was more complex than initially imagined and required not only the creation of an organizational structure, but also the development of an identity while managing the politics within the motorcycle club subculture. The analysis of 13 years of documents and artifacts, interviews with members, and self-reflection revealed the significant changes in reputation, attitude, traditions and leadership of the club from its origins to its current state.

Background

Social identity forms through membership in specific groups or subcultures (Smith & Woodworth, 2012). However, research has demonstrated that a member's behavior and level of involvement with that group is contingent upon the commitment a member has to that social identity (Hogg, Van Knippenberg & Rast, 2012a). When membership, and the associated identity, is viewed positively and serves to reinforce how the individual wants to be regarded, the stronger the commitment to that identity becomes (Hogg, 2001; Hogg, 2005). Association with an organization creates a sense of belonging, develops an identity, and enhances self-esteem based on the positive image of the organization (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Fombelle, Jarvis, Ward & Ostrom, 2011; Ruderman & Ernst, 2010). However, the opposite is just as true as a negative

organizational image will create a situation in which the member may no longer consider their involvement as positive, thereby weakening the social identity role.

Although numerous studies are available that describe the impacts of social identification on individual and group behavior within an organization, fewer studies are available that address the methods in which an organization seeks to develop and reinforce a common identity among its members. While Hogg, van Knippenberg and Rast (2012b) concluded that leaders effectively create and manage the group image while increasing salience and intensifying members' identification with the organization, they failed to address how leaders may initially develop identity. There appears to be an inherent belief that individuals will associate with groups in which they identify with already. Common interests and a desire to associate are not the only factors in developing an identity conducive to an individual organization. According to Ashforth and Mael (1989), several organizations may share similar values and characteristics. Therefore, organizational identification and commitment are not necessarily tied directly to the values and goals of the organization.

Methodology

The study utilized an autoethnographic methodology combined with traditional ethnographic collection, including participant observation and interviewing. An autoethnographic case study is an appropriate research design to examine a voluntary association within the context of social identity theory. Autoethnography is a research method utilized to analyze and interpret the personal experiences of the researcher to better understand the culture being studied (Adams et al., 2015; Chang, 2008). Autoethnography is a form of ethnography that recognizes the importance of self in the study of culture (Chang, 2008). An ethnographic study is a qualitative methodology often used to describe groups or subcultures (Sangasubana, 2011). Ethnographic researchers look to describe the subculture under study through careful observation and participation with the group (Sangasubana, 2011). Utilizing an autoethnographic approach provided the ability to draw upon the researcher's experiences as a member of a motorcycle club, and as a participant within the motorcycle club subculture, to develop deep insightful data. Autoethnography provides a retrospective observation in which the researcher interprets their past based on current views and beliefs (Hamdan, 2012). Rejecting the notion that ethnographers should maintain objectivity, autoethnographers use personal experiences and subjectivity in their research (Adams et al., 2015). According to Ellis (2004), in autoethnographic work, validity is interpretive and relies on the context and the experiences that participants bring to the research. Qualitative researchers argue that validity is not appropriate within qualitative projects and create their own definition of validity, adopting terms considered more appropriate such as quality or rigor (Golafshani, 2003).

Autoethnography is not just a study of self (Chang, 2008). Although the researcher was the primary participant in the study, other individuals constitute the membership of the organization and are co-participants. The full population consisted of approximately 100 members that had completed an intake process to become full members. All members had served, or were serving, in one of the five U.S. military services. The co-participants included 15 members, consisting of individuals from each chapter and two former members of the club. To ensure that current members had been acclimated to the organizational culture and had a chance to develop a social

identity within the organization, co-participants were selected from those that have been a member for at least one year. Combined with a six-month prospect/probationary period, the selected co-participants had at least 18 months as affiliates in the organization. By ensuring that each co-participant had been a member of the organization for at least one year, each person had experienced club membership activities during riding and non-riding seasons, which reflected high and low periods of organizational activity.

Although most ethnographers initially approach the culture or subculture with the expressed intent of studying it, the researcher provides information through the analysis of phenomena experienced prior to actual data collection (Bergold & Thomas, 2012). Personal reflexivity provided the foundation of this autoethnographic study. Recalling past experiences within autoethnography is similar in principle to that of ethnographic studies in that autoethnography relies upon the researcher's personal memory and ethnographers rely on the memories of their informants (Chang, 2008).

In addition to personal reflexivity, participant observation, participant reflection, and in-depth, I utilized interactive interviews to better understand the behaviors and motivations of members of the organization. Participant observation allows the researcher to become actively involved and experience the phenomena as an insider (Mackellar, 2013; Fetterman, 2010). Participant observation is a common form of research in which researchers learn about activities of the individuals or groups being studied through observation and participation in those activities (Anderson-Facile, 2007; Kawulich, 2005; Mackellar, 2013). Interactive interviews and personal reflections were combined with textual data, which included field notes, journals, a review of historical documents, and personal communication from others. Further, casual contact with other members provided data that supported the research. Such interactions included social exchanges during charity rides, club runs, parties and other club related events where a formal interview was neither desired nor appropriate.

Findings

The results demonstrated that club leaders utilizing leadership principles associated to transformational leadership theory tended to develop methods associated with an increase in salience of the role of motorcycle club member. Positive leadership behaviors identified through participant observation, reflexivity and participant interviews aligned with transformational leadership in that transformational leaders engage in actions that stimulate esprit de corps, such as modeling organizational values, placing the needs of the club in front of self, and fostering a sense of purpose (Grant & Hogg, 2012). Transformational leaders will create and articulate an organizational vision that appeals to the desires of the members (Bacha & Walker, 2013; Kouzes & Posner, 2012). Early club leaders created a vision of a motorcycle club that consisted of military members and was family friendly. Further, the results reinforced the social identity theory of leadership in that members tended to choose leaders that reflected the values and ideals of the motorcycle club (DeRue & Ashford, 2010). Unexpectedly, the results demonstrated that greater salience did not impact a member's desire to seek a leadership position. Instead, greater salience impacted a member's willingness to lead. The majority of interviewed members indicated that other members had recruited them and, based on the needs of the club, they stepped up to the position. Movement toward a membership intake process that emphasized

earning club membership created positive social identity and the perception by members that attrition declined. Leader behavior, identified as negative by club members, contributed to a breakdown of social identity. Ego-driven decision-making, not listening to the opinions of others, poor communication, and displaying a lack of respect for others contributed to the departure of members, and entire chapters, from the club.

Recommendations

The recommendations included specific suggestions for both the military motorcycle club that served as the primary research subject and suggestions for future research. Practical applications included are continual refinement of the probate process, addition of a mentorship program, expanding award opportunities, and reducing terms of office for national officer positions. The recommendations for future study involve replicating the study with other, like clubs, focusing research on first year members, addressing female and auxiliary members, examining organizations that lack a formal intake, or probationary, process, and conducting a meta-analysis of autoethnographic research to establish procedures when using the methodology in scholarly research.

References

Adams, T. E., Jones, S. H. & Ellis, C. (2015). *Autoethnography.* New York, NY: Oxford University Press.

Anderson-Facile, D. (2007). *Dueling identities: The Christian biker.* Lanham, MD: Lexington Books.

Ashforth, B. E. & Mael, F. (1989). Social identity theory and the organization. *Academy of Management Review, 14*(1), 20-39.

Bacha, E. & Walker, S. (2013). The relationship between transformational leadership and followers' perceptions of fairness. *Journal of Business Ethics, 116*(3), 667-680.

Bergold, J. & Thomas, S. (2012). Participatory research methods: A methodological approach in motion. *Forum Qualitative Sozialforschung / Forum: Qualitative Social Research, 13*(1). Retrieved from http://www.qualitative-research.net/index.php/fqs/article/view/1801/3334#g43

Chang, H. (2008). *Autoethnography as method.* Walnut Creek, CA: Left Coast Press.

DeRue, D. & Ashford, S. J. (2010). Who will lead and who will follow? A social process of leadership identity construction in organizations. *Academy Of Management Review, 35*(4), 627-647. http://dx.doi.org/10.5465/AMR.2010.53503267

Ellis, C. (2004). *The ethnographic I.* Walnut Creek, CA: AltaMira Press.

Fetterman, D.M. (2010). *Ethnography: Step by step* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.

Fombelle, P. W., Jarvis, C. B., Ward, J., & Ostrom, L. (2012). Leveraging customers' multiple identities: Identity synergy as a driver of organizational identification. *Journal of the Academic Marketing Science, 40, 587-604.* http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s11747-011-0254-5

Gartner, W. B. (1993). Organizing the voluntary association. *Entrepreneurship: Theory & Practice, 17*(2),103-106.

Golafshani, N. (2003). Understanding reliability and validity in qualitative research. *The Qualitative Report, 8*(4), 597-607. Retrieved from http://www.nova.edu/ssss/QR/QR8-4/golafshani.pdf

Hamdan, A. (2012). Autoethnography as a genre of qualitative research: A journey inside out. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods, 11*(5), 585-606. Retrieved from http://ejournals.library.ualberta.ca/index.php/IJQM/article/view/5130/14578

Hirst, G., van Dick, R., & van Knippenberg, D. (2009). A social identity perspective on leadership and employee creativity. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *30*(7), 963-982. http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/job.600

Hogg, M. (2001). A social identity theory of leadership. *Personality and Social Psychology Review*, *5*(3), 184-200

Hogg, M.A. (2005). *One of us: Social identity, group belonging and leadership.* Retrieved from http://hdl.handle.net/1721.1/55932

Hogg, M. A., & Adelman, J. (2013). Uncertainty-identity theory: Extreme groups-radical behavior, and authoritarian leadership. *Journal of Social Issues, 69*(3), 436-454. http://dx.doi.org/ 10.1111/josi.12023

Hogg, M. A., van Knippenberg, D., & Rast, D. E. (2012a). Intergroup leadership in organizations: Leading across group and organizational boundaries. *Academy of Management Review*, *37*(2), 232-255. http://dx.doi.org/10.5465/amr.2010.0221

Hogg, M. A., van Knippenberg, D., Rast, D. E. (2012b). The social identity theory of leadership: Theoretical originas, research findings, and conceptual developments. *European Review of Social Psychology, 23*, 258-304. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/10463283.2012.741134

Kawulich, B.B. (2005). Participant observation as a data collection method. *Forum: Qualitative Social Research, 6*(2). Retrieved from http://www.qualitative-research.net/index.php/fqs/article/view/466/996L

Knoke, D., & Prensky, D. (1984). What relevance do organization theories have for voluntary associations? *Social Science Quarterly (University of Texas Press), 65*(1), 3-20.

Kouzes, J.M. & Posner, B.Z. (2012). *The leadership challenge* (5th ed.). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Mackellar, J. (2013). Participant observation at events: Theory, practice and potential. *International Journal of Event & Festival Management*, *4*(1), 56. http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/17582951311307511

Ruderman, M. N. & Ernst, C. (2010). Finding yourself: How social identity affects leadership. *Leadership in Action, 30*(1), 14- 18. Retrieved from http://www.ccl.org/leadership/pdf/publicatiojns/lia/lia30_1Finding.pdf

Sangasubana, N. (2011). How to conduct ethnographic research. *The Qualitative Report, 16*(2), 567-573. Retrieved from http://www.nova.edu/ssss/QR/QR16-2/sangasubanat.pdf

Smith, I. H., & Woodworth, W. P. (2012). Developing social entrepreneurs and social innovators: A social identity and self-efficacy approach. *Academy of Management Learning & Education*, *11*(3), 390-407. http://dx.doi.org/10.5465/amle.20U.0016

Stets, J. E. & Burke, P. J. (2000). Identity theory and social identity theory. *Social Psychology Quarterly, 63*(3), 224-237.

Stets, J. E. & Carter, M. J. (2011). The moral self: Applying identity theory. *Social Psychology Quarterly*, *74*(2), 192-215. http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0190272511407621

Online Leadership Short Course for County Extension Directors

Jera Niewoehner, Matt Benge, & Matthew Sowcik
University of Florida

Abstract

[State] County Extension Directors (CEDs) are Extension agents that have administrative responsibilities, such as providing leadership for the county Extension program and supervising faculty and staff. However, little leadership development or training is provided. The CED Leadership Short Course is a six-session mixed approach to building leadership competencies including: (a) leadership; (b) self-awareness; (c) teamwork; (d) emotional intelligence; (e) communication; (f) creativity/decision making; (g) extraordinary company culture & learning organizations; (h) ability to coach/mentor; and (i) empowerment. The first five sessions consists of online learning modules, and the last session will be a face-to-face training where program participants will create an individual leadership plan based on his/her 360 evaluation.

Introduction

Extension education is part of land-grant colleges and universities' core mission and aims at bringing vital and practical information to agricultural producers, small business owners, consumers, family, and young people (National Institute of Food and Agriculture, 2016). Extension professionals are crucial connectors of research to practice in rural and urban communities alike. However, the Extension system suffers from burnout and turnover, which can lead to fractured relationships in communities, temporary voids in programming, and loss of institutional knowledge (Benge & Harder, 2017; Bradley, Driscoll & Bardon, 2012). Considering the influential relationship between leadership and organizational culture, as well as leadership and employee satisfaction, motivation, and performance (Frazier, 2015; House, 1971; Schein, 2010), it follows to reason that effective leadership development for CEDs has the potential to positively influence their network. However, time and resources are often barriers for already over-committed professionals to engage in leadership development. Thus, online courses offer a lower-cost, interactive, and more time-sensitive alternative to face-to-face workshops or courses.

Background

Extension agents take the research conducted at a land-grant university and create educational programs for a wide variety of local county stakeholders including 4-H youth development, agriculture, horticulture, natural resources, families, and communities (Benge & Harder, 2017). For CEDs, their Extension appointment consists of both educational programming and administrative duties. These administrative roles can include developing and evaluating programs, coordinating personnel functions, establishing and maintaining relationships with county stakeholders, and providing leadership and mentorship to Extension agents in his/her office (Elizer, 2011; Sanders, 2014). Both organizational and personal leadership development have been identified as competencies needed by Extension agents to be successful (Benge, Harder, & Carter). Specifically for CED leadership development, self-awareness, knowledge of strengths and weaknesses, interpersonal relationship skills, managing physical and human

resources, and understanding the leadership-making process with Extension agents are competency areas that have been identified in the literature (Benge & Harder, 2017; Jayaratne, Owen, & Jones, 2010; Ladewig & Rohs, 2000; Radhakrishna, Yoder, & Baggett, 1994; Rudd, 2000; White & Bachtel, 1987). To address these competency areas, comprehensive leadership programs for this role would need to include personal and organizational aspects of development.

Black and Earnest (2009) assert that in order to be successful, leadership development programs need to work at several different levels including the personal, professional, policy, and practice levels. However, few studies of leadership development programs have aligned performance with organizational competencies (Collins, 2001; Penn, 2014). Success stories of leadership development programs related to universities include community college leader participants of the Leadership Institute for a New Century citing career advancement and clarifying of career goals as outcomes of the program (Ebbers, Gallisath, Rockel, & Coyan, 2000). The Excellence Through Leadership program at Emory University also witnessed success with participants experiencing promotions, job title changes and career mobility (Selingo, 2010).

Specific to land-grant universities whose participants include CEDs, an evaluation of the National Leadership Development Program (NELD) class VIII participants found that changes in leadership behavior lags behind change in leadership knowledge (Jelinek, 2004). However, areas of significant increased knowledge and behavior change included the ability to see opportunities and make improvements, understanding the importance of superb oral and written communication, and awareness of administrative processes involved in decision-making (Jelinek, 2004). The Leadership Development for the 21st Century (LEAD21) program reported that participants considered developing personal leadership style and skills, managing organizational change, communication, decision-making, collaboration and teamwork, and creative leadership to be the most important curriculum topics (LEAD21, 2004). Through a qualitative study of the program, Penn (2014) found a majority of the participants considered LEAD21 to have a significant influence on their career goals and also focused more on the development and mentoring of their employees upon completion of the program.

The value of leadership development for faculty, including CEDs is illustrated in the aforementioned programs; however, they have occurred in face-to-face settings. Addressing the varying levels of leadership programming such as personal, professional, policy and practice in such a setting offers opportunities to gather feedback through a variety of modes in order to evaluate learning objectives and participant needs. The online learning environment, however, adds a layer of complexity to communication between the facilitator and participants. Research has indicated participants in online and face-to-face classes can be equally satisfied with their quality of learning and can acquire content equally well (Moore, 2002; Reisetter, LaPointe & Korcuska, 2007). In addition, learning can be enhanced when learners have control of their interactions with media and are prompted to engage in reflections (Means, Toyama, Murphy, Bakia, & Jones, 2009). Research on Extension agents participating in online learning has indicated effectiveness in knowledge acquisition and comfort with using the online platform (Gentry, Edgar, Graham, & Kirkpatrick, 2017; Mahadevan, Peterson, & Grenwelge, 2014).

Scant evidence exists of documented effectiveness of online leadership development programs. Silbergh and Lennon (2006) found MBA students who participated in face-to-face and online

versions of a leadership program were inclined to prefer the training that aligned with their primary learning context, distance education versus classroom student. An evaluation of an online program geared for Navy officers to move up in rank, 44 percent of participants who completed the program saw an improvement in knowledge and retention of course material and demonstrated significant behavioral change in key leadership areas (Reserve Officers Association, 2005). This dearth in research in online leadership development programming provides a unique opportunity for the current study to explore outcomes relating to program objectives as well as behavioral changes for program participants.

Objectives for the CED Leadership Short Course are:
- To learn best practices to enable the employee to develop leadership skills to become high performing in their current and future position(s);
- To build stronger and better working relationships to increase teamwork and collaborative experiences;
- To establish a foundation for the competencies associated with effective leadership;
- To provide experiential opportunities to address different learning styles and ensure transfer of learning, and;
- To develop both personal and professional competencies to increase employee satisfaction.

Description of Program/Methodology

[State] Extension consists of five Extension districts, managed by a District Extension Director (DED). Each DED will nominate up to five CEDs from his/her respective district to participate in the program. The cohort will consist of CEDs at various states of his/her Extension career and leadership experiences.

The CED Leadership Short Course consists of six total sessions:
1. The CED Leadership Short Course consists of six total sessions: The Roles of a Leader
    a. Understanding the Power of Perception
    b. Establishing Purpose
    c. Defining Leadership Priorities
2. Leader Identify
    a. Developing Humility, Optimism and Continued Learning mindset
    b. Appreciating Differences (Myers Briggs Personality)
    c. Understanding the Power of Emotions
3. Building strong relationships with others
    a. Authentic Communication
    b. Conflict Resolution and Stress Management
4. Creating and Extraordinary Leadership Environment
    a. Reframing Leadership
    b. Accountability and Discipline
    c. Creating a Culture of Change
5. Leadership Best Practices
    a. Cultivating Creativity
    b. Teamwork and Psychological Safety

      c.   Providing Feedback and Recognition
   6.   Developing a Leadership Development Plan
      a.   360 Degree Feedback

The first five sessions will be delivered every two weeks through an online-learning platform, allowing participants to work at his/her own pace. Each online session has videos, readings, and assignments that are due by the end of each session. The program instructors will be actively engaged through the online sessions through providing feedback from assignments and weekly emails that serve as both reminders and encouragement. Program participants have the opportunity to learn and coach from each other through the program as well. The final session will be delivered in-person where participants will receive the results of the 360 evaluation and develop an individual development plan to continue his/her leadership journey.

Current Results

The authors are currently in the process of gathering preliminary results through a mixed methods study designed to measure program outcomes. The first cohort consists of 21 County Extension Directors. To measure learner's perceptions of meeting the objectives of the program and to evaluate the effectiveness of the online learning format, a post-then survey is included at the conclusion of the program. In order to describe participant expectations for their learning in the program and explore behavior change in their respective work environments, two additional research methods will follow. Learners complete an introduction video at the onset of the program to describe their goals and expectations. A content analysis of the videos will explore how expectations aligned with program objectives and revise future program design. Behavior change will be measured by administering a 360 evaluation to the learner's team during the course of the program coupled with the learner's personalized aspirations to change. Three months after the completion of the program, a follow-up survey will be administered and learners will be asked questions pertaining to their progress on the change plan and perceptions of their leadership.

Conclusions/Recommendations

Conclusions and recommendations cannot be made of the Leadership Short Course at the time of submission. However, if the proposal is accepted, results, conclusions, and recommendations will be available at the conference.

References

Benge, M., Harder, A., & Carter, H. (2011). Necessary pre-entry competencies as perceived by Florida extension agents. *Journal of Extension, 49*(5). Retrieved from https://www.joe.org/joe/2011october/a2.php

Benge, M., & Harder, A. (2017). The effects of leader-member exchanges on the relationships between extension agents and county extension directors in Florida. *Journal of Human Sciences and Extension, 5*(1), 35-49. Retrieved from https://media.wix.com/ugd/c8fe6e_abf482fce12b43e79bdc759ad61bce87.pdf

Black, A. M., & Earnest, G. W. (2009). Measuring the outcomes of leadership development programs. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies, 16*(2), 184-196. doi:10.1177/1548051809339193

Bradley, L., Driscoll, E., & Bardon, R. (2012). Removing the tension from Extension. *Journal of Extension, 50*(2). Retrieved from https://www.joe.org/joe/2012april/pdf/JOE_v50_2tt1.pdf

Day, D. V. (2000). Leadership development. *The Leadership Quarterly, 11*(4), 581-613. doi:10.1016/S1048-9843(00)00061-8

Ebbers, L. H., Gallisath, G., Rockel, V., and Coyan, M. N. (2000). The Leadership Institute for a New Century: LINCing women and minorities into tomorrow's community college leadership roles. *Community College Journal of Research and Practice*, *24*(5), 375-382.

Elizer, A. H. (2011). Are transformational directors required for satisfied agents? *Journal of Extension*, *49*(2). Retrieved from http://www.joe.org/joe/2011april/ rb1.php

Frazier, E. (2015). The leadership, culture, job satisfaction relationship. *Academic Forum Conference Proceedings,* 68-82, Roswell.

Gentry, M, Edgar, L. D, Graham, D. L, & Kirkpatrick, T., (2017). Assessment of an online nematology training for county extension agents. *Journal of Extension*, *55*(1). Retrieved from https://www.joe.org/joe/2017february/pdf/JOE_v55_1a5.pdf

House, R. J. (1971). A path goal theory of leader effectiveness. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, *16*(3), 321-338. Retrieved from http://www.jstor.org/stable/pdf/2391905.pdf

Jayaratne, K. S. U., Owen, M., & Jones, D. (2010). Evaluating a new and aspiring county extension director leadership education program: Determining outcomes and needed improvements. *Journal of Leadership Education, 9*(1), 17-35. doi:10.12806/V9/I1/RF2

Jelinek, S. M. (2004). Determining the impact of a two-year national extension leadership development program on its participants. Unpublished paper for the Society for Advancement of Management International Conference.

Ladewig, H., & Rohs, F. R. (2000). Southern Extension leadership development: Leadership development for a learning organization. *Journal of Extension*, *38*(3). Retrieved from http://www.joe.org/joe/2000june/a2.php

LEAD21: Leadership for the 21st Century. Retrieved from http://www.lead 21.org/program.html#core

Mahadevan, L., Peterson, R. L., & Grenwelge, C. (2014). Improving disability awareness among extension agents. *Journal of Extension, 52*(1). Retrieved from https://www.joe.org/joe/2014february/pdf/JOE_v52_1tt5.pdf

Means, B., Yotama, Y., Murphy, R. Bakia, M., & Jones, K. (2009). *Evaluation of evidence-based practices in online learning: A meta-analysis and review of online learning studies.* U.S. Department of Education, Center for Technology in Learning. Retrieved from http://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED505824.pdf

Moore, M. G. (2002*).* Editorial: What does research say about the learners using computer-mediated communication in distance learning? *American Journal of Distance Education, 16*(2), 61-64.

National Institute of Food and Agriculture. (2016). *Extension.* United States Department of Agriculture. Retrieved from https://nifa.usda.gov/extension

Reserve Officers Association (2005). *Behavioral impact of online leadership development quantified: A center for naval analysis study provides the private sector with a proven approach for training the next generation of leaders*. Retrieved from https://prezi.com/mqiqyeqvjho1/httpgogalegroupcompsidoidgale7cct292164839v21/

Penn, M. A. (2014). *The path less traveled: The influence of professional development experiences on the leadership skills and careers of state extension directors and administrators (*Published doctoral dissertation). University of Arkansas, Little Rock, AR.

Radhakrishna, R., Yoder, E. P., & Baggett, C. D. (1994). Leadership effectiveness of county extension directors. *Journal of Extension*, *32*(2). Retrieved from http://www.joe.org/joe/1994august/rb2.php

Reisetter, M., LaPointe, L., & Korcuska, J. (2007). The impact of altered realities: Implications of online delivery for learners' interactions, expectations, and learning skills. *International Journal on E-Learning, 6*(1), 55.

Rudd, R. (2000). Leadership styles of Florida's county extension directors: Perceptions of self and others. Proceedings of the 27th Annual National Agricultural Education Research Conference. Retrieved from http://pubs.aged.tamu.edu/conferences/NAERC2000/web/b3.pdf

Sanders, C. B. (2014). *Leadership competencies and needs of county extension directors as perceived by county and district extension directors and county administrators in Florida.* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). University of Florida, Gainesville, FL.

Schein, E. H. (2010). *Organizational culture and leadership* (4th ed.). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Selingo, J. J. (2009). Emory u. trains its own leaders. *Chronicle of Higher Education 55*(41), B3.

Silbergh, D., & Lennon, K. (2006). Developing leadership skills: Online versus face-to-face. *Journal of European Industrial Training*, *30*(7), 498-511

White, J. E., & Bachtel, D. C. (1987). Stepping up – Training extension county directors. *Journal of Extension, 25*(1). Retrieved from http://www.joe.org/joe/1987spring/a4.php

The Content, Tools and Resources to Teach Humility in Your Leadership Class

Matthew Sowcik & Austin D. Council
University of Florida

Abstract

In the complex world we live in, one construct that has had an impact on leaders, teams, and organizations is humility. Recent research suggests that humility predicts prosocial behaviors such as generosity, self-esteem, better performance on the job and forgiveness. Additionally, humility is important component of creativity, civil discourse, and establishing strong relationship with others. Humility has gained more attention lately in Positive Organizational Psychology and the study of leadership, however, very few leadership education programs discuss humility in the curriculum. This innovative practice paper will cover the creation of a class on the topic of humility and the objectives, resource and assignments needed to provide students exposure to this much needed construct.

Introduction

In his memoirs, Ben Franklin points out the troubled childhood he had, the multiple failed business ventures he experienced and the overall gloomy manner he displayed in his formative years which caused him to leave home at an early age (Ethics, virtues and values, n.d.). Disappointed with where his life was heading, Franklin decided to create a list of twelve characteristics, values and virtues that he wished to aspire to and live by each day (Ethics, virtues and values, n.d.). As the story goes, Franklin took the list to a well-respected Quaker friend who said, *"Ben are you serious? Because you sure aren't these things now."* Ben Franklin, who was very serious about practicing these values assured his friend that although he was far from these virtues he would someday possess them. The Friend responded, "*Ben, if you are serious you need to add a thirteenth virtue. Humility. Because you don't have any*." Franklin thought about his friend's advice and decided to add a thirteenth virtue to the list, the virtue of humility. (Ethics, virtues and values, n.d.).

From that point forward, Franklin began to reshape his life. Every day he would read his list of virtues and each week he would emphasize a different area of his list replicating the process week after week (Ethics, virtues and values, n.d.). Benjamin Franklin would go on to become one of the most industrious, prosperous and self-actualizing inventors, politicians and statesmen in all of history. In his autobiography, nearing death, Franklin was reviewing the story of his virtues and wrote that he had come to feel solidarity with each of his 12 virtues. However, when he pondered the 13th virtue, he came to the realization that he was nowhere near humble (Ethics, virtues and values, n.d.).

One would have to wonder if this act of denying his humility might actually be the only proof you need to believe that Ben Franklin was indeed humble, however, there are other examples of Franklin utilizing humility in his leadership, which helped him achieve some of his most outstanding accomplishments. On the top of this list was the speech he gave on the final day of

the Constitutional Convention in Philadelphia. Knowing how important it was to reach a consensus concerning the U.S. Constitution said,

> "*I confess that there are several parts of this constitution which I do not at present approve, but I am not sure I shall never approve them: For having lived long, I have experienced many instances of being obliged by better information or fuller consideration, to change opinions even on important subjects, which I once thought right, but found to be otherwise. It is therefore that the older I grow, the more apt I am to doubt my own judgment, and to pay more respect to the judgment of others*" (Briggs, 2016).

It has been suggested that it was this humility displayed by Ben Franklin and not some "near-divine insight of the individual delegates" that was the reason for the success of the Constitutional Convention (Briggs, 2016).

Priority three of the National Leadership Education Research Agenda (Andenoro, Allen, Haber-Curran, Jenkins, Sowcik, Dugan, & Osteen, 2013, p. 13) suggests, "Leadership Education is critically grounded in the psychological development of those that it is created to impact… the Leadership Education landscape, the intricacies of personality and self-awareness, along with other variables, require continued development and additional research that will provide perspective for leadership educators tasked with preparing the next generation of leaders." Among the successful avenues to address this psychological development including accurate self-awareness, other awareness and awareness of one's place in the larger environment is a focus on humility as an important construct in leadership education.

In recent years, modern ethical leadership research and thinking has begun to move toward incorporating humility in both leadership theory and practice. Although we have made great strides, both researching the benefits of humility in leadership and incorporating it into our theories (i.e. servant leadership, authentic leadership and adaptive leadership), there are still very few resources available to teach a lesson on humility in undergraduate and graduate leadership programs. This session will address the content, tools and resources available to teach a class on humility as it relates to leadership development. The session will also provide leadership activities and exercises to reinforce learning both in and out of the class.

Review of Related Scholarship

What exactly does it mean to be humble? Virtue ethicists, theologians, psychologists, scholars and practitioners have long debated the definition of humility. In this chapter, it is not our intent to provide a "correct" definition, but rather, to present a variety of perspectives, viewpoints and opinions on this virtue, including our own. Historically, religious figures such as Jesus Christ, Buddha, and St. Thomas Aquinas often presented teachings and writings solely based on the importance of humility. A common teaching in Buddhism is to be mindful of humility when being respected. In the New Testament of the Bible, Phillippians 2:3 notes, "Do nothing out of selfish ambition or vain conceit. Rather, in humility value others above yourselves." (NIV). During the time of St. Thomas Aquinas, the opposite of humility, pride, was widely attributed to evil, being included among grave sins (Schimmel, 1992). Poet T.S. Eliot defined humility as "the most difficult of all virtues to achieve; nothing dies harder than the desire to think well of

oneself" (Hare, 1992, p. 228). In *Mere Christianity,* novelist C.S. Lewis (2001, p.129) describes humility as "not thinking less of yourself, but thinking of yourself less" These historical perspectives lay the groundwork of the importance of humility as a virtue.

In our modern day world, pride is actually encouraged. When attempting to place fault for social misfortunes such as drug abuse, alcoholism and violence, our contemporary culture blames low self-esteem. The drive to revere self-esteem has conjured up numerous self-help books and even state-funded initiatives. Individuals now celebrate pride as tolerable and worthy, whether it manifests itself in overestimating one's own positive qualities or being overconfident about one's self. Though this pride can lead to an overall sense of well-being and happiness, it also has its pitfalls, namely, an imbalance of self-awareness. When we constantly focus on ourselves in a positive way, we can easily overlook the dangers. Tali Sharot (2011) suggests, our over optimistic view about our future life may positively impact our health (less anxiety and stress), however, being overconfident about our health can actually be toxic (Sharot, 2011). According to Sharot (2011, p.944), "Underestimating risk may reduce precautionary behavior such as safe sex, attending medical screenings or buying insurance...It could potentially promote harmful behaviors such as smoking, over-spending, and unhealthy eating." What should we do to counteract this dangerous imbalance of overconfidence and high self-esteem?

There have often been negative connotations associated with humility (Tagney, 2000). Sometimes a humble person can be viewed as feeble and submissive, lacking self-confidence and self-admiration (Peterson & Seligman, 2004). Others might connect humility with disgrace, provoking images of shame, embarrassment or disgust with one's self (Peterson & Seligman, 2004). However, contemporary research has shed new light on how we can begin to define humility, which reframes our perception of this important construct and provides hope for its future in research and education. In her analysis of current literature, Tangney (2000, 2002) identified a number of humility's key qualities:

- *an accurate (not misjudged) sense of one's capabilities and successes*
- *the skill to acknowledge one's shortcomings, flaws, spaces in knowledge, and limitations (often with suggestion of a "higher power")*
- *openness to new ideas, opposing information and guidance*
- *keeping one's talents and triumphs in perspective*
- *generally low focus of the self or an ability to "overlook the self"*
- *admiration of the worth of all things, as well as the many diverse ways that people and things can contribute to our world*

In recent years, there has been a stream of attention and interest in positive organizational psychology and the role that humility could play within organizational and business settings. The most prolific example of this includes Jim Collins' (2001) #1 bestseller, *Good to Great*, which discovered that leaders in the most appealing and fruitful companies demonstrated a combination of resolve and personal humility. These "Level 5" leaders, as he called them, were better able to consider diverse perspectives, manage others' emotions, and link back to the organizational goals than those who had low levels of humility.

According to Collins, a "Level 5 Leader" is focused on the advancement of the organization rather than the improvement of his or herself, and in doing so, distributes command to followers, trusting them with the CEO's own welfare as well as that of the organization (Collins, 2001). Furthermore, recent research suggests that humility predicts prosocial behaviors such as generosity (Exline & Hill, 2012; LaBouff, Rowatt, Johnson, Tsang & Willerton, 2012) self-esteem (Exline & Geyer, 2004), better performance on the job (Exline, 2012) and forgiveness (Powers Nam, Rowatt, & Hill, 2007).

Description of the Practice

The class on humility was presented at two different times during the Fall 2016 *Introduction to Leadership Development* course and the *Nonprofit Leadership* course during the Spring of 2017, at the [University of…]. In both cases, this 75-minute course achieved the following objectives:

1. Recognize the different outcomes associated with increased humility in the different components of (ie. self, relationships with others and larger environment)
2. Identify the need for humility in different contexts like community, political and organizational leadership
3. Justify the need for both confidence and humility as essential characteristics for leadership practice

First 30 minutes: Establish a Need for Humility: Although human behavior is complex and often unpredictable, one of the more consistent findings in social-psychological research is that people often see themselves to be better than others on different personal characteristics (Myers 1995). For example, in 2002 research conducted by Rowatt, Ottenbreit, Nesselroade and Cunningham found that significantly more than 50% of individuals estimated they were above average on desirable traits and below average on undesirable traits when comparing themselves to others. This is in line with Myers (1995) research who found that 90% of college faculty rated themselves as superior to their average colleague.

The first thirty minutes discusses our natural bias towards overconfidence and over-optimism and the impact it has on our leadership. Additionally, an interactive exercise is facilitated so students get a chance to compare their perceptions of themselves in the areas of a) attractiveness, b) intelligence, c) ethical behavior, d) work performance, and c) leadership to others in the course and to a nationwide survey on overconfidence in these areas.

Second 30 minutes: Defining humility and the role it plays in leadership education: The class then looks to advance a common definition of humility based on the current literature on this construct. After completing a brief overview of the history of the term, the four different elements essential to establishing humility are introduced. First, humility is seen as having an accurate or proper perspective. At this point an exercise is facilitated to discuss what it means to have a proper perspective.

Next, we address the different context in which this "proper perspective" takes place. The most commonly represented context of humility, in the research, is an accurate view of oneself. This includes one's ability to assess strengths and limitations of one's character without exaggeration, leading to increased self-awareness. The next important context to apply proper perspective is in

one's relationship with others. This includes truly having an accurate perception of the relationship one has with others. This provides a leader the opportunity to see the inherent value of others, including the strengths that they bring to the relationship and task.

The final context that has been addressed in the literature is the awareness of one's place in the larger world. This focus on the larger environment allows the individual to connect back to their role in the larger system and away from self-preoccupation. It is the proper perspective or balance of competing forces like being both inward and outward focused or realizing both one's importance and insignificance. This all leads to the definition presented to the class, "a proper perspective of oneself, one's relationship with others and one's place in the larger environment" (Sowcik, n.d.).

After a definition of humility is presented examples are provided on how humility has been incorporated into different leadership theories and had significant impact in practical leadership situations throughout history. The theories we focus on in class include the impact humility has on authentic leadership, servant leadership, and adaptive leadership theories. Each of these theories have been previously covered in the course. Additionally, stories like the Ben Franklin narrative are presented to demonstrate the practical application of humility to impact the leadership process.

Final 10 minutes: Establish a Need for Humility: In the final 10 minutes of the course a case study is provided between the two American cyclists Lance Armstrong and Greg Lemond (written by the presenters of the session and part of book to be published in fall 2017 on ethics). This case study is an effective way of addressing both humility, overconfidence, proper perspective and ethical implications of arrogance. Students are paired up to discuss a set of five questions to consider the elements of humility and the role they play in defining effective leadership:

1. In the world of cycling from 1986 to 2015, how did the environment impact the different leadership characteristics, which were needed to be successful? How did this environment promote or discourage humility?
2. Provide an example of when the cyclists had "proper perspective" concerning themselves, their relationships with others, and the larger context. Provide an example when the cyclists did not have a "proper perspective" of themselves, their relationship with others and the larger environment.
3. How did Greg Lemond and Lance Armstrong demonstrate different characteristics like, humility, confidence, and arrogance in their leadership?
4. Was it possible to be both humble (taking into account the three elements of humility) and confident? What are some examples from the case study to be both humble and confident?
5. How did the characteristics displayed throughout the case study impact the outcome of each cyclist's career?

Discussion of Outcomes/Results

The case study and discussion at the end provide an opportunity to address the three learning outcomes. Each question takes into account one of the objectives to ensure that students leave the course with both breadth and depth of knowledge on humility. The corresponding questions that were associated with each objective include:

1. Case Study Question 2, 4 and 5: Recognize the different outcomes associated with increased humility in the different components (ie. self, other and larger environment).
2. Case Study Question 1: Identify the need for humility in different contexts like community, political and organizational leadership
3. Case Study Question 3 and 4: Justify the need for both confidence and humility as essential characteristics for leadership practice

Additionally, the homework assignment (also will be provided in this session) for the class reinforced the need for humility in the student's everyday life. In the Spring 2017 course feedback was collected on students' satisfaction with the class and understanding of humility. The data will be presented to participants in the session.

Reflections of the Practitioner

It is the practitioner's bias that humility is such an important concept in leadership. It is also a concept that many others would suggest is lacking in some of our leaders in the business, political and community contexts. As leadership educators, it is critical that we continue to provide a balance between the benefits of charismatic, confident leadership models with those grounded in proper perspective and humility. However, the issue that often surfaces is the lack of content, tools and resources to teach this very important construct. I believe this class, and the tools and resources that are utilized in this class, provide leadership educators with a place to start when teaching humility.

Recommendations

The need for humility in leadership is not going away and due to the complexity of our current world the development of humility will be growing more important over the next decade. For leadership educators looking to teach a class (or classes) on the topics of overconfidence and humility we offer the following recommendations: Issus may arise and need to be addressed concerning the history of the term "humility." "Humility" is derived from the Latin word *humilis*, which means lowly or insignificant (Tangney, 2002). Additionally, the base for the word humility is most often associated with the word "humiliation." When we start to think about virtues that align with our preconceived notions of leadership, this historical perspective of the word humility does not lend itself well to our preconceived notions of the leader or leadership. However, more recent definitions like Tangney (2000, 2002) and the one provided in this paper provide a new perspective of this important construct.

Additionally, it is important to leave time to process the case study and a second class may be needed depend on the number of students in the course. Finally, the success of this class is based on the leadership educators comfort level with the term humility and the practice of humility in leadership and life.

References

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

Briggs, S. (2016, June 29). Intellectual Humility: What Happens When You Love to Learn-From Others. Retrieved February 20th, 2017, from http://www.opencolleges.edu.au/informed/features/intellectual-humility/

Collins, J. C. (2001). *Good to great: Why some companies make the leap... and others don't*. Random House.

Ethics, virtues and values: Knowing what matters most. (n.d.). U.S. Department of State. Retrieved on February 20th, 2017 from https://www.state.gov/m/a/os/64663.htm

Exline, J. J. (2012). Humility and the Ability to Receive from Others. *Journal of Psychology & Christianity*, *31*(1).

Exline, J. J., & Geyer, A. L. (2004). Perceptions of humility: A preliminary study. *Self and Identity*, *3*(2), 95-114.

Exline, J. J., & Hill, P. C. (2012). Humility: A consistent and robust predictor of generosity. *The Journal of Positive Psychology*, *7*(3), 208-218.

Hare, W. (1992). Humility as a Virtue in Teaching. *Journal of Philosophy of Education*, *26*(2), 227-236.

LaBouff, J. P., Rowatt, W. C., Johnson, M. K., Tsang, J. A., & Willerton, G. M. (2012). Humble persons are more helpful than less humble persons: Evidence from three studies. *The Journal of Positive Psychology*, *7*(1), 16-29
.
Lewis, C. S. (2001). *Mere christianity*. Zondervan.

Myers, D. G. (1995). Humility: Theology meets psychology. *Reformed Review*, *48*, 195-206. Peterson, C., & Seligman, M. E. (2004). *Character strengths and virtues: A handbook and classification*. Oxford University Press.

Powers, C., Nam, R. K., Rowatt, W. C., & Hill, P. C. (2007). Associations between humility, spiritual transcendence, and forgiveness. *Research in the social scientific study of religion*, *18*, 75.

Rowatt, W. C., Ottenbreit, A., Nesselroade Jr, K. P., & Cunningham, P. A. (2002). On Being Holier-Than-Thou or Humbler-Than-Thee: A Social-Psychological Perspective on Religiousness and Humility. *Journal for the Scientific Study of Religion*, *41*(2), 227-237.

Schimmel, S. (1992). The seven deadly sins: Jewish, Christian, and classical reflections on human nature. New York: The Free Press.

Sharot, T. (2011). The optimism bias. *Current biology*, *21*(23), 941-945.

Sowcik, M. (In Review). Humility, over-confidence, and leadership.

Tangney, J. P. (2000). Humility: Theoretical perspectives, empirical findings and directions for future research. *Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology*, *19*(1), 70-82.

Tangney, J.P. (2002). Humility. In C. R. Snyder and S. J. Lopez, (Eds). (2002). *Handbook of positive psychology*. New York, NY: Oxford University Press, 411-419.

Global Leadership Exchange an Exploration of Homelessness

Judy G. Craven & Hannah Moon
Kennesaw State University

Abstract

The purpose of this innovative practice session is to describe a student leadership exchange program between a large public research university and a medium sized private university, both located in or near major cities in southeastern United States. The program engages students in the social issue of homelessness to challenge personal biases, identify causes, and examine resources for sustainable change. Grounded a in the philosophy of leadership as a dynamic process the program develops leaders to be engaged and impactful citizens. Students spend long weekends in Tampa, Florida and Atlanta, Georgia to compare and contrast local resources and examine the challenges of organizations who work with individuals and families who struggle with homelessness.

Introduction

Participating institutions have a long history of providing opportunities for students to use their leadership knowledge, disposition, and skills to build relationships and explore social issues with other students around the nation and many changes in partnerships and programming have transpired though the past 10 years. Last year these two institutions of higher learning joined in partnership to explore the social issue of homelessness and to encourage students to seek a deeper understanding of cultural implications by examining this issue through the lens of other social concerns. Now in its second year, with improved robust curriculum, intensive immersion experiences, and opportunities for undergraduate research, students delve deeply into the issues that impact individuals and families who struggle with homelessness or food insecurities. Through this experience, students challenge perceptions, identify causes, and examine resources for sustainable change. This innovative practice paper provides an overview of the power that exchange models can have on leadership development and community engagement.

Review of Related Scholarship

In this ever changing, technologically advanced, and complex world, students are exposed to many challenges; challenges that are identified, categorized, and studied by organizations, such as, the Center for Strategic and International Studies (https://www.csis.org/programs/seven-revolutions) and the United Nations (http://www.un.org/sustainabledevelopment/). In a world that has become "flat" (Friedman, 2007), where goods and services are outsourced, where medical concerns in one country affect other parts of the world, where weather phenomena is felt around the world, where the world population continues to increase while natural resources diminish, we need innovative leaders who focus on creative ideas and solutions.

Feller (2015), whose chapter in *Putting the Global in Local Education* emphasizes that leadership is not a stagnant, passive process, and "exposure and content conversations" (p. 53) is not enough to impact learning. Students must think critically, experience and reflect deeply. Teachers and advisors must provide structured experiences and reflections to help students frame learning (Sobania, 2015). Students must challenge and expand their personal attitudes toward leadership, find their passions for service, and work with others to establish and implement opportunities for impact. Further, in their article, "Go Global, Innovate! Training Social Entrepreneurial Leaders," McDougal and McDavid (2014) believe that for someone to challenge the way things are and pursue a new course, "the process requires the person to not only recognize the problem but, more importantly, to realize his/her responsibility to and ability to enact change" (p. 47). As a response, leadership programming provides avenues for students to actively engage as positive, ethical, global leaders. Working from the premise that leadership exists in moments, leaders act into those moments to create sustained change in their local, national, and international communities.

Description of the Practice

Global Leadership Exchange-Homelessness is an exchange program with between two regional institutions of higher learning for students to become actively engaged in community issues and explore leadership in action. 10-15 sophomores, juniors, or seniors are selected from each school through an application and interview process to participate in the ten-month initiative. The program has three primary components:

An Immersion Experience in Tampa and Atlanta: From October to March, students engage in activities to explore leadership, service, and the social injustices of homelessness and poverty, as they exist in Tampa, Atlanta, nationally, and worldwide. The partnership affords students at each institution the opportunity to learn about the complexities of poverty and homelessness in each city. Through the coordination of (two) four-day immersion experience throughout the course of the program, students meet with community leaders, engage with nonprofit agency staff, and directly serve the organizations working to address social injustices in each host city.

Research and Advocacy: To deepen the learning experience about homelessness and its impact in the larger community, student participants work in pairs to explore homelessness in relation to another social issue. This year students completed CITI training and were listed as co-investigators in an Institutional Review Board (IRB) approved project to examine homelessness in relation to gentrification, race/ prison systems, LGBTIQ youth, immigration, and sex trafficking, veterans, and governmental policies. Using a policy argument model, the students will create a 3-5 minute video as a capstone experience at the end of year to reflect on their learning and experiences and provide positive solution focused education for their communities. Students will conclude their projects with a specific call to action.

Bi-weekly or Monthly meetings: Each institution follows a program curriculum with complementary components that include the immersion experience and the student research component to explore homelessness through the lens of other social issues. Both institutions incorporate activities to help students explore the web of social issues that affect homelessness and challenge personal biases and perceptions. With those intersections, each institution facilitates sessions around leadership and service that fit within their philosophy and practice of leadership. Session topics may include Foundations of Leadership, Intercultural Competence, Global Leadership and Local Issues, Active Citizenship, Teamwork and Communication, and Identity/Privilege/Values. Both institutions incorporate activities to help students explore the web of social issues that affect homelessness and challenge personal biases and perceptions.

Other related activities

As an additional experience, one group developed a Sleep out Challenge to support an annual week of Homelessness Awareness on that campus. The Sleep out Challenge invited students to spend the night outside, in their cars, or in a mock Red Cross shelter. As a way to raise awareness and dispel biases of homelessness, the student leaders developed an evening program completed with an educational activity, a documentary viewing, and group reflections. The Global Leadership Exchange students organized and facilitated the event, gaining practical leadership skills in communication with community partners, developing program activities, and leading group discussions. One hundred and thirteen students, staff, and faculty participated in the event.

Discussions of Outcomes/Results

At the outset of the program, the universities developed the following learning outcomes and assessment methods. Learning outcomes were developed using the language of Bloom's taxonomy (http://edglossary.org/blooms-taxonomy/) standards of the Council for the Advancement of Standards in Higher Education (CAS) (Council for the Advancement of Standards in Higher Education, 2015).
1. Explore homelessness issues and resources to recognize how social systems influence people (CAS: Humanitarianism and Civic Engagement/Social responsibility)
    a. Reports from interest groups
    b. Final video project
2. Participate in experiences that are characterized by reciprocity (CAS: Humanitarianism and Civic Engagement/Social responsibility)
    a. Immersion trips to Tampa and Atlanta

    b. Reflections from those experiences through the creation of personal videos that address the following questions: What particularly resonated with you during your time in Tampa? What did you learn? Were any of your preconceived notions challenged? Moving forward, what changes or new actions will you take as a response to this trip?

3. Demonstrate cognitive complexity by thinking critically about homelessness issues and reflecting on prior knowledge and new experiences (CAS: Cognitive complexity/critical thinking and reflective thinking)
       a. Reflection on research through journaling
       b. Individual meetings with staff
       c. Project meetings with fellow student leaders

4. Demonstrate advocacy to challenge biases and stereotypes that marginalize observed homeless communities and affirm the value and worth of these communities (CAS: Humanitarianism and Civic Engagement/Sense of civic responsibility)
       a. Final video project

The CAS domains referenced are the primary standards as measures for learning. Students also have opportunities to explore self-identity (Intrapersonal Development), establish meaningful relationships with students from another institution (Interpersonal Competence), and communicate effectively to pursue goals (Practical Competence).

Since this program is still in process and the immersion experience and final student projects are yet to be completed at the writing of this proposal, specific outcomes are not available; however, this program has built on the success of prior years and we anticipate a positive outcome with deep learning by the students. Students are currently working on their research, video reflections, and final projects. By July, the completed program assessment, videos of students' experiences will be added to our presentation at the Association of Leadership Educators annual conference. From past similar programs and experiences, student learning has been significant and current observations and conversations with students indicate that the program is having a positive impact on the participants. The first round of reflective videos have shown that students are being challenged to look at the issue of homelessness in new ways, that they are learning about the challenges that organizations have to provide needed services and resources, and that the stories of people who have experienced homelessness are varied. One student has indicated that this program has influenced a change in career path.

Reflections of the Practitioner

The Global Leadership Exchange - Homelessness is a high-impact, immersive program that sits at the crux of leadership development and community engagement. As such, it capitalizes on community service as a powerful vehicle for students to develop their leadership capacity. Several factors contributed to the effective execution of the Global Leadership Exchange - Homelessness program. The practitioners developed strong curriculum grounded in theory and were influenced by the unique issues facing each individual community. Insight into community resources provided the program with depth during the immersion experiences. Both universities utilized the knowledge and resources of local experts who were actively working to support local homeless communities.

While the curriculum provided valuable structure for learning, one practitioner found that the interpersonal dynamics of the two groups enabled the students to practice leadership beyond the scope of community engagement. The two groups had to mediate conflicts, adjust to new leadership styles, and collaborate effectively. Any breakdown of group dynamics became an opportunity for students to engage in deep self-reflection and highlighted opportunities for growth in their leadership capacities.

The practitioners are passionate in their efforts to support and advance programs that merge leadership and civic engagement. Students are educated about community needs/social injustices and are empowered to become change agents in their chosen careers.

Recommendations

Experiential learning opportunities create high impact, critical learning in leadership development and community engagement. The Global Leadership Exchange: Homelessness provides exposure to power and privilege, diverse perspectives, community-based nonprofit agencies, conflict resolution, and leadership for positive social change. Moving forward the program's practitioners on both campuses recognize ways to improve the program for next year. These recommendations include:

- Create additional opportunities for the two groups to interact prior to the immersion experiences through social media avenues and virtual conversations.
- Continue to build on existing curriculum to further enhance learning experiences
- Invite other institutions to participate and build a new consortium of partnerships
- Encourage students to present their learning and projects through student leadership conferences and classroom presentations.

References

Blooms Taxonomy. Retrieved from http://edglossary.org/blooms-taxonomy. Center for Strategic and International Studies. @csis – https://www.csis.org/programs/seven-revolutions.

Council for the Advancement of Standards in Higher Education (2015). *CAS professional standards for higher education* (9th ed.). Washington, DC: Author.

Feller, A. E. (2015). Where Experience Meets Transformation. In N. Sobania (Ed.), *Putting the Local in Global Education* (pp. 52-72). Sterling, VA: Stylus.

Friedman, T. L. (2005). *The world is flat: A brief history of the twenty-first century.* New York; Farrar, Straus and Giroux.

McDougall, H. R., & McDavid, S. L. (2014). Go Global, Innovate! Training social Entrepreneurial Leaders. *Journal of Leadership Studies*, *8*(3). DOI: 10.1002/jls

Sobania, N.W. (2015). Introduction: The Local-Global Nexus. In N. Sobania (Ed), *Putting the Local in Global Education* (pp. 52-72). Sterling, VA: Stylus. UN News Center http://www.un.org/sustainabledevelopment/.

Effects of Leadership Education and Personality Types on Motivation to Lead of Undergraduate Students Studying Leadership

Madison Wilkerson, Allison L. Dunn, & Summer F. Odom
Texas A&M University

Abstract

This study examined the affective-identity and social-normative motivations of students (N=142) in leadership courses and how their personality traits are connected to these motivations. Descriptive statistics were used to form a better understanding of participants personality tendencies within the Big Five model along with affective-identity and social-normative motivations. The majority of students scored positively for having both affective-identity and social-normative motivation to lead, showing that the majority of students saw themselves as leaders and felt a social obligation to step up as a leader in a larger group. While personality traits are not the only way to measure leader effectiveness, the data indicates that students studying leadership possess personality traits that contribute to effective leadership.

Introduction

Leadership and the motivation to lead has been a topic of scholars and researchers for an extended period. There have been many theories and many studies on this topic (Northouse, 2016). Leadership is important for college students as evidenced by employers ranking it as an important skill for college graduates to possess (Crawford, Lang, Fink, Dalton, & Fielitz, 2011). Assessing what motivates students to lead can enable leadership educators to better motivate students and tailor activities specific to their interests. Previous research suggests that motivation to lead is a "dynamic construct that is partially changeable through social-learning processes and experience" (Chan & Drasgow, 2001, p. 496). Traditionally, leadership research has focused on outcome measures of leader effectiveness and trait-based or situational-based leader behaviors. However, research now indicates that a combination of personality attributes along with adaptability within social situations set the stage for effective leadership (Zaccaro, 2007). Researching personality traits such as extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism and openness, and cross referencing those personality attributes with what motivates students to lead enables leadership educators to understand this relationship and make decisions on what to emphasize in their teaching and the activities they use to reinforce the material taught. If we want our students to actually practice leadership after they graduate from our programs, we need to ensure they are motivated to do so.

This research falls under the National Leadership Education Research Agenda Priority One: Teaching, Learning and Curriculum Development, and addresses the need to better understand the impact of leadership education as a developmental experience, by better understanding the individual differences of those engaged in leadership development (Andenoro et al., 2013, p. 5). The purpose of this study examines the leadership motivation of undergraduate students currently enrolled in a formal academic leadership course and how personality type is connected to leadership motivation.

Theoretical Framework

Motivation to lead, as defined by Chan and Drasgow (2001), is "an individual difference construct that affects a leader's or leader-to-be's decision to assume leadership training, roles, and responsibilities and that affects his/ her intensity of effort at the leading and persistence as a leader" (p. 482). Researchers have attempted to connect motivation to lead from personality tendencies, like narcissism and humility, role models in adolescent upbringing, to leadership self-efficacy. Researchers found that (a) both narcissism and humility had significant and positive influences on the affective-identity and social–normative components of motivation to lead; and (b) these relationships were mediated by leadership self-efficacy and positivity in leader identity (Lu, 2016). Affective-identity is described as individuals [being] motivated to lead simply because they see themselves as leaders (Reichard & Walker, 2016). As far as social-normative motivation to lead is described in the same study as one is motivated to lead because of a feeling of responsibility to the larger group to lead (Reichard & Walker, 2016). The Big Five framework of personality traits (Costa & McCrae, 1992) has emerged as a robust and parsimonious model for understanding the relationship between personality and various academic behaviors (Poropat, 2009). Conscientiousness is exemplified by being disciplined, organized, and achievement-oriented. Neuroticism refers to degree of emotional stability, impulse control, and anxiety. Extraversion is displayed through a higher degree of sociability, assertiveness, and talkativeness. Openness is reflected in a strong intellectual curiosity and a preference for novelty and variety. Finally, agreeableness refers to being helpful, cooperative, and sympathetic towards others (Komarraju, Karau, Schmeck, & Avdic, 2011). These five traits have been associated with being an effective leader (Northouse, 2016).

Purpose and Methodology

The purpose of this study was to describe the personality types, motivation and intent to lead of students completing academic leadership courses. Survey research was used as the approach for this research study (Fraenkel, Wallen, & Huyn, 2012). The population for this study was undergraduate students enrolled in academic leadership courses at a four-year public university. There were a total of 411 students enrolled in the selected leadership education courses when the data was collected. All students were either a leadership major or minor. Five core courses and one elective leadership course were chosen due to the accessibility of the courses. These courses represented participants who were in various stages of their degree program. Multiple courses were also chosen to increase the generalizability of results (Ary, Jacobs, & Sorensen, 2010). After removing students concurrently enrolled in multiple leadership courses, the accessible population was 343 students (N = 343). This was a census study; however, a slice in time sample (Oliver & Hinkle, 1981) was implemented through course selection in obtaining variability in representativeness of the target population and participant demographics. The final dataset consisted of 142 students (n = 142) resulting in a response rate of 41.3%.

The instrument used was an electronic version of the EPL Career Aspiration Survey (Chan et al., 2012). Personality traits were an independent variable and were measured using an electronic version of the IPIP-NEO developed by Johnson (2011). There were twelve additional

demographic questions. The EPL Career Aspiration Survey is a 57-item instrument used to examine motivation, intent, and self-efficacy along three scales: leadership, professionalism, and entrepreneurship. Construct validity and reliability has been established for the instrument (Chan et al., 2012). The scales of motivation to lead and intent to lead were included in this study. The motivation section consisted of 9 items, and the intent section consisted of 4 items. The IPIP-NEO is a 44-item instrument measuring the five personality traits of emotional stability, conscientiousness, agreeableness, extraversion, and openness. The IPIP-NEO has established reliability and validity measures (Johnson, 2011). Items on both instruments were measured on a five-point summated scale: *1(Strongly Disagree), 2(Disagree), 3(Neither Disagree nor Agree), 4(Agree), and 5(Strongly Agree).* For this study, student mean scores for personality traits above a 3.0 were categorized as having a positive tendency for that trait. Student mean scores below a 3.0 were categorized as having a negative tendency. Student mean scores for affective-identity and social-normative motivation were categorized the following way: (low = Summed scale scores below 18, medium = Summed scale scores between 19 and 35, high = Summed scale scores 36 and above). Institutional Review Board approval was received to conduct the study.

Results

Descriptive statistics were used to form a better understanding of participants personality tendencies within the Big Five model along with affective-identity and social-normative. Of the 142 total participants, 63 identified as male, and 79 female. Each personality trait was analyzed, with results leaning negatively or positively towards one of the specific traits. The majority of participants leaned positively towards extraversion (n=93, 65%), positively towards agreeableness (n=130, 91.5%), positively toward conscientiousness (n=130, 91.5%), positively towards openness (n=138, 97%), and negatively toward neuroticism (n=114, 80%).

Affective-identity was measured in connection with the Big Five personality traits. The mean score was 31.59 (N=142). In the constructs of affective-identity the majority of participants fell into the medium range and the remaining participants fell into the high range with the exception of one student scoring low. A majority of students who identified as extravert scored in medium range for affective-identity (n=65, 69.9%). In terms of agreeableness a majority of students identified as having agreeableness and scored in the medium range for affective-identity (n=101, 77.7%). A majority of students who identified as having conscientiousness scored in the medium range of affective-identity (n=101, 77.7%). Of the students who scored positively towards openness a majority of them scored in medium range of affective-identity (n=109, 79%). A majority of students with low neuroticism scored in the medium range of affective-identity (n=85, 74.6).

Social normative was also compared with the Big Five personality traits. The mean score was 34.08 (N=142). Similarly to affective-identity a majority of students scored in the medium range, with students scoring in the high range with no students scoring in the low range. A majority of students who identified as extravert scored in the medium range of social-normative (n=56, 60.2%). Similarly students scoring positively towards agreeableness also scored in the medium range of social-normative (n=83, 63.8%). Of those identifying as being conscientious, a majority of students fell in the medium range of social-normative (n=82, 63.1%). Of those who scored positively towards openness, the majority of students fell into the medium range of social-

normative (n=92, 66.7%). Of students scoring negatively towards neuroticism, the majority scored in the medium range of social-normative (n=71, 62.2%).

Findings and Conclusions

Studying motivation to lead of students in leadership courses is important for leadership educators as they design learning opportunities for students to develop leadership skills and abilities. This study examined the affective-identity and social-normative motivations of students in leadership courses and how their personality traits are connected to these motivations. As previously stated, affective-identity is described as an individual seeing themselves as leaders, social-normative is described as feeling a responsibility to step up as the leader in a larger group. Overall students completing their leadership degrees (major and minors) scored in the medium range for being motivated by affective-identity and social-normative. A majority of students in this study also identified as possessing the positive personality traits associated with leadership; high extraversion, agreeableness, openness, conscientiousness, and low neuroticism (Northouse, 2016). While personality traits are not the only way to measure leader effectiveness this indicates students studying leadership have the capacity to become effective leaders. Though there were slight variances in how students scored related to affective-identity and social-normative motivations, it appears that both types of motivations should be acknowledged in the leadership education of college students.

References

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

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

Costa, P. T., & McCrae, R. R. (1992). NEO PI-R: Professional Manual: Revised NEO PI-R and NEO-FFI. Florida: Psychological Assessment Resources, Inc.

Chan, K.-Y., & Drasgow, F. (2001). Toward a theory of individual differences and leadership: Understanding the motivation to lead. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 86*, 481-498. doi:10.1037/0021-9010.86.3.481

Chan, K.-Y., Ho, M.-H. R., Chernyshenko, O. S., Bedford, O., Uy, M. A., Gomulya, D., . . . Phan, W. M. J. (2012). Entrepreneurship, professionalism, leadership: A framework and measure for understanding boudaryless careers. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 81*, 73-88. doi:10.1016/j.jvb.2012.05.001

Fraenkel, J. R., Wallen, N. E., & Hyun, H. H. (2012). *How to design and evaluate research in education*. 8th ed. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.

Johnson, J. A. (2011). Development of a short form of the IPIP-NEO personality inventory. *Poster Presented at the 2nd Biennial Meeting of the Association for Research in Personality*, Riverside, CA.

Komarraju, M., Karau, S. J., Schmeck, R. R., & Avdic, A. (2011). The Big Five personality traits, learning styles, and academic achievement. *Personality and Individual Differences, 51*(4), 472-477. doi:10.1016/j.paid.2011.04.019

Lu, C. (2016). Linking leader personality traits to motivation to lead: A self-concept approach. *Social Behavior & Personality: an international journal, 44*(11), 1913-1926. doi:10.2224/sbp.2016.44.11.1913

Northouse, P. (2016). *Leadership theory and practice* (7th ed). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Oliver, J. D., & Hinkle, D. E. (1981). *Selecting statistical procedures for agricultural education research*. Paper presented at the 8th annual National Agricultural Education Research Meeting, Atlanta, GA.

Poropat, A. E. (2009). A meta-analysis of the five-factor model of personality and academic performance. *Psychological Bulletin, 135*, 322–338.

Reichard, R. J., & Walker, D. O. (2016). In pursuit: Mastering leadership through leader developmental readiness. *New Directions for Student Leadership, 2016*(149), 15-26. doi:10.1002/yd.20158

Zaccaro, S. J. (2007). Trait-based perspectives of leadership. *American Psychologist, 62*, 6-12. doi:10.1037/0003-066x.62.1.6

Utilizing Biomimicry to Teach Organizational Structure, Culture, and Decision-making in an Introductory Leadership Course

Allison L. Dunn, Summer F. Odom, Robert Strong, Jr., & Tracy Rutherford
Texas A&M University

Abstract

Research shoes many college students lack critical thinking skills. By facilitating connections between science and leadership, undergraduate students are presented with opportunities to develop their critical thinking skills. Biomimicry is one innovative practice focused on integrating knowledge across disciplines, as it searches for nature-inspired solutions to human challenges. On-line teaching modules focused on managing conflict, group decision-making, organizational structure, and organizational culture were used in a face-to-face introductory leadership course to incorporate leadership concepts with naturalistic solutions found in honey bee colonies. Excerpts from the modules will be shared illustrating how biomimicry can be applied to leadership along with lessons learned from this process.

Introduction

Historically, college students aspired to a specific occupation post-graduation, and selected the associated major to provide the needed specialized education and training. However, as the economy has shifted to a post-industrial knowledge focus, "the entire workplace ecosystem has become more fluid" (Chan, et al., 2012, p. 84). Gone are the days of employees expecting to stay with the same company, doing similar work, for an entire 30-year career. Today rather, individuals can and do move within and between traditional work-role domains (Chan, Uy, Chernyshenko, Ho, & Sam, 2015). With this increasingly flexible and interconnected world, the problems and challenges leaders face become more complex. Thus, preparing leaders who can solve these problems in new and innovative ways becomes even more important (Rosch, Collier, & Thompson, 2015). Consequently, higher education institutions continue to invest significant resources to provide opportunities for students to develop their leadership competency and capacity (Astin & Astin, 2000; Haber, 2012; Riggio, Ciulla, & Sorenson, 2003; Shertzer et al., 2005).

Even though college students typically are at the beginning of their leadership journey, many are at a developmental stage where they, "may form key motives, values, and aspects of identity that could shape their future actions and behaviors as leaders" (Waldman, Galvin, & Walumbwa, 2012, p. 158). The general applicability of the knowledge, skills, and abilities taught within a leadership major is a strength to be leveraged in this more fluid work environment. The flexibility expands a student's options for employment and/or additional education after graduation, in that there is no traditional career path for leadership majors. Specifically, the multi-dimensional nature of academic leadership programs provides students opportunities to develop needed transferable skills, like critical thinking, in various, applied contexts. This lack of specialization fits well in today's more fluid workplace (Chan, et al., 2012).

Review of Related Scholarship

The nature and scope of problems facing today's college graduates are unique and require increased competency and capacity in critical thinking skills. Thus, thinking critically across the curriculum has gained renewed emphasis as a key learning outcome for students in higher education (AACU, 2004; Kek & Huijser, 2011; Kronholm, 1996; Tsui, 2002). Despite these efforts, critical thinking is a skill purported by many to be deficient in college students, including students in colleges of agriculture (Flores et al., 2010; Jones and Merritt, 1999; Keeley et al., 1982; Kek & Huijser, 2011; Rudd et al., 2000; Zascavage et al., 2007). Simply being able to regurgitate what one has learned is not sufficient to successfully meet today's increasingly complex challenges. Rather, a higher form of learning including examination and evaluation is needed.

Even though educators and employers agree that critical thinking skills and dispositions are important, the lack of a common, unified definition of critical thinking and the misconception that critical thinking is equivalent to and synonymous with problem solving, complicates the situation (Rudd, et. al., 2000). Thus, it is important to note that while conceptually tied and highly related, developing critical thinking skills is not merely developing one's problem solving ability (Facione, 1990; Parr & Edwards, 2004).

Furthermore, Pascarella and Terezini (1991) concluded that critical thinking is the ability to, "identify central issues and assumptions in an argument, recognize important relationships, make correct inferences from data, deduce conclusions from information or data provided, interpret whether conclusions are warranted on the basis of the data given, and evaluate evidence or authority" (p.118, as cited in Friedel, et. al., 2008). Critical thinking is more than complex problem solving, and as such, is more time and labor-intensive to teach effectively. Problem solving is a more linear process of problem identification and completion of steps to a solution, whereas critical thinking encourages the use of values and belief systems to interpret, analyze, evaluate, and explain not only the problem itself, but the means by which the solution was reached (Facione, 1990; Facione, 2015). While critical thinking skills can be taught, research has shown that critical thinking is best learned in "environments of thinking," or environments that reinforce higher-level thinking in intentional and obvious ways (Tishman & Andrade, 1996, n.p.). Subsequently, the focus shifts from teachers imparting the answers, to students actively engaged in the search for the answers (Kek & Huijser, 2011). The use of inquiry-based or problem solving-based teaching is one such environment where higher-level thinking is reinforced, and thereby an effective way to teach critical thinking skills.

In preparation for careers after graduation, university and college faculty should actively engage students in opportunities to question what they are learning, identify and support the criteria they use to determine if a concept is sound, and figure out the process they would use to solve problems (Clough, 2008); or in other words, actively engage students in the process of critical thinking. The goal being that students, "internalize the thinking skills they learn, so that they will be better thinkers on their own, in a variety of contexts inside and outside school" (Tishman & Andrade, 1996, n.p.).

Effectively encouraging students to integrate their leadership learning in multiple contexts can be challenging. However, intentionally utilizing integrative learning techniques, including critical thinking, within a leadership course provides a framework for students whereby they can practice and develop these abilities. Incorporating integrative approaches to learning enables students to, "think the world together [rather] than think it apart" (Palmer & Zajonc, 2010). Thus, as faculty intentionally focus on the development of critical thinking skills in their students through the use of integrated learning techniques, students' critical thinking capacity and competency is increased. Integrated learning is more than requiring students to make connections between disciplines. Rather, it is the ability to first reflect on, synthesize, and then apply what the student learned in one context into new contexts (Owen, 2015).

To thrive in this knowledge-focused world, students must be able to think critically and integrate what they learn across disciplines, contexts, and throughout their lives (Huber & Hutchings, 2004). This call for integrative learning in higher education is not new, yet its renewed emphasis is important as it "challenges students to think beyond their classrooms, their disciplines, their histories, or their personal identifications" (QEP, 2012, p.14). Thus, by facilitating connections between science and leadership, students are given opportunities to develop skills and competencies needed to think critically and solve problems in new and innovative ways.

Biomimicry is one innovative way to integrate knowledge across disciplines. Defined as an approach "that seeks sustainable solutions to human challenges by emulating nature's time-tested patterns and strategies" (Biomimicry Institute, 2017, para 2), biomimicry has application beyond engineering or design. From communication to collaborative work environments, the natural world is replete with examples of sustainable practices applicable to leadership education and leader development. Yet, utilizing biomimicry in a formal leadership education setting is an emerging area; therefore, biomimicry provides a unique conceptual frame upon which students can build their leadership competency and capacity (Makin & Harrington, 2013).

Therefore, teaching principles of biomimicry in a leadership classroom incorporates interdisciplinary learning, occasions for individualized learning, and opportunities for students to develop broad cognitive skills. By studying biomimicry in leadership curriculum, researchers address Priority I of the Association of Leadership Educator's *National Leadership Education Research Agenda*: increased interdisciplinary efforts. According to Andenoro et al., (2013), "the intentional development of interdisciplinary connections is essential for the advancement of leadership education as a discipline," (p. 5). The purpose of this innovative teaching method was to introduce curricula integrating science, leadership, and critical thinking for undergraduate students completing a leadership course.

Description of Practice

This practice included the use of four interactive on-line teaching modules utilized in an introductory leadership course. Each module introduces and explores a specific leadership concept or principle, which is then tied to various naturalistic solutions or examples found in honey bee behavior. In an effort to create meaningful learning environments, these modules were designed to accommodate a variety of learning styles. Instructors can use the modules in

their entirety or in part, in a traditional face-to-face course, as modules within an on-line course, as supplemental resources to a formal lecture, or as curriculum for stand-alone leadership trainings. While the modules can be utilized in a group setting, they were designed for individualized instruction. The leadership topics addressed by the modules are managing conflict, group decision-making, organizational structure, and organizational culture, along with an overview module introducing biomimicry as a conceptual frame.

Once a firm footing in leadership concepts such as leadership is a values-based relational process, the differences between leadership and management, and the need to understand self as well as others was established in the course, the concept of biomimicry was introduced. Biomimicry has as its theoretical foundation six Life's Principles: evolve to survive, be resource (material and energy) efficient, adapt to changing conditions, integrate development with growth, be locally attuned and responsive, and use life-friendly chemistry. With the exception of using life-friendly chemistry, these principles are easily translated into the context of leadership.

Each module began with an overview or basic instruction of the specific leadership topic to be addressed and an example of that topic from the human world. Once the foundation was laid with human examples, connections were made to the natural world through the behaviors of honey bees. Through animations, videos, and other interactive technologies, students who participated in these learning modules were able to gain insight into leadership principles via an integrated learning environment.

In efforts to assess critical thinking, the UFCTI instrument was administered to each of the students at the end of the biomimicry unit of the course. By utilizing this assessment, a frame of reference for the students' preferred critical thinking style was gathered and used when examining students' synthesis of biomimicry and leadership concepts at the end of the course.

The final components of the practice were two synthesis activities. First, was the opportunity for the class to observe honey been behavior in person. At the end of the spring 2017, and with the assistant and sponsorship of an entomology professor on campus, the class was able to observe at the university's research honey bee hives. After putting on the protective suits, the students were able to work in teams of four or five to observe and document the leadership behaviors they witnessed in the honey bees. Second, was the opportunity for the same teams of four or five were to create a presentation detailing an aspect of the natural world (beyond honey bees) where they observed at least three leadership behaviors discussed in class in action. This group presentation was an opportunity for the students to synthesize the leadership principles they had learned over the semester with the theoretical framework of biomimicry.

Discussion of Outcomes

These on-line learning modules was piloted in the spring 2017 semester in a small section of an introductory leadership course. This course consisted of nineteen undergraduate students, ranging from first-year students to juniors in college, who were not currently enrolled as leadership majors or minors, but were looking to declare either an agricultural leadership major or minor in the near future. The students were required to view and interact with various aspects

of the on-line modules, including the on-line assessments, as means of supplemental instruction for the in-class activities and discussion on the related topics.

It is anticipated that the students will be able to recognize leadership behaviors in themselves, others, and in the natural world more easily after completing this class. It is also anticipated that incorporating scientific principles, such as biomimicry, into leadership classes, provides an environment for interdisciplinary learning, synthesis, and application. We purposively selected students who were not currently majoring or minoring in leadership to participate in this pilot study because we wanted this introductory leadership class to be the only leadership class they were taking this semester, in efforts to examine how the use of biomimicry principles helped the students increase their understanding of leadership.

Through the use of anonymous pre- and post-tests, students articulated increased competency in team development, dealing with conflict in groups, awareness and management of organizational structure, and the impacts of organizational culture on leader effectiveness. For each module, students indicated what they hoped to learn about the specific leadership from that module. Four course assessments (exams) were used to monitor individual development and knowledge retention over the course of the semester. Furthermore, a comprehensive assessment of biomimicry and leadership competency was included after the class fieldtrip at the end of the semester.

Reflections of the Practitioner

To date, utilizing the natural world for examples of leadership behavior seems to be helping students deepen their understanding of leadership concepts and principles. Some students have commented on how they plan to use what they are learning in class in their future careers. Additionally, many students reported enjoying using a different medium with which to learn, i.e. not simply sitting in a formal classroom, as a benefit of these on-line modules. They thought it was "cool" and "interesting" to talk about leadership behavior and how the same behaviors can be seen in honey bees. A long-term goal of this project is to find ways to integrate principles of biomimicry into other undergraduate leadership courses, such as Leadership of Volunteers, Team Leadership, or Leading Change. A second long-term goal is to provide access to these modules for use by other leadership educators to better prepare the next generation of leaders to solve the complex issues they will face.

Recommendations

When contemplating if biomimicry should be incorporated into a specific leadership course, it is wise for leadership educators to consider that leadership, as we know it, is not expressly displayed in the natural world. Thus, intentionality in selection of topic and instructional design is needed. This finding raises more research questions, such as, where does biomimicry best fit within leadership curriculum? What interventions can and should be made to reach students with different learning and critical thinking styles? What can be considered the best practices for facilitating connections between science and leadership?

References

Astin, A. W., & Astin, H. S. (2000). *Leadership reconsidered: Engaging higher education in social change.* Battle Creek, MI: W. K. Kellogg Foundation.

Biomimicry Institute. (2017). *What is biomimicry?* Retrieved from https://biomimicry.org/what-is-biomimicry/.

Chan, K. Y., Ho, M. R., Chernyshenko, O. S., Bedford, O., Uy, M. A., Gomulya, D., … Phan, W. M. J. (2012). Entrepreneurship, professionalism, leadership: A framework and measure for understanding boudaryless careers. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 81*, 73-88. doi:10.1016/j.jvb.2012.05.001

Haber, P. (2012). Perceptions of leadership: An examination of college students' understandings of the concept of leadership. *Journal of Leadership Education, 11*(2), 26–51.

Huber, M. T. & Hutchings, P. (2004). *Integrative learning: Mapping the terrain.* Washington, D.C.: Association of Colleges and Universities (AAC&U).

Mackin, D. & Harrington, M. (2013). *Survival of the hive: 7 leadership lessons from a beehive.* Bloomington, IN: AuthorHouse.

Riggio, R. E., Ciulla, J. B., & Sorenson, G. J. (2003). Leadership education at the undergraduate level: A liberal arts approach to leadership development. In S. E. Murphy, & R. R. Riggio (Eds.), *The future of leadership development* (pp. 223-236). Mahway, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Roberts, T. G., Harder, A., & Brashears, M. T. (Eds). (2016). *American Association for Agricultural Education national research agenda: 2016-2020.* Gainesville, FL: Department of Agricultural Education and Communication.

Rosch, D. M., Collier, D., & Thompson, S. E. (2015). An exploration of students' motivation to lead: An analysis by race, gender, and student leadership behaviors. *Journal of College Student Development. 56*(3) 286-291.

Shertzer, J., Wall, V., Frandsen, A., Guo, Y., Whalen, D. F., & Shelley II, M. C. (2005). Four dimensions of student leadership: What predicts students' attitudes toward leadership development? *The College Student Affairs Journal, 25*(1), 85-108.

Quality Enhancement Plan (QEP). (2012). *Aggies commit to learning for a lifetime: A quality enhancement plan.* Retrieved from http://provost.[institution]/initiatives/quality-enhancement-plan.

Waldman, D. A., Galvin, B. M., & Walumbwa, F. O. (2012). The development of motivation to lead and leader role identity. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies, 20*(2), 156-168.

An Assessment of the Undergraduate Leadership Teaching Assistant Experience (ULTA): Students' Change in Transformational Leadership Behaviors

Whitney Green, Summer F. Odom, & Lori L. Moore
Texas A&M University

Abstract

This study examined how undergraduate students (N = 32) who participated as an undergraduate leadership teaching assistant (ULTA) for a leadership course perceived their abilities to exhibit transformational leadership behaviors as a result of the ULTA experience. A 22-item then-post survey was used to assess students' change in perceived abilities to exhibit transformational leadership behaviors. Results indicate students' perceived abilities in transformational leadership behaviors increased and showed significant differences for each of the four factors: idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration between the post and then scores. Students reported agreement with perceiving their abilities to exhibit transformational leadership behaviors at the conclusion of their ULTA experience.

Introduction

As university budgets have decreased, faculties have begun searching out motivated undergraduate students to help with the course load (Firmin, 2008). This practice has proven mutually beneficial, with the instructor's work load being decreased and the student participating in the undergraduate teaching assistant (UTA) experience gaining both professional skills as well as a deeper understanding of the course materials (Schalk, McGinnis, Harring, Hendrickson, & Smith, 2009). There are few studies that focus on the UTA experience in leadership courses. This research study focused on evaluating the UTA experience of students in leadership courses in regards to how UTAs perceived their transformational leadership behaviors as a result of the experience.

Reports from AAC&U (2005) and Kuh (2008) found four major areas for undergraduate students to achieve in during their studies: knowledge of human culture and physical and natural worlds, intellectual and practical world, personal and social responsibility ad integrative and applied learning. While many individuals within universities and employers agree with these learning outcomes, frequently, college graduates are viewed as ready for entry-level jobs, without the skills necessary to be promoted (Kuh, 2008). It was recommended that high-impact practices be included in to address the four essential learning outcomes (Kuh, 2008).

Some examples of high-impact practices include learning communities, study abroad, service learning, internships, research or a senior experience or project (Kuh, O'Donnell, & Reed, 2013). Odom, Ho, and Moore (2014) identified an ULTA, a term they used to refer to undergraduate leadership teaching assistants, experience as a possible high-impact practice option for leadership students. While research exists on the general outcomes of a UTA experience (Firmin, 2008; Schalk, McGinnis, Harring, Hendrickson, & Smith, 2009), research is still lacking regarding the impact of ULTA experiences in leadership education (Odom, Ho, & Moore, 2015).

The ULTA experience may count as a high impact experience as is required by a growing number of universities for graduation. Serving as an ULTA allows students opportunities to apply course material and develop a personal understanding of their leadership skills. One ULTA program has four main objectives: developing career skills, deepened understanding of leadership studies, broadened viewpoints of teaching leadership, and experience with a diverse audience (Odom et al., 2014). The ULTA experience is an opportunity for developing student leaders to practice developing future student leaders.

The ULTA experience is a pedagogical tool that leadership educators may use to develop leadership skills in their undergraduate students (Odom et al., 2014). Many high-impact practices have proven successful in specific learning outcomes. In a qualitative study, the ULTA experience was shown to have progress in at least three, if not all of the four essential learning outcomes (Kuh, 2008; Odom et al., 2015) of high-impact learning practices.

It was recommended that further studies should be conducted in evaluating the ULTA experience; therefore this study sought to quantitatively assess this experience. Priority number two of the NLERA is Programmatic Assessment and Evaluation. This priority area includes "programmatic assessment processes and their necessity in higher education" (Andenoro, 2013, p. 9). This study addresses priority two by assessing the undergraduate teaching assistant experience as a leadership education program.

Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework for this study was rooted in transformational leadership theory (Bass, 1985). Burns (1978) identified two types of interactive events between the leader and follower(s): transactional leadership and transformational leadership. Transactional leaders interact with followers such that desired outcomes are achieved while transformational leaders interact with followers to achieve performance beyond expectations (Bass, 1985). Bass (1985), expanding on the work of Burns (1978), argued that transformational leadership was not independent of transactional leadership, but rather the two occurred as complementary constructs. According to Bass (1997), transformational leadership adds to the effectiveness of transactional leadership.

Bass' (1985) model of transformational and transactional leadership there are four transformational leadership factors and two transactional factors (Northouse, 2016). The four transformational leadership factors are referred to as the four Is: idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration. "Idealized influence describes leaders who act as strong role models for followers; followers identify with these leaders and very much want to emulate them" (Northouse, 2016, p. 167). Inspirational motivation refers to how leaders provide a clear understanding of shared goals and inspire followers to become a part of the shared vision (Northouse, 2016). Leaders who demonstrate intellectual stimulation encourage followers to explore new and creative ways of dealing with organizational problems (Northouse, 2016). Individualized consideration is the transformational leadership factor associated with how leaders treat each individual followers uniquely and create a supportive climate that stimulates individual growth (Northouse, 2016).

Transactional leadership factors include contingent reward and management-by-exception. According to Northouse (2016), contingent reward "is an exchange process between leaders and followers in which effort by followers is exchanged for specific rewards" (p. 171). Management-by-exception "is leadership that involves corrective criticism, negative feedback, and negative reinforcement" and can be either active or passive (Northouse, 2016, p. 171).

Purpose

The purpose of this exploratory descriptive study was to determine if significant differences existed in students' perception of their abilities to exhibit transformational leadership behaviors (idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual consideration, and individualized consideration) after completing an ULTA experience. This study aimed to assess how students' perceived transformational leadership behaviors changed after participating as an ULTA.

Methods

To assess undergraduate students' perception of their abilities to exhibit transformational leadership behaviors, then-post survey research was used as the approach for this study (Fraenkel, Wallen, & Hyun, 2012). Then-post survey research has been shown to reduce response shift bias (Rohs, 1999). The population was all undergraduate students who served as undergraduate teaching assistants in leadership courses from Spring 2013 through Spring 2016. There were 32 students (N = 32) who served as undergraduate leadership teaching assistants and completed the survey. The population included undergraduate teaching assistants from each fall and spring semester between Spring 2013 and Spring 2016. Undergraduate teaching assistants were also from two undergraduate leadership courses in the department.

This study used a 22-item instrument developed by the researchers to measure transformational leadership behaviors of undergraduate students serving as undergraduate leadership teaching assistants. Leadership behaviors were measured on a five-point Likert scale: *1 = strong disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neither agree nor disagree, 4 = agree, and 5 = strongly agree*. The reliability coefficients for each construct were calculated ex post facto. The internal consistency of the factors were: intellectual stimulation $\alpha = .68$, individualized consideration $\alpha = .60$, idealized influence $\alpha = .71$, and inspirational motivation $\alpha = .72$. Each construct had acceptable reliability coefficients (Cronbach, 1951).

Descriptive statistics (Agresti & Finlay, 2009) were implemented to examine students' mean scores for each of the four factors of transformational leadership. The researchers employed *t*-tests to determine if significant differences existed between the then and post scores for perceived abilities to exhibit transformational leadership behaviors. Agresti and Finlay (2009) indicated a *t*-test reveals whether the difference between two means is statistically significant.

Findings

The objective for this study was to determine if significant differences existed in students' perception of their abilities to exhibit transformational leadership behaviors (idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual consideration, and individualized consideration) after

completing an undergraduate teaching assistant experience. All post mean scores were higher than the then mean scores in all four of the transformational leadership behaviors (see Table 1).

When given the then-post survey and asked to rate their comfort level with each of the transformational leadership behaviors when they started as an ULTA, participants rated their level of agreement with three of the four transformational leadership behaviors (intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration, and inspirational motivation) as between neither agree nor disagree and agree. They were between agree and strongly agree with respect to their agreement with their abilities to exhibit idealized influence behaviors. All post mean scores were above a 4.0 indicating students agreed they were able to exhibit each of the four transformational leadership behaviors.

Table 1
Construct Means and Significance Tests for Transformational Leadership Behaviors (N=32)

Items	Then		Post		
	M	SD	M	SD	p
Intellectual Stimulation	3.729	.5266	4.468	.4263	.000
Individualized Consideration	3.427	.5320	4.125	.555	.000
Idealized Influence	4.385	.5105	4.729	.3327	.001
Inspirational Motivation	3.354	.7427	4.333	.6046	.000

Note. Scale*: 5 = strongly agree, 4= agree, 3 = neither agree nor disagree, 2 = disagree, 1 = strongly disagree.*

Conclusions

The purpose of this exploratory descriptive study was to examine how undergraduate students participating as an undergraduate teaching assistant perceived their leadership behaviors to change as a result of the experience. The ULTAs in this study reported significant increases in their level of confidence to exhibit transformational leadership behaviors following their experience as an ULTA as compared to when they began. All post mean scores were higher than the then mean scores. All post mean scores were above a 4.0 indicating agreement with behaviors related to transformational leadership behaviors.

Although they showed significant increases in all four transformational leadership behaviors, the ULTAs in this study reported stronger agreement with statements related to idealized influence when they began as an ULTA as compared to statements related to the other transformational leadership behaviors. This suggests that at the start of their experience, the ULTAs believed they were more ready to engage in behaviors others would look to in their role models than they were in behaviors related to working more directly to motivate and encourage individual students to develop their learning and reasoning skills.

References

Agresti, A., & Finlay, B. (2009). *Statistical methods for the social sciences* (4th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.

American Association of Colleges and Universities (AACU&U). (2005). *Liberal education outcomes: A preliminary report on student achievement in college.* Washington, D.C.: Author.

Andenoro, A. C., Allen, S. J., Dugan, J. P., Sowcik, M., Haber-Curran, P., Jenkins, D. M., &

Osteen, L. (2013). *National leadership education research agenda 2013-2018.* Retrieved from: http://leadershipeducators.org/Resources/Docments/NLEReasearchAgenda.3.pdf.

Bass, B. M. (1985). *Leadership and performance beyond expectation.* New York, NY: Free Press.

Bass, B. M. (1997). Does the transactional-transformational leadership paradigm transcend the organization and national boundaries? *American Psychologist, 52*(2), 130-139.

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

Cronbach, L. J. (1951). Coefficient alpha and the internal structure of tests. *Psychometrika, 16*(3), 297–334. doi: 10.1007/BF02310555

Firmin, M. W. (2008). Utilizing undergraduate assistants in general education courses. *Contemporary Issues in Education Research, 1*(1), 1-6.

Fraenkel, J. R., Wallen, N. E., & Hyun, H. H. (2012). *How to design and evaluate research in education* (8th ed.). New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.

Kuh, G. D. (2008). *High-impact educational practices: What they are, who has access to them, and why they matter.* American Association of Colleges and Universities: Washington, D.C.

Morgan, A. C., King, D. L., Rudd, R. D., & Kaufman, E. K. (2013). Elements of an undergraduate agricultural leadership program: A delphi study. *Journal of Leadership Education, 12*(1), 140-155.

Northouse, P. G. (2016). *Leadership: Theory and practice* (7th ed.). Los Angeles, CA: Sage.
Odom, S. F., Ho, S. P., & Moore, L. L. (2014). The undergraduate leadership teaching assistant (ULTA): A high-impact practice for undergraduates studying leadership. *Journal of Leadership Education, 13*(2), 152-161. doi: 10.12806/V13/I2/A2

Odom, S. F., Ho, S. P.*, & Moore, L. L. (2015). An examination of the outcomes of the undergraduate leadership teaching assistant experience as a high-impact practice in leadership education. *Journal of Leadership Education, 14*(2), 100-117. doi*: 1012806/V14/I2/R7

Rohs, F. R. (1999). Response shift bias: A problem in evaluating leadership development with self-report pretest-posttest measures. *Journal of Agricultural Education, 40*(4), 28-37. doi: 10.5032/jae.1999.04028

Schalk, K. A., McGinnis, J. R., Harring, J. R., Hendrickson, A., & Smith, A. C. (2009). The undergraduate teaching assistant experience offers opportunities similar to the undergraduate research experiences. *Journal of Microbiology & Biology Education, 10*(1), 32-24.

Exploring the Embodiment of Story in Nonprofit Leadership

Margaret Hunt & Lori M. Throupe
Christopher Newport University

Abstract

How does one be[come] the change? This emerging research project explores connections between a non-profit founder's personal identity story and their leadership as manifested in their non-profit organization's member perceptions and branding. Building upon the word of Howard Gardner (1995) and Stephen Denning (2007, 2011), this work seeks to begin the process of exploring how one non-profit founder's processing of their personal identity story and use of narrative intelligence effects their embodiment of leadership vision story as manifested in their non-profit organization. The aim of this project is to better understand the processes embedded in a leader's embodiment of leadership story or one might say their process of "be[com]ing the change."

Introduction

In addition to effectively telling stories, Howard Gardner (1995) suggests that visionary leaders must embody their stories. Denning (2007) offers narrative intelligence as a leadership skill; is embodiment a leadership skill? How is it measured or explored? This emerging research engages the non-profit realm to explore connections between a non-profit founder's personal identity story and their leadership of their non-profit organization as illuminated by member perceptions and organizational branding. Non-profits in particular utilize identity stories to connect to the audience and move them to action (Goodman, 2015). The use of narratives is crucial in non-profits evident by the fact that 96% of nonprofits regard stories as a key component to their communication (Dixon, 2013). The question quickly becomes how does a non-profit founder's personal identity story influence their embodiment of their visionary story unto organizational effectiveness.

Background

Howard Gardner (1995) and Stephen Denning (2007) have identified elements of story, and more specifically, storytelling as central to the leadership process. According to Daniel Taylor a story is, "the telling of the significant actions of characters over time" (Taylor, 2001, p. 15). In this, stories are essential communicative, relational, and meaningful. The concepts of story and leadership quickly interconnect, overlap, and intimately intertwine concerning these essential elements. Hackman and Johnson put forth that leadership is at the core of the human relational experience, and from their communication perspective, define leadership as "human (symbolic) communication, which modifies the attitudes and behaviors of others in order to meet shared group goals and needs" (2009, p. 11). In a similar vein, James MacGregor Burns (2003) recognized leadership as a relational communicative process in that leaders affirm follower wants as needs using a language of values in engaging a mutually transforming actualization process towards experiential fulfillment of need-meeting values. Each of these conceptions of leadership infers an initiated communicative change process unto the experience of that which is

individually and/or collectively believed to be significant or meaningful. Gardner (1995), Denning (2007), and Taylor (2001) seem to agree that a preeminent opportunity for changing others' minds (and therefore behavior) regarding/unto that which is understood to be meaningful—is story. Taylor (2001) explains the desire for meaning as the "originating impulse of story" (p. 1).

Gardner (1995) and Denning (2007, 2011) both discuss specific storytelling skills helpful in amplifying leadership effectiveness unto the fulfillment of such values-vision. Narrative intelligence is the ability in which an individual understands the consistent and pervasive role of these narratives into all facets of human existence (Denning, 2007, p. 95). Stephen Crities argues that we process events in narrative form in order to create a meaningful whole (Taylor, 2001, p. 20). Leaders aid in the meaning making process with the use of the cognitive and emotional framework of storytelling (Darth & Palus, 1994, n.p.). Gardner (1995) not only addresses various levels of appeal a leader must use in storytelling, but that a leader must function as an embodiment of the story itself. "The formidable challenge confronting the visionary leader is to offer a story, and an embodiment, that builds upon the most credible of past synthesis" (Gardner, 1995, p. 56).

From a cognitive approach, Gardner argues that leaders who successfully convey and embody their stories are those most effective in inspiring and motivating followers (1995). Not all stories inspire action, most do not, but innovative and visionary leaders enhance a previously muted story or create a new story that successfully conveys an inspiring message. It is these leaders that Gardner denotes as "leaders by choice" (Gardner, 1995, p. 13). Their stories were crafted to be inclusive and were motivated by the potential for change, not power (Gardner, 1995, p. 13). Once we hear these powerful stories, we don't completely abandon the beliefs delineated in them when we return to our own stories—we are changed by then. Crafting and manipulation of words to convey a story significantly impacts leaders' effectiveness. Stories must meet the intellectual and emotional needs of the followers in efforts to give them a sense of value (Taylor, 2001, p. 129; Burns, 2003).

Here we seek to explore the connections between the visionary stories used as tools within leadership through effective storytelling and use of narrative intelligence and the synthesizing role of our own personal stories in shaping that which we will grow to represent or embody. Daniel Taylor has gone so far as to open his work with the statement, "you are your stories" (2001, p. 1). What is this process of becoming or embodying and what are its implications for the leadership process? This project seeks to observe this process by examining non-profit leadership. Often fueled by dynamic discontent and determination unto meaning, founders of non-profits in many ways are not only contributing and modeling the meaning they have come to understand in elements of their personal identity stories – but they are seeking to fashion organizations from them.

Non-profits in particular utilize identity stories to connect to the audience and move them to action (Goodman, 2015). The use of narratives is crucial in non-profits evident by the fact that 96% of nonprofits regard stories as a key component to their communication (Dixon, 2013). As discussed before, stories build bridges and nonprofits use this to connect audience members to their mission. Most often, nonprofits will utilize empathy-generating stories to produce a

powerful and persuasive message (Bublitz et al., 2016, 239). Difficult stories drive questioning, advocacy, and action, so the best storytellers in nonprofits tell challenging stories (Bublitz et al., 2016, 239). Their stories must also have causality allowing followers to see how the leader's story and goals can lead to collective action (Bublitz et al., 2016, 239).

The research goal of this study was to explore the relationship between a non-profit founder's personal identity story and their leadership within their non-profit organization by examining member perceptions and organizational branding. A specific non-profit founder will be examined in regards to her personal identity story and the organization she founded, X Organization.

Description of Program/Methodology

Participants

The founder of X Organization was observed and interviewed. The four other staff members were also questioned and observed to determine the followers' perceptions of the founder's story, leadership effectiveness through embodiment, and the organizational metanarrative.

Procedure

Prior to conducting this research, all participants were informed and agreed to be a participant in the research. To determine the impact of the founder's story, a case study was performed. Over a period of five months, the founder and employees were observed during events, meetings, and daily office occurrences. An interview was also completed including question such as, "how did your story influence the creation of your nonprofit?", and "What are the main obstacles that inhibit the fulfillment of your mission? How are you planning to overcome them?" The interview was transcribed after recording to ensure all information was properly accounted for. The research lasted five months allowing for a more in depth viewpoint into the interworking of the organizations in multiple situations.

Data Analysis

The study was predominantly qualitative, but statistics on the effectiveness of the organization were researched to reinforce the findings. The founder's use of language, explicit and implicit attitudes, and symbolic themes were observed. The observed behavior was analyzed by using Gardner's Cognitive Leadership Theory, Taylor's analysis of story, and Bublitz' research on transformative stories in social impact organizations. These three authors are widely viewed as scholars within the field of leadership, so their research is the basis for this study. For fear of bias, the perspective of the staff and founder were both analyzed.

Current Results

The importance of story was reiterated directly and indirectly by the founder. She discussed how her story and subsequent pain drew her to create an organization that could partially alleviate that pain for others. After observing her at multiple speaking functions, it was found that she crafted

her story in a different way to tailor to the audience. While speaking about her story, she intertwines stories of other survivors within her speech.

The staff at X Organization also attributes the founder's story as the key story in the nonprofit. They unanimously agree that the founder dreams big ideas, but fails to implement them. They reiterated multiple times that they feel over-worked, but the mission of the organization sustains them. The disconnect between the founder and the staff may be attributed to their inability to provide constructive criticism to one another.

Conclusion/ Recommendations

X Organization is built on a story of identity. The organization itself has its own narrative, but the founder's story is a key component to many of their events. It is this story that is spoken in various forms across the country encouraging students to "Be the Change". She crafts her story to fit her audience. When speaking in front of college students, she relays pieces of her story but discusses the increased risk of sexual assault when alcohol and college students mix. When speaking on a talk show, she narrows her focus to illuminate the work of F2F rather than her story. She crafts her stories to impact those audience members to subscribe to her vision.

The founder edited her own story from one of fear to an inspiring story of freedom. Her story was broken, her meaning lost, but the founder attests her joy was found again by helping others heal. Her crafted story has helped countless others by creating a shared thread of meaning. Sexual assault isn't a women's issue, nor a college student issue. It is a universal problem that faces us all. The founder depicts this while speaking at venues across the country. She makes the unfamiliar familiar with the use of words combined to create a tale of hurt then hope. Once we hear her story, we are touched in the heart, but then forced to think when the statistics are presented. Her speeches elicit empathy and provoke thought, which aligns with Gardner's idea of innovative leadership.

X Organization is currently undergoing a rebranding phase, so the topic of story is at the forefront of their minds which may influence the results. The biased nature of the researcher could impact the analysis of the founder. Due to the founder being their boss, the staff members may not answer truthfully in regards to leadership abilities. Due to the nature of case studies, the results will not be able to be generated to the wider population. The study itself will be impossible to replicate due to the ever changing context.

References

Bublitz, M. G., Escalas, J. E., Peracchio, L. A., Furchheim, P., Grau, S. L., Hamby, A., & … Burns, J.M. (2003). *Transforming leadership: a new pursuit of happiness.* New York, NY: Grove Press.

Couto, R. A. (2004). Narratives. In G. R. Goethals, G. J. Sorenson, & J. M. Burns (Eds.), *Encyclopedia of Leadership* (Vol. 3, pp. 1067-1074). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Reference.

Denning, S. (2007). *The secret language of leadership: how leaders inspire action through narrative.* San Francisco, CA: Wiley and Sons.

Dixon, J. (2013). *Stories Worth Telling.* Center for Social Impact Communications. Retrieved August 8, 2016 from, http://meyerfoundation.org/news- room/publications/stories-worth- telling- guide-strategic-and-sustainable-nonprofit- storytelling]

Drath. W., and C. Palus (1994). *Making common sense: Leadership as meaning-making in a community of practice.* Published as CCL Report No. 156: Center for Creative Leadership.

Gardner, H. (2011). *Leading minds: an anatomy of leadership.* New York, NY: Basic Books. Goodman, Andy (2015), *Storytelling as best practice.* Los Angeles: The Goodman Center. Hackman, M.Z. and Johnson, C.E. (2009). *Leadership: a communication perspective.* Long Grove, IL: Waveland Press, Inc.

Scott, A. (2016). Transformative stories: a framework for crafting stories for social impact organizations. *Journal of Public Policy & Marketing*, 35(2), 237-248.

Taylor, D. (2001). *Tell me a story: the life-shaping power of our stories.* St. Paul, MN: Bog Walk Press.

Life Cycle of a Theory to Pedagogy

Nicole Stedman & Anthony C. Andenoro
University of Florida

Abstract

This poster abstract articulates the process by which a theory becomes teaching and learning pedagogy. Through the proposed stages of establishment, translation, implementation, assessment, and confirmation this poster showcases the process using Emotionally Engaged Thinking (EET) FACE Method as an example. Within the existing literature a model of this nature has not been documented, leaving a gap for those seeking to document this process.

Introduction

This innovative practice poster explores and documents the life cycle of a theory as it moves through the stages of establishment, translation, implementation, assessment, and confirmation. Theories often emerge when new information regarding the nature of a phenomenon is documented. Theories have central components that contribute to their validation, definitions, functional relationships, and operational definitions (Schutt, 2012). Because theories offer us the opportunity to classify, understand, predict, guide, and act they have become central components of disciplines, research, and often practice. Emotionally Engaged Thinking (EET), as established by Stedman and Andenoro (2015) was a practical leadership theory that has transitioned from abstract, to applied, to practiced pedagogy. Through this poster abstract the life cycle of a theory to pedagogy will be documented.

Background

A theories utility is based on certain criteria. For one, it can moderate by describing the relationships between variables (what), it can mediate describing conditions under which variables impact other variables (why), and it can guide translation into other areas of application (Pettigrew, 1987). A piece of developing a new theory is to create the means in which these elements are identified. Further, as a theorists it is often necessary to move the theory from abstract to applied; however, as an educator there is an additional need to move the theory from being simply applied to being pedagogical, when it is appropriately defined as such.

Pedagogy is the term that describes the process by which an academic or theoretical concept is taught. It is often contrasted with that of andragogy (Knowles, 1984), which addresses the instruction of adults. While pedagogy may be most affiliated with formal instruction, its application can be broad focusing on elements of the teaching and learning process. Learning, often defined as, "…the acquisition and modification of knowledge, skills, strategies, beliefs, attitudes, and behaviors" (Schunk, 2000, p.1).

Suppes (1974) purported that a theory is a set of principles that explain a phenomenon. Learning theory then illuminates phenomenon associated with how people learn and under what conditions. Schunk (2000) identified six critical issues, in which theory can address:

1. How does learning occur?
2. Which factors influence learning?
3. What is the role of memory?
4. What is the role of motivation?
5. How does transfer occur?
6. Which types of learning does the theory best explain?

Specific learning theories address various dimensions of learning from behavioral, social cognitive, cognitive learning, and motivation. One specific theory group addresses the self-regulation process, "whereby learners systematically direct their thoughts, feelings, and actions toward the attainment of their goals" (Schunk, 2000, p. 355). Further, it is generally accepted in self-regulated learning that learners contribute to and are active contributors to their learning.

The concept outlined in this poster presents the transition of an abstract theory, to applied, and to pedagogy. The development of Emotionally Engaged Thinking (EET) (Stedman & Andenoro, 2015) forms the basis of this innovative idea. EET emerged as theory to guide decision-making with respect to complex problems. Through Emotionally Engaged Thinking, one is more likely to engage in Emotionally Engaged Leadership. The research team, who established EET from ten years of research examining the relationship between critical thinking and emotional intelligence, have also created a model of implementation for it's application based on the FACE Method. However, it has also been explored and used as a teaching and learning pedagogy based in self-regulatory learning theory.

Description of Methodology

When researchers embark on a process of discovery there is often the notion that the resulting theory may not progress beyond the abstract theoretical. Yet, those who practice the applied sciences promote the theory into practice, or praxis. Praxis is the application or use of skills, or knowledge, or in this particular case, theory. Further, those who are in educational settings have a unique opportunity to implement the theory as pedagogy. Of course, this may be relevant for a limited number of theories which have teaching and learning implications.

Stage 1, Establishment

The first stage aligns with establishment of the theory, as an intellectual outcome of research conducted and articulated. It will meet the established criteria for theory, in which the theory addresses the who, what, when, and how of a phenomenon. This will be a unique process based on the research and development of the theory. In the case of EET, the theory was ten years in the making from the beginning of research and documentation beginning in 2005, through the first published pieces in 2007. Researchers further explored this phenomenon identifying contexts, variables, and elements with theory articulation in 2013 and published in 2015.

Stage 2, Translation

This stage represents the transition from abstract theory to applied contexts. As theories are articulated and expressed in the abstract, they then may be promoted into praxis. This is the point when the theory is applied to a specific context, again fulfilling a component of theory development. When the variables are examined for impact on one another and shown to have practical place in real-world environments. For EET, this was established in the publication of the work, which included specific examples of contexts of which the theory could be applied. This also followed the conducted research showcasing the specific relationship of variables as expressed in college-aged students.

Stage 3, Implementation

This stage moves the theory from applied to tool. This stage has the least amount of documentation in the literature, as it is the leap from simply being applied to becoming a pedagogical tool for the teaching and learning process. Even in the teaching and learning literature (Schunk, 2000) there is nothing which describes this process. As EET was documented as an applied theory, it became clear that the context of teaching of learning was an appropriate and relevant outcome. Because of the researchers' connection with higher education and leadership development of undergraduates, that context became a clear place for application. However, during this process it was further identified that the model itself truly promoted self-regulatory pedagogy. While the original research conducted examined principles of self-regulation through the affective domains of critical thinking and emotional intelligence, the original intent was not teaching and learning.

In order to fully realize the potential EET had as pedagogy, it had to be implemented in a manner consistent with teaching and learning philosophies. Again, self-regulatory learning must show "whereby learners systematically direct their thoughts, feelings, and actions toward the attainment of their goals" (Schunk, 2000, p. 355). To that end, a tool was developed from the theory that elicits very specific objectives of EET, through application of the FACE Method. A questionnaire was developed which could be used in the classroom as a supplementary teaching tool. Through several trial question iterations connecting to FACE Method the researchers created a tool, which accomplished theoretical objectives of EET and self-regulatory teaching and learning pedagogy.

Stage 4, Assessment

In the final stage of theory to pedagogy, the tools must be assessed for their impact and ability to accomplish key learning objectives. In the particular case of EET, student outcomes associated with the tool had to demonstrate self-regulatory learning. For the last year, assessment of the tool has taken place in a number of classrooms demonstrating its ability to move students from emotional response from stimuli, through cognition and thinking, and to agency, the ability to act independently and make their own choices. Without the assessment stage beta-testing and confirmation may not take place.

Stage 5, Confirmation

The final stage of confirmation is just that, it is the point when the theory has finally gone through enough trials and assessment that it may be confirmed as a pedagogical tool. In the case of EET, current research continues to showcase the FACE Method handout, as just that a tried and true pedagogical tool designed to elicit self-regulatory learning.

Current Results

Emotionally Engaged Thinking (EET) (Stedman & Andenoro, 2015) continues to be established a theory which can promote positive decision-making based on emotional catalyst. Because of this, the application of theory is explored in a number of contexts. Current research is still establishing EET has a theoretical contribution and is now explored further in its use as a self-regulatory teaching tool. Researchers have found that students who are exposed to the FACE Method teaching tool have demonstrated that they are capable of using their feelings and emotions to the attainment of their goals.

Conclusions and Recommendations

The conclusive evidence of this practices, is that when a theory is developed for theoretical purposes, it may never full y be actualized for it's ability to create change. Further, the praxis of the theory is only way, in which theories can be used. In educational settings pedagogy becomes a potential contribution, but researchers must more clearly articulate the process. Through this abstract, it is hoped that researchers recognize a tangible process for translating theory to pedagogy.

In order to fully appreciate the implications of this idea, other theories must be analyzed through this lens, so that the stage of confirmation may be realized across existing teaching and learning theories.

References

Knowles, M. (1984). Andragogy in Action. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Pettigrew, A.M. (1987). Theoretical, methodological, and empirical issues in studying change: A response to Starkey. *Journal of Management Studies, 24,* 420-426.

Schunk, D.H. (2000). *Learning theories: An educational perspective.* Upper Saddle: Prentice Hall.

Schutt, R.K. (2012). *Investigating the social world.* Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Stedman, N. L., & Anthony, C. (2015). Emotionally engaged leadership: Shifting paradigms and creating adaptive solutions for 2050. *Leadership 2050: Critical Challenges, Key Contexts, and Emerging Trends*, 145-157.

Buzz Groups and Role Simulation:
Interactive Teaching Methods for Interpersonal Leadership Skills

James Edd Jason Headrick
University of Nebraska-Lincoln

Abstract

The purpose of this innovative practice paper will focus on the teaching and learning of the levels of communication incorporating buzz groups and role simulation instructional teaching methods into class curriculum. This instructional and active learning hybrid method occurred at a university within an interpersonal skills for leadership course to help students integrate key content surrounding communication and leadership development with reflection on student comprehension and future application.

Introduction

Helping students better understand leadership content and application for future use is a challenge of classroom instruction (Santangelo & Tomlinson, 2009). Leadership pedagogy utilizes many methodologies in order to reach the leadership classroom. Jenkins (2012) established a set of leadership pedagogies from his research based on a nationwide survey (n=303) into the instructional methods by those who taught leadership education courses. Based on his implications that simulations, games and role-play were not used in the leadership classroom consistently, the need for this paper and the demonstration of such tactics emerged.

Leadership requires the command of interpersonal skills (Day, Harrison, & Halpin, 2012). The purpose of the undergraduate interpersonal skills course is to help students examine the practical application of soft skills into their everyday lives and to prepare them for their future careers. During the college experience, educators have a large influence on the development of soft skills (Schulz, 2008). The levels of communication (Powell, 1999) are a key concept in learning interpersonal skills. In one study, a deeper understanding of communications was the skill deemed to be most important by employers for their future workforce (Robles, 2012). The purpose of this innovative practice paper is to explore the incorporation of buzz groups and role simulation teaching methods into class content surrounding the levels of communication. These can be used as a tool for increased student motivation, cognition of course content, and development of student understanding of leadership as it relates to interpersonal skills.

Review of Related Scholarship

Developing a strong understanding of the communications process leads to a better understanding of related interpersonal skills (Plack, 2006). Thus, it can be important to understand the challenges of interpersonal skills instruction and the process of choosing the best methods to communicate the information in the classroom setting. Educating others in regard to leadership and interpersonal skills presents many challenges (Alio, 2005; DeRue, Sitkiin, & Podolny, 2001; Bordone, 2000), including appropriate teaching methods. Utilizing only lecture in a leadership classroom is not an effective measure to reach students (Williams & McClure,

2010), thus more engaging methods are needed to effectively capture student interest. Using active learning in the classroom helps students gain a better understanding of interpersonal skills for leadership and can aid in critical thinking and application (Burbach, Matkin, & Fritz, 2004). Jenkins (2012) provided a set of leadership pedagogies from his research into the instructional methods and the nationwide survey of those who taught leadership education courses. His purpose was to identify the instructional strategies that are most frequently used by instructors when teaching courses in the leadership discipline and identify potential pedagogies that are utilized more often than others. Using a combination of lists by Allen and Hartman (2008) and Conger (1992), based on his experiences with leadership training programs outside of academia, additional pedagogies were added to the Jenkins' study. This was a basic research study as it sought to explore further information on the teaching pedagogies associated with leadership education. The study led to an improved understanding of the teaching of leadership and increased the understanding of strategies that work for student comprehension.

Buzz groups, aptly named, mimic the activity of a beehive as the classroom is filled with murmurs of discussion. In buzz groups, students are given a discussion point and then asked to share their views on the topic matter in small groups (Atkins, Brown, & Brown, 2002). Groups are then asked to share their discussion points with the rest of the groups. The methodology can be an effective use of time and can also bring a renewed focus to listening and note taking (Atkins, et al., 2002). Buzz groups have shown to be an effective form of cooperative learning (Jackson & Prosser, 1989), a good precursor for a larger class discussion (Barkley, et al, 2014), fosters peer learning (Petonito, 1991), and aids with the development of problem solving in participants (Moss & McMillen, 1980).

Role simulation methodology, also referred to as role-playing, is an experiential learning model that helps frame content for students by putting them into real life situations (Deneve & Heppner, 1997) that allow them to experiment with new behaviors and skills in a risk-free environment (Errington, 1997). Role-playing has shown to be an effective pedagogical training technique in leadership constructs (Agboola, 2004). Role simulation also requires a debriefing component (Fanning & Gaba, 2007) to help students process the experience and to provide a clear ending of the simulation for the class.

While it has been stated that a best model of teaching does not exist (Prahbu, 1990), this decision comes from the instructor and their general ideas of class content and delivery methodology. Bloom's taxonomy (Bloom, Krathwohl, & Masia, 1984) helps an instructor to better paint a picture of what learning might look like for a certain topic and might best be framed as a lesson plan through a contextual statement. Through linkage to earlier concepts discussed in class, an instructor can connect new learning to past knowledge and experiences and encourage educational motivation to learning new concepts (Pintrich, 1994). In terms of course planning and selecting the most appropriate methodology, an instructor can reflect on the idea that opportunities and experiences shape cognition, development, and leadership motivation (Allen & Wergin, 2008).

Description of the Practice

As according to Plack (2006), the levels of communication can help provide a key foundation for the development and understanding of interpersonal skills. Within the first few weeks, a reading is assigned from the course textbook (Fritz, 2004) regarding the levels of communication. These levels of communication (Powell, 1999) foster a basic understanding of how we communicate with one another and establish interaction between two (or more) individuals. Five objectives direct the communication lesson in the interpersonal skills class:

1. Student scholars will reflect upon the levels of communication and its application into their interaction with others.
2. Student scholars will learn to effectively use the varying levels of communication in small groups that leads toward better understanding.
3. Student scholars will emulate communication experts and help lead other scholars toward understanding the process, applying these levels into daily interaction, providing examples, and linking other levels through discussion points raised during the previous group activity.
4. Student scholars will be able to describe each level of communication, diagnose situational uses of each level, link the levels with self-disclosure and self-monitoring, and better understand the importance of communication into their cognition of interpersonal skills.

Setting the Stage- Opening Lecture and Establishing Groups: Using these learning objectives as the guide, students are asked their initial reactions to the chapter to begin the lesson. When the initial lecture has ceased, the students are asked to count off 1-5, forming five groups. An emphasis is placed on each group being named based on one of the five levels of communication. A simple handout is passed along to each student that features a five-leveled blank pyramid. By providing this blank visual aid and note-taking tool, and encouraging the students to use the sheet for the note-taking for their group discussions, students can improve their overall content learning (Armbruster, 2000).

Buzz Groups- Learning and Discussion: Student groups are assigned one of the five levels of communication. They are then presented with questions and asked to discuss them as a group, giving special attention to how they can best explain their level to other buzz groups and anyone who might walk into the classroom. They are encouraged to use their textbook, personal experiences, and can access online resources. The questions asked were as follows:
1. How would you define your level of communication as a professional?
2. How would you describe it to your friends?
3. What emotions might be utilized most, and which might result from being the receiver of this level of communication?
4. How does your level link to the next level of communication?
5. What are the best practices for using this level and approach to conversation?
6. Provide a real-world demonstration of your level of communication in a leadership-based scenario. Skits are encouraged.

After providing discussion time suitable for each group to answer their assigned questions, and while visiting each group to gage cognition and address group level questions, each group is asked to think about how they would best present this to the rest of the class. After a short break,

students are asked to close their eyes and visualize themselves as a leading expert in the level of communication they have processed in their buzz group. Next, once their eyes are opened, they will assume the role of a communications expert who specializes in interpersonal skills. They are to concur with their fellow level experts that they are prepared and share their discussion points with the rest of the groups.

Open Your Eyes- The Role Simulation Begins: When students open their eyes, they assume the role of a communications expert specializing in interpersonal skills. As the moderator of the approaching "symposium," the following is announced to the group (and read in an animated voice by the instructor): *"Ladies and gentleman, we are honored to be hosting 'The International Symposium for Communications and Interpersonal Skills' at our University. I will be serving as the moderator today and I cannot tell you how lucky we are to have these professionals on campus. We will be right back to hear from our experts, take your Twitter questions, and learn about the levels of communication."*

After some initial laughter, the students begin in on very focused discussions to make sure they are ready to present on their levels of communication. The moderator posts a graphic at the front of the classroom with the levels of communication and encourages the experts to take notes about each group so that they can think of discussion questions within the groups and challenge the other experts to make for "good television."

"And we are back. If you're just tuning in we are live at the International Symposium for Communications and Interpersonal Skills and have assembled some of the top scholars trained just today in the levels of communication. They will educate our audience at home about the levels and how they are used. We have featured a graphic for you to follow along with at home. Now, let's get started."

The Cliché Conversation group begins the discussion by providing definitions, examples, and some good discussion points for the other groups, before concluding with the real-world demonstration of their level of communication. The moderator moves along to each group, further demonstrating the building of levels onto one another. Each subsequent group builds off what was stated by the former groups and builds the linkage between the levels. The instructor can chime in at any point in the discussion with a "Twitter" question. "Twitter" questions are a series of pre-determined questions the instructor has put together that link the levels of communication to other concepts in the same chapter, including, but not limited to self-monitoring, self-disclosure, and future application questions.

When all groups have gone and the discussion has ceased, the moderator breaks in: *"We want to thank you for joining us today. I've learned so much from our experts and their definitions of the levels of communication, the excellent demonstrations, and the thoughtful responses. Until next time, let's join our young scholars back in their regularly scheduled classroom."* An integral part of role simulation is closing the activity for the class to prevent further character development and to provide an ending for the simulation.

Processing of the Activity: Students are encouraged to talk in their buzz groups one last time and evaluate their discussion points and the information they learned from other groups. This

allows for peer sharing of notes and ideas that might not have been captured. After a closing with linkage to self- monitoring and self-regulation and leadership development, students are asked to share their thoughts on the events of the day through class discussion, or sharing their thoughts with the instructor or the undergraduate teaching assistants.

Discussion of Outcomes and Results

The learning objectives were used to gage the execution of the merger of the two teaching methodologies, buzz groups and role simulation.

1. Student scholars will reflect upon the levels of communication and its application into their interaction with others.

In the opening part of lecture, students were asked to reflect upon the chapter and provide examples of the application of the levels of communication and their importance into their assigned required service project, other relationships, and in applying it for future use. Students demonstrated a good base of information that demonstrated their initial knowledge that allowed us to investigate the content further in class.

2. Student scholars will learn to effectively use the varying levels of communication in small groups that leads toward better understanding.

The use of buzz groups allowed the students to consult peer learning and discussion of the content, work in groups, and establish trust within the classroom. Returning to the groups after the simulation allowed them to process with their peers and celebrates their work as a group, which validates learning (Marzano, Pickering, and Pollock, 2001).

3. Student scholars will emulate communication experts and help lead other scholars toward understanding the process, applying these levels into daily interaction, providing examples, and linking other levels through discussion points raised during the previous group activity.

Through the role simulation, students were given the framed context of being an expert in communication specializing in interpersonal skills. They were then asked to represent the level of communication to the other expert groups. Student emotions and reactions were positive during this activity because many of their peers developed into their roles and helped make the content compliant for many learning styles. Setting the stage with the moderator script and closing the activity for discussion were important for the students in terms of effectively managing the role simulation.

4. Student scholars will be able to describe each level of communication, diagnose situational uses of each level, link the levels with self-disclosure and self-monitoring, and better understand the importance of communication into their cognition of interpersonal skills.

After the simulation was closed, the students were asked to talk about what they have learned and incorporate it into discussion about topics already covered in class and applying it to future concepts like establishing trust, nonverbal communications, vision and goal-setting, and power and influence.

Reflections of the Practitioner

The use of communications and having an understanding of leadership concepts does help drive much of the actions behind the interpersonal skills development course. Students reflect on the levels of communication and bring it up throughout the semester when asked about linkage. This activity should be focused in a creative manner in order to establish trust, maintain a positive environment for learning, build rapport among their peers and instructor, and to drive their understanding of interpersonal skills and leadership beyond the class. This can also be incorporated into their required service project and daily life. While buzz groups and role simulation were combined for the teaching of this lesson, there are many active learning methodologies that foster similar outcomes and approaches. Buzz groups are an effective methodology that can be done in a classroom setting and easily managed. Role simulation requires work and planning before its execution can take place in a classroom setting, but with the proper components in place add a relaxed and fun environment to engage learning.

Recommendations

Creating an environment that fosters effective and positive leadership and interpersonal skills learning requires many approaches. The combination of buzz groups and role simulation could work for other topics. However, it is to the discretion of the instructor based on his/her comfort level with their classroom to determine which model fits best. By scaffolding leadership development, interpersonal skills, peer learning, and an array of teaching approaches, the instructor can motivate his/her students. This establishes rapport among students, leading to increased content knowledge and application, and to better-prepared and motivated leadership education students of the future.

References

Agboola Sogunro, O. (2004). Efficacy of role-playing pedagogy in training leaders: some reflections. *Journal of Management Development*, *23*(4), 355-371.

Allen, S. J., & Hartman, N. S. (2008). Leadership development: An exploration of sources of learning. *SAM Advanced Management Journal*, *73*(1), 10.

Allen, S. J., & Wergin, J. F. (2008). Leadership and adult development theories: Overviews and overlaps. *Liberal Education*.

Allio, R. J. (2005). Leadership development: teaching versus learning. *Management Decision*, *43*(7/8), 1071-1077.

Armbruster, B. B. (2000). Taking notes from lectures.

Atkins, M., Brown, G. A., & Brown, G. (2002). *Effective teaching in higher education*. Routledge.

Barkley, E. F., Cross, K. P., & Major, C. H. (2014). *Collaborative learning techniques: A handbook for college faculty*. John Wiley & Sons.

Bloom, B. S., Krathwohl, D. R., & Masia, B. B. (1984). *Bloom taxonomy of educational objectives*. Allyn and Bacon, Boston, MA. Copyright (c) by Pearson Education. < http://www. coun. uvic. ca/learn/program/hndouts/bloom. html.

Bordone, R. C. (2000). Teaching interpersonal skills for negotiation and for life. *Negotiation Journal*, *16*(4), 377-385.

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

Conger, J. A. (1993). Learning to lead: The art of transforming managers into leaders.

Day, D. V., Harrison, M. M., & Halpin, S. M. (2012). *An integrative approach to leader development: Connecting adult development, identity, and expertise*. Routledge.

DeNeve, K. M., & Heppner, M. J. (1997). Role play simulations: The assessment of an active learning technique and comparisons with traditional lectures. *Innovative Higher Education*, *21*(3), 231-246.

DeRue, D. S., Sitkin, S. B., & Podolny, J. M. (2011). From the guest editors: Teaching leadership—Issues and insights. *Academy of Management Learning & Education*, *10*(3), 369-372.

Errington, E. (1997). *Role-play*. HERDSA.

Fanning, R. M., & Gaba, D. M. (2007). The role of debriefing in simulation-based learning. *Simulation in healthcare*, *2*(2), 115-125.

Fritz, S. (Ed.). (2004). *Interpersonal skills for leadership*. Prentice Hall.

Hutchinson, L. (2003). Educational environment. *BMJ: British Medical Journal*, *326*(7393), 810.

Jackson, M. W., & Prosser, M. T. (1989). Less lecturing, more learning. *Studies in Higher Education*, *14*(1), 55-68.

Jenkins, D. (2012). Exploring signature pedagogies in undergraduate leadership education. *Journal of Leadership Education*, *11*(1).

Marzano, R. J., Pickering, D., & Pollock, J. E. (2001). *Classroom instruction that works: Research-based strategies for increasing student achievement*. Ascd.

Maslow, A. H. (1943). A theory of human motivation. *Psychological review*, *50*(4), 370.

Moss, G. D., & McMillen, D. (1980). A strategy for developing problem-solving skills in large undergraduate classes. *Studies in Higher Education*, *5*(2), 161-171.

Petonito, G. (1991). Fostering peer learning in the college classroom. *Teaching Sociology*, *19*(4), 498-501.

Pintrich, P. R. (1994). Student motivation in the college classroom. *Handbook of college teaching: Theory and applications*, 23-43.

Plack, M. M. (2006). The development of communication skills, interpersonal skills, and a professional identity within a community of practice. *Journal of Physical Therapy Education*, *20*(1), 37.

Powell, J. (1999). *Why am I afraid to tell you who I am?*. Zondervan.

Prabhu, N. S. (1990). There is no best method-why?. *Tesol quarterly*, 161-176.

Robles, M. M. (2012). Executive perceptions of the top 10 soft skills needed in today's workplace. *Business Communication Quarterly*, *75*(4), 453-465.

Santangelo, T., & Tomlinson, C. A. (2009). The application of differentiated instruction in postsecondary environments: Benefits, challenges, and future directions. *International Journal of Teaching and Learning in Higher Education*, *20*(3), 307-323.

Schulz, B. (2008). The importance of soft skills: Education beyond academic knowledge. *Nawa: Journal of Language & Communication*, *2*(1).

Vacca, R. T., & Vacca, J. A. L. (1989). *Content area reading*. Glenview, IL: Scott, Foresman.

Williams, J., & McClure, M. (2010). The effects of teaching methods in leadership knowledge retention: An experimental design of lecture, experiential, and public pedagogy. *Journal of Leadership Education*, *9*(2), 86-100.

Using PhotoVoice to Understand how Undergraduate Students Make Meaning of Leadership Theories & Concepts

Caroline W. Clement, Abigail V. Whitaker, & Dr. Jackie Bruce
North Carolina State University

Abstract

This qualitative study attempted to discern how undergraduate students in an introductory leadership course make meaning of the course content via photographs. Throughout the course of the semester, students took photos and submitted them as demonstrations of their understanding of the leadership theories under study. The majority of the photos submitted were of people, followed by events, and then places. Students still find leadership deeply connected to particular individuals, though the range of individuals that they identify is broad. Students also are able to see leadership when they are actively engaged in the practice as well as when they are inactively observing situations or events. Recommendations include providing specific direction at the beginning of the semester and then allowing students the latitude to search out meaning via the photographs in their own spheres.

Introduction & Background

Walter, Baller, & Kuntz (2012) found that using web sharing and photography assignments increased students' critical thinking. Taking that further, photovoice can be used to tell stories and put on display an individual's real life experiences (2012). In the context of academia, photovoice assignments allow students to learn through capturing the experiences of their daily lives. Photovoice also increases dialogue and critical thinking on subjects by encouraging personal interpretation (2012). "The photographs give students the opportunity to interpret experiences, analyze relationships, evaluate differing interpretations, make inferences to draw conclusions, and explain results" (2012, p.384). Different visual media methods can be used in photovoice, including photo essays, photo journaling, and photo interviewing. However, regardless of the media method, what we do know is that the more an individual participates in a photovoice project, the more they will gain from the experience (2012). In that way, outcomes are specific to participating individuals and are driven by how much they contribute to their assignments.

Leadership theory and practice is a key component of the academic preparation of future leaders. [CLASS # and Name] at [University] is an introductory leadership theory course designed to introduce students to some basic leadership concepts. Within this class context, photovoice was used to assist students in making meaning of the leadership concepts they were learning and to, hopefully, allow them to see leadership happening in their daily lives. This assignment was meant to encourage students to think critically about the material, see leadership in their daily contexts, and help the instructor understand how the students are internalizing and reflecting on the material.

Description of Methodology

This research was considered an ethnographic study. Merriam defines ethnography as focusing on social regularities of everyday life and using rich descriptions and descriptive analysis (Merriam, 2016). In this case, we focused on the leadership happening in the everyday lives of the students in the course. This group was challenged to go out into "their worlds" (however they defined that) and take pictures of leadership in action within their personal contexts,

The population was students enrolled in [course] that were willing to participate in the study. All participants were undergraduate students at [University]. Students were given information about the research study, risks and benefits to participating, and were given the opportunity to ask questions to the instructor. Students then were asked to give their consent to participate. Two students requested that their assignments not be used for research and two others failed to respond to the consent form so were also left out of the study. The were sixteen total participants in the study. The information was gathered for the 16 weeks of the Fall semester.

Students were required to post at least one picture each week. The picture had to be of their own taking and be in a public setting (no long lens photography, no using photos taken by others, no google images). After the picture, they included a description that explains why the picture applies to the lesson. Both the picture and description were submitted through an online learning management system.

At the close of the semester the photos were printed, analyzed and categorized by the content of the picture. The researchers did not have concrete categories picked before sorting. The researchers examined the photos as a whole and organized the photos based on our immediate perception. Content analysis was used to make the categories of the photos. Content analysis is the systematization of analyzing information (Weber, 1990). It analyses the form and substance of communication. Underlying meanings and ideas are revealed through analyzing patterns in elements of the photos, which broke them down into "more relevant, manageable pieces of data" (1990, p. 5), which was what formed the categories the photos were eventually placed in.

Results

The students were asked to make sense of the abstract leadership concepts under study by taking photos, in their own world, that they believe depicted each theory being studied for the week. A total of 208 photos were submitted throughout the semester.

The majority of the photos submitted were of people. *People* included family members, roommates/housemates, friends/fellow students, faculty members, and sport figures. Within the *People* category, the majority were of people that the students knew well, and were engaged with regularly. Many student posted photos of family members (parents and grandparents particularly). Roommates/housemates and friends combined for the second most common posting with faculty next, followed by sport figures. It is important to note that many of the *People* photos were posed photos, not action shots.

The second most common category of photos were of *Events*. In this case, *Events* included club meetings, speakers on campus or in the community, sporting events and political events. Similarly to the *People* category, the Events category most often depicted events that the student

participated in directly (club meetings or campus related speakers). Following those familiar participatory events, are those events in which students were spectators (sporting events where students watched from the stands, or political speakers where students were one of many individuals in attendance.

The third and final category of photos were *Places*. This category included the broadest range of subject matter including farms, buildings, cityscapes, retail locations, and campus locations. Now one of those locations stood out more than any other.

Conclusions/Recommendations

Making meaning of abstract leadership concepts is extremely personal. Viewing the photos that students took provides a brief look into how that meaning making is taking form. Tis insight can, and in this case will, allow instructors to provide further meaningful reflection and engagement activities to help promote and drive student learning.

The majority of the photos were of people. What we know then is that students in this case still see leadership deeply rooted within individuals. While this in itself is not terribly surprising, what is heartening, to these instructors at least, is that these students see the leadership (potential) in a wide variety of people, including their own peer group. Instead of seeing leadership only in the most traditional of power bases, they are able to identify leadership within their own spheres and with the people with whom they are interacting regularly.

The photos that were of events still connected to people, however the division between those events at which the student were active participants or somehow engaged, and those at which they were spectators offered a small glimpse into some of that meaning making. Students are able to see leadership where they are both actively engaged (either giving or receiving of leadership directly), and inactively engaged (where they aren't necessarily directly receiving leadership but are instead watching others give and receive leadership.

Based on our experiences, we would recommend that instructors who want to use PhotoVoice as part of their classroom assessment, should start the course with specific direction and boundaries for the way they take the photos and then after that allowing students the latitude to take whatever pictures work for them that demonstrate the meaning that they are making of the content.

Future research is encouraged over time to understand how student ideas of leadership are changing, if they are.

References

Merriam, S. B., & Tisdell, E. J. (2016). Qualitative Data Analysis. In Qualitative Research: A Guide to Design and Implementation (p. 230). San Fransisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Walter, K. O., Baller, S. L., & Kuntz, A. M. (2012). Two Approaches for Using Web Sharing and Photography Assignments to Increase Critical Thinking in the Health Sciences. International

Journal of Teaching and Learning in Higher Education, 24(3), 383–394.

Weber, R. (1990). In R. Weber (Ed.), *Basic Content Analysis* (p. 5). Sage Publications.

All That Jazz: Music and Multi-Cultural Leadership

Lisa Kendall & Michael Stephens
Johnson & Wales University

Abstract

The purpose of this innovative practice session is to show how to use jazz and the history of African American music as elements in an introductory leadership course with a section on Multi-Cultural and Diverse Leadership. The use of jazz helps students identify and analyze multi-cultural leadership examples and practices; the segment also includes an experiential element which allows students to experience the world of jazz performance for themselves.

Introduction

Musical creativity and performance were among the few areas in which slaves were allowed to compete and excel, specifically in the creation and performance of gospel music (Genoese, 2011). Gospel is the origin of many African American musical forms such as jazz, blues and hip hop. In all these forms, we find important examples of black leadership in a population that was historically repressed and discouraged from competitive achievement and personal excellence (Bordas, 2007). Specifically, jazz band leaders like Count Basie and Duke Ellington crossed racial and cultural boundaries and became leaders on multiple levels. Duke Ellington was not only a talented musician and band-leader, he also became an example of leadership to both African Americans and whites in the 1930's and '40's. People of color saw in the elegant public persona that Duke created, not only a successful bandleader, but also a fully self-actualized black person, a "Harlem Renaissance man" – style setter, artist, business-man and entrepreneur. Jazz band leaders of the 1930's, 1940's and 1950's crossed racial barriers before the Civil Rights movement and became avatars of African American leadership to white society and to American culture as a whole.

In an undergraduate, foundational leadership course students will be given the opportunity to learn about Multi-cultural and Diverse Leadership, and reflect on the leadership roles and practices of various jazz musicians and band leaders. This course, offered in the Spring term, coincides with the Charlotte Jazz Festival, so students have the opportunity to attend live jazz concerts during the week of classes in which this segment is offered; this exposure offers an experiential element to the study of multi-cultural leadership.

Review of Related Scholarship

Leadership is nothing if not transformative, and exposure to the arts can open students' minds and hearts to ways of being, or becoming, leaders (Fisher-Yoshida, Geller, and Schapiro, 2009; Hall, 2010). This is especially significant in view of the programs offered at our university as they are business and hospitality focused, with a dearth of more traditional liberal arts courses. The arts can provoke and challenge us: "The arts have a unique way and sometimes disturbing way of waking us up to new ways of seeing" (Lawrence, 2012, p. 476). Or understanding. In

particular, the arts allow us to open to a more empathetic view, and engage across cultures (Kasworm, and Bowles, 2012; Butterwick and Lawrence, 2009).

An exploration of jazz and African American leadership, then, allows for a significant learning opportunity. Jazz itself can provide a template for leadership development in terms of risk-taking, improvisation and collaboration (Mahoney, 1998). The musical leadership of such notable and talented figures as Duke Ellington and Count Basie, among others, provide exceptional models for study (Macias, 2010). And as Hall (2010) notes: "Music is an exciting pedagogical tool that offers an alternative to the traditional methods of teaching leadership" (p.110).

Description of the Practice

The Foundations of Leadership Studies course wraps up with a segment on Multi-cultural and Diverse Leadership. This comes at the conclusion of students' team projects that have used memoirs and biographies of leaders from around the world as case studies (*I am Malala* by Malala Yousafzai, *Wine to Water* by Doc Hendley, *Unbowed* by Wangari Maathai, etc.). This Spring term 2017, however, presents a unique opportunity in that the class is significantly smaller than previous terms which lends itself to interject something creative and transformative in a different capacity. Prior to the above projects that teams will present to the class, we will explore leadership from African American, Latino, and Native American communities with an emphasis on "Music and Leadership."

Objectives for this section:
1. Describe the elements of diverse and multicultural leadership, and explain the necessity for this consideration of this type of leadership
2. Explore music – specifically jazz – as a medium for the development of leadership
3. Analyze components of multicultural and diverse leadership in terms of jazz
4. Review and re-frame previously covered leadership topics such as Emotional Intelligence, for example

Day One: An overview of Multicultural and Diverse Leadership
A) Discuss elements of Multicultural and Diverse Leadership as noted in the course text and *Salsa, Soul and Spirit: Leadership for a Multicultural Age* (Bordas, 2007). Use examples to segue to:
B) Jazz Leaders, include examples of musicians such as Duke Ellington, etc.

Day Two:
A) Focus on the "Soul" of Leadership as exemplified in *Salsa, Soul and Spirit* and continue the exploration of the rich and diverse leadership offered by jazz musicians.
B) Student reflection and assessment of their own leadership development as inspired by multicultural and diverse leadership and music. Preparation for attending the jazz performance.

Off Campus Event: Attendance at a performance at the Charlotte Jazz Festival

Discussion of Outcomes/Results

As this is a work in progress, we have no discussion to provide but have included the following examples of potential assignments and in-class exercises:

1. An in-class discussion on what music/musicians inspire and motivate them and how that can be applied to their own leadership development (small groups sharing among themselves, then with the class as a whole)
2. Research a historical jazz figure to adopt as a "Musical Leadership Mentor" and apply the lessons of that musician's life experiences and music to the student's own circumstances, and developing leadership.
3. A reflection and/or research piece on Latino and Native American leaders with an emphasis on music and leadership within those cultures.
4. An investigation of contemporary challenges of leadership, particularly in regard to diversity and how we might use music to inspire us and help us become effective and inclusive leaders.
5. Create a "Musical Leadership Theory" with (or without) the addition of a musical selection that informs their understanding of the importance of multicultural and diverse leadership.
6. A reflection paper on the jazz performance including:
   a. The student's reaction to the music itself
   b. Leadership lessons that the student gleaned from the performance

A discussion on the effects of the various activities and assignments at the conclusion of the term will be included here as well.

Reflections of the Practitioners

While we have no reflections at his time, we are excited about a number of opportunities that are afforded by this as yet to be implemented "Innovative Practice." This includes the opportunity to collaborate on a week-long team-teaching session which we have never undertaken before, but feel will be motivating and evocative – a true active-learning section for both our students and ourselves. We are also considering this as the basis for a potential "Music and Leadership" class that would enliven our both our leadership curriculum and our own teaching.

Recommendations

To be addressed following the conclusion of the term.

References

Bordas, J. (2007). *Salsa, soul, and spirit: Leadership for a multicultural age*. San Francisco: Berrett-Koehler Publishers, Inc.

Butterwick, S. and Lawrence, R.L. (2009). Creating alternative realities: Arts-based approaches

to transformative learning. In Mezirow, J., Taylor, E. et al (Eds.) *Transformative learning in practice: Insights from community, workplace, and higher education.*

Genovese, E. D. (2011, 1976). *Roll Jordon roll: The world the slaves made*. NY: Vintage Books.

Hall, J. L. (2010) Teaching with music: An alternative pedagogy for leadership educators. *Journal of Leadership Studies*, 3(4), 108-110. Dol:10.100/jls.20147

Fisher-Yoshida, B. Geller, K.D., Schapiro, S.A. (2009). (Eds.) *Innovations in transformative learning: Space, culture and the arts*. NY: Peter Lang Publishing, Inc.

Kasworm, C. E., and Bowles, T.A. (2012). Fostering transformative learning in higher education settings. In Taylor, E., Cranton, P., et al. (Eds.) *The handbook of transformative learning: Theory, research and practice*. 388-407. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Lawrence, R.L. (2012). Transformative learning through artistic expression: Getting out of our heads. In Taylor, E., Cranton, P., et al. (Eds.) *The handbook of transformative learning: Theory, research and practice*. 471-485. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Linkner, J. (2013). 11 Leadership lessons from jazz musicians. *Inc.com.* Retrieved from http://www.inc.com/josh-linkner/business-lessons-from-jazz.html

Macias, A. (2010). "Detroit was heavy: Modern jazz, bebop, and African American expressive culture. *The Journal of African American History*. 95(1), 45+

Mahoney, A. I. (1998). Hearing the Music of Leadership. *Association Management*, 50(7), 16.

Martinez, T. (1998). Race and Popular Culture: Teaching African American Leadership Styles through Popular Music. *Teaching Sociology, 26*(3), 207-214. Retrieved from http://www.jstor.org.jwucltz.idm.oclc.org/stable/1318834

Taylor, F. J. (2005). Black music and musicians in the 19th century. *The Western Journal of Black Studies*. 29 (3), 615+

ROUNDTABLES

Exploring the barriers to developing complex adaptive problem solvers in leadership learning environments
Anthony C. Andenoro & Madeline Grace Black
University of Florida

Mindfulness & Acceptance in Leadership Education: Case study of ACT (Acceptance and Commitment Training) among university students
Caitlin Bletscher, Washington State University

Calling All Grads: Exploring How Graduate Students can be Successful in their Academic Programs
Carolynn Komanski, University of Florida
Jennifer Moss-Breen, Creighton University

Application of the Big 5 Personality Model to Virtual Team Leadership
David G. Wolf, Ph.D., Barry University

Analytics in Business Education: Building Leaders as Data Literate Decision Makers
Donna L. Haeger, Ph.D. Cornell S.C. Johnson College of Business
Laurie A. Branch, Ph.D., St. Bonaventure University

Deconstruction and Reconstruction: Driving Questions and Considerations for Leadership Education Program (re)Design
Dr. Nyasha M. Guramatunhu Cooper, Dr. Jennifer W. Purcell, Dr. Heather I. Scott, Dr. LaJuan Simpson-Wilkey, & Dr. Felicia Mainella, PhD
Kennesaw State University

Leadership and Career Education: Connecting For a New Vision
Gayle Spencer, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign

Examining the Intersectionality of Leadership and Management: Reframing Our Pedagogical Approach
Jared Nielsen & Brendon Fox
Fort Hays State University

Teaching Leadership at the Graduate Level: Drawing Upon Our Complex World to Enhance Learning
Leah Georges & Jennifer Moss-Breen
Creighton University

Moving Away from Management: Engaging in Difficult Campus Conversations
Maria Versteeg, Gloria Kerandi, & Ben Marcy
University of Minnesota

Educational Leadership through Differentiation: Responsive Teaching for a Complex World
Maude Yacapsin, Messiah College

Project YES Virtual Mentorship Program
Mr. Cameron Rutledge, Dr. Myra G. Moses, Mr. James C. Johnson, & Dr. Harriett C. Edwards
North Carolina State University

Innovating Leadership Programs that Develop Leaders: Addressing the Gap between Leadership Education and Leaders' Needs
Sky Georges, Benjamin Morris, & Madeline Grace Black
University of Florida

Exploring the Barriers to Developing Complex Adaptive Problem Solvers in Leadership Learning Environments

Anthony C. Andenoro & Madeline Grace Black
University of Florida

Abstract

Our world requires complex adaptive problem solvers capable of producing innovative sustainable solutions. To address this need in the past, many of leadership educators and researchers' foci have been aimed at the development of the learner. However, this provides insufficient data to create educational experiences capable of preparing future leaders for the problems of our global communities. Similarly, to the disease triangle that leverages understanding of the host, pathogen, and environment, it becomes critical for educators to look at the student (host), the educator (the pathogen/catalyst), and environment (leadership learning context). Grounded in an ongoing study examining leadership faculty behaviors, this roundtable provides a context for honest dialogue aimed at identifying environmental barriers and educator limitations that inhibit the development of complex adaptive problem solvers.

Introduction/Background

Complex challenges are becoming commonplace for our global communities. The Obama administration created the White House 21st Century Grand Challenges aimed at "harnessing science, technology, and innovation to solve important national or global problems and that have the potential to capture the public's imagination" (White House, 2014, p. 1). The Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation Grand Challenges, the United Nations' Millennium Development Goals and Sustainable Development Goals, USAID's target priorities, the AAAE National Research Agenda seventh priority, and National Academy of Engineering Grand Challenges, along with the International Leadership Association's *Leadership 2050: Critical Challenges, Key Contexts, and Emerging Trends* (Sowcik, Andenoro, McNutt, & Murphy, 2015) further demonstrate the rising need to develop the next generation of leaders capable of addressing the complex adaptive challenges of our world. These trajectories for action create a foundation for answering the question "leadership for what?" within leadership learning contexts. They also align with the National Leadership Education Research Agenda (Andenoro, et al., 2013) priority areas demonstrating a need for a holistic approach to analysis and innovation that creates sustainable outcomes for diverse stakeholders. Without question, there are an abundance of predictive data sets illustrating the priorities that our next generation of leaders need address. However, a disconnect exists in the current context leadership learning.

Leadership learning is often focused on the understanding of leadership theories and application of the identified theories within situational contexts (i.e. case studies). While understanding provides context for critical thinking, the question becomes, "are leadership educators, as a formative variable within the leadership learning equation, doing what they need to do to create complex adaptive problem solvers replete with the skills, capacities, and dispositions necessary to produce and implement sustainable solutions for a complex world?" This question forces leadership educators to explore all the variables within the leadership learning equation. Ritch

and Mengel noted that it is critical to consider the conceptual framework, context, content, teaching and learning, and outcomes and assessment when designing leadership learning experiences (2009). Further, critical reflection (Yost, Sentner, & Forlenza-Bailey, 2000), authentic audience and challenge (Balser, Andenoro, & Bigham, 2015), incisive questioning (Kline, 1999), along with countless other methodological innovations create a foundation for how leadership educators can begin to develop critical skills, capacities and dispositions in learners that will lead to the next generation of well-prepared, engaged, and agenic citizens within our global communities. However, alignments with these perspectives and the associated changes are not pervasive within leadership learning. This begs the question, what is preventing leadership educators from embracing change and teaching differently?

Historically educators have often failed at challenging students to think critically and systematically (Bain, 2004). Rather, memorization has been the primary evaluation of knowledge in higher education. This is a problem, particularly in leadership education, because it prevents students from actively engaging in their own learning experience. Leadership educators have failed at create a foundation of trust and vulnerability that allows for critical thinking and exploration. The role a teacher can play in the lives of students is monumental. A study, performed by Ken Bain (2004), analyzed the practices of the most influential teachers in education. The study revealed six components that distinguish teachers in higher education from their colleagues. These components are as follows: 1) a mastery of their subject matter, 2) taking preparation for courses very seriously, 3) setting high expectations for their students, 4) creating of a critical learning environment that challenges previous notions and beliefs, 5) treating students fairly, emphasizing a belief that students desire to learn, and 6) checking progress of students and evaluating one's own teaching (Bain, 2004). These findings are valuable to educators because they reveal that teaching extends beyond simple knowledge of a particular topic. The content of the course is only as powerful as the relationship formed between the student and teacher. Research suggests that there is a correlation between student-professor relationships and a student's perception of success and their values/goals (Estepp & Roberts, 2013). This implies that students feel more confident and are more motivated to succeed when there is a relationship between instructor and student.

It is obvious that there is a relational component to education. While the teacher is a vital component, the student also plays a role. The student is incredibly empowered in the process of education, because they share in the learning process. Therefore, it is essential to look at education from the angle of both educators and students. For many years, the responsibility of engaging students has largely been on the instructor. However, research has recently explored the role of the student in their own education. Peter Kahn (2014) suggests that the most engaged students are the ones that view their education as more than just a necessity, but a contribution to the community. When students recognize needs in society and pursue education in order to address them, they will have significantly more interest in the classroom. Similarly, students have the responsibility to engage in a higher level of thinking when in a classroom (Kahn, 2014). Reading the text and listening to the lectures are simply not enough, rather an engagement of the mind is essential to further explore the topic at hand.

Witkowski and Cornell (2017) evaluated ways in which college professors could provide a learning environment that challenged students to have an active role in their education. College

professor respondents increased group activities and collaborative projects in the classroom as a part of the data treatment. The resulting findings were valuable for instructors, but the student surveys following the study revealed an incredible truth. Students themselves noted that, despite the environment the instructor created, the student must have internal motivation and drive to learn from the activities (Witkowski & Cornell, 2017). Even with the best of instructors, for students to truly have a successful learning experience, they must take responsibility for participating in the process.

Despite our understanding of these ideas, the power that they can have on our learners, and the data supporting change, leadership educators have been resistant to embracing methodological change. Leadership educators often use antiqued teaching methods, focus on content over context, and disregard the power of the environment in the learning process. Leadership educators must look at the way they teach differently and empower change in how they develop leaders. This roundtable is critical for leadership educators engaged in the meaningful work of developing leaders for the future of our world. However, it goes well beyond this. Rather, than focusing on what we need to do, the dialogue is aimed at what we need to address to create sustainable change in leadership learning. It is formative in nature and provides critical context for the work that we, as leadership educators, aspire to do.

Means for Discussion/Interaction

This roundtable aims to open dialogue surrounding the question, *what is preventing leadership educators from embracing change and teaching differently*? Through constructive dialogue (Smedby & Neij, 2013; Jokinen, 2009; Moss, 2005; Altman & Davies, 2003) and the FACE Method (Stedman & Andenoro, 2015) participants will explore barriers to developing leadership learning contexts aimed at the developing skills, capacities, and dispositions for addressing complex adaptive problems within local and global contexts. Understanding that content and the learner have often driven development of the leadership learning contexts in the past, this roundtable will use the analogy of the disease triangle (Grulke, 2011; Scholthof, 2007), host, pathogen, and environment, to contextualize the exploration of barriers preventing adoption of innovative and diverse teaching methodologies and environmental conditions for leadership learning experiences. The following objectives will set the foundation for the group interactions.

1. Explore the perceived learner barriers for developing complex adaptive problem solvers through leadership learning experiences at the higher education level.
2. Explore the perceived leadership educator barriers for developing complex adaptive problem solvers through leadership learning experiences at the higher education level.
3. Explore the perceived environmental barriers for developing complex adaptive problem solvers through leadership learning experiences at the higher education level.

Foreseeable Implications of Discussion

The implications for this discussion are significant. Through the identifications of barriers, participants will gain context for meaningful change in how they view and develop leadership learning experiences aimed at preparing complex adaptive problem solvers. This creates the foundation for enhanced leadership learning, and ultimately leadership learners replete with the

skills, capacities, and dispositions necessary for sustainable solutions for our local and global stakeholders. Dialogue is an outcome (Schein, 1993), but this roundtable moves beyond this adage providing participants with self-awareness, an understanding of contextual cues, and systematically begins to remove psychologically imposed barriers that prevent them leadership educators from engaging students in the powerful discussion of "leadership for what."

References

Altman, N. E., & Davies, J. M. E. (2003). *A plea for constructive dialogue.* Burlingame, CA: Analytics Press

Andenoro, A. C., Allen, S. J., Haber-Curran, P., Jenkins, D. M., Sowcik, M., Dugan, J. P., &

Osteen, L. (2013). *National leadership education research agenda 2013-2018: Providing strategic direction for the field of leadership education*. Retrieved from Association of Leadership Educators website: http://leadershipeducators.org/ResearchAgenda

Bain, K. (2004). What the best college teachers do. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Balser, T. C., Andenoro, A. C., & Bigham, D. L. (2014, February). *Humanity's 2050 challenge: Using authentic challenge and audience to promote social responsibility.* Poster session presentation at the Lilly Conference on College and University Teaching and Learning: Evidence Based Teaching and Learning. Newport Beach, CA.

Estepp, C., & Roberts, T. G. (2013). Exploring the relationship between Professor/Student rapport and students' expectancy for success and Values/Goals in college of agriculture classrooms. *Journal of Agricultural Education*, 54(*4*), 180-194.

Grulke, N. E. (2011). The nexus of host and pathogen phenology: understanding the disease triangle with climate change. *New Phytologist*, *189*(1), 8-11.

Jokinen, K. (2009). *Constructive dialogue modelling: Speech interaction and rational agents* (Vol. 10). John Wiley & Sons.

Kahn, P. E. (2014). Theorising student engagement in higher education. *British Educational Research Journal*, 40(*6*), 1005-1018.

Kline, N. (1999). *Time to think*. New York, NY: Hachette.

Moss, P. A. (2005). Understanding the other/understanding ourselves: Toward a constructive dialogue about principles in educational research. *Educational Theory*, *55*(3), 263-283.

Ritch, S. W., & Mengel, T. (2009). Guiding questions: Guidelines for leadership education programs. *Journal of Leadership Education*, *8*(1), 216-227.

Rost, J., & Barker, R. (2000). Leadership education in colleges: Toward a 21st century paradigm.

The Journal of Leadership Studies, 7(*1*), 3-12.

Schein, E. H. (1993). On dialogue, culture, and organizational learning. *Organizational Dynamics*, *22*(2), 40-51.

Scholthof, K. B. G. (2007). The disease triangle: pathogens, the environment and society. *Nature Reviews Microbiology*, *5*(2), 152-156.

Smedby, N., & Neij, L. (2013). Experiences in urban governance for sustainability: The Constructive Dialogue in Swedish municipalities. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, *50*, 148-158.

Sowcik, M. J., Andenoro, A. C., McNutt, M., & Murphy, S. (2015). *Leadership 2050: Contextualizing Global Leadership Processes for the Future.* Bingley, West Yorkshire, UK: Emerald Group Publishing.

Stedman, N. L. P. & Andenoro, A. C. (2015). Emotionally engaged leadership: Shifting paradigms and creating adaptive solutions for 2050. In M. J. Sowcik, A. C. Andenoro, M. Mcnutt, & S. Murphy (Eds.), *Leadership 2050: Contextualizing Global Leadership Processes for the Future* (p. 147-159). Bingley, West Yorkshire, UK: Emerald Group Publishing.

The White House (February 2014). The White House 21st century grand challenges. Retrieved from https://www.whitehouse.gov/.

Witkowski, P., & Cornell, T. (2017). An investigation into student engagement in higher education classrooms. *InSight: A Journal of Scholarly Teaching*, 10, 56-67.

Yost, D. S., Sentner, S. M., & Forlenza-Bailey, A. (2000). An examination of the construct of critical reflection: Implications for teacher education programming in the 21st century. *Journal of Teacher Education*, *51*(1), 39-49.

Mindfulness & Acceptance in Leadership Education: Case Study of ACT (Acceptance and Commitment Training) among University Students

Caitlin Bletscher
Washington State University

Abstract

In today's complex world, almost half (46.3%) of all US undergraduate students have daily felt trauma or overwhelmed, with student leaders at the forefront. This workshop seeks to provide a tool for addressing these issues: Acceptance and Commitment Training (ACT), which uses acceptance and mindfulness strategies alongside commitment and behavioral change in order to increase psychological flexibility (Hayes, 2015). The facilitator of this roundtable session has infused ACT into her Communication and Life Skills course, part of the university core curriculum across disciplines and years. Upon attending this session, participants will able to see a tangible case study of ACT's use within university leadership curriculum, understand and experience ACT and its benefits towards well-being, and discuss ways to implement ACT within their own leadership classrooms.

Introduction

Due to the many complex issues that face today's world, almost half (46.3%) of all undergraduate students in US colleges and universities have daily felt trauma or overwhelmed with their academic responsibilities (National College Health Assessment, 2013). Considering these vast responsibilities, research has shown that over 58% of students work while enrolled in college and over 26% are raising children (Lumina Foundation, 2012). Additionally, challenges significantly rise among first-year students and students of color; nearly half of first-year students live at or below poverty, making finances a huge concern (Lumina Foundation, 2012). Despite the multitude of responsibilities and challenges that college students face, more than 40% will not seek help (National Alliance on Mental Health, 2014).

These staggering statistics represent the students sitting in our university leadership courses. Research has shown that student leaders experience burnout for three key reasons: personal issues, work environment, and training (Paladino, Murray, Newgent, & Gohn, 2005). Although we have some control over our student leader's work environment and training, we must equip them to handle those personal issues that create further stress, poor coping behaviors, and emotional exhaustion, among other issues of mental health.

Without acknowledging the whole person, we limit our ability to equip our students with proper tools and develop successful future leaders. A new approach is needed in order to reach this large section of our student population, most of which are unlikely to seek out additional help and resources on their own (Pistorello, Hayes, Lillis, Long, Christodoulou, LeJeune, & Villatte, 2013).

This workshop identifies this new approach as Acceptance and Commitment Training (ACT). The facilitator of this roundtable has infused ACT into her Communication and Life Skills

university course, which has been part of the core curriculum for undergraduate students across disciplines and grades for fourteen (14) years. Upon attending this roundtable session on Acceptance and Commitment Training (ACT) in leadership classrooms, participants will able to:

1. See and discuss a tangible case study model of ACT's use, delivery, pedagogy, and application within university leadership curriculum;
2. Understand and experience the foundation of ACT and its benefits towards leadership students' personal well-being; and
3. Discuss ways to implement ACT in either subtle or more purposive levels within their own leadership classrooms.

Background

Research has shown that Acceptance and Commitment Therapy (ACT) (Hayes, Strosahl, & Wilson, 2011), alongside other models of psychological flexibility, provides "common core targets that can both ameliorate distress and promote learning, reduce stigmatization of others, and prevent the development of psychological problems" (Pistorello, et al., 2013, p. 226). ACT is an empirically-based psychological intervention therapy that uses acceptance and mindfulness strategies alongside commitment and behavioral change, in order to increase psychological flexibility (Hayes, 2015). Psychological flexibility is when an individual can "contact the present moment fully as a conscious human being, and based on what the situation affords, change or persist in behavior in the service of chosen values" (Hayes, 2015, para. 1). Other similar leadership content and exercises similar to ACT include mindfulness, acceptance-based approaches, values identification, and goal setting.

ACT's infusion among university classroom is not novel. ACT has been used in university classrooms as its own class entirely. It has also been infused into existing psychology, communication, and leadership classes, among targeted individuals (i.e., freshman) or across years, in order to prevent the development or enhancement of mental health issues (Pistorello, et al., 2013). Originally intended in the clinical psychological setting (*therapy* versus *training* in the classroom), in order to become implemented into the classroom setting, it becomes essential to emphasize key principles of ACT over actual content (Hayes, et al., 2011). Additionally, due to the nature of the material, successful implementation of ACT within university classrooms comes when instructors participate in most exercises, model vulnerability, and take responsible risks when delivering the material (Pisotrello, et al., 2013). By infusing ACT into university classrooms, research has shown that college students' (with some level of distress) psychological distress is significantly reduced (Pisotrello, et al., 2013).

Means for Discussion/Interaction

An Overview of ACT (15 minutes) – *Objectives 1 and 2*

The facilitator will first introduce the roundtable group to ACT if they are unfamiliar with the terminology and scholarship through a brief handout (**see Appendix A**). The facilitator will then provide further insight into how ACT can be infused into leadership course curriculum by providing participants with her current case study course. This ACT-infused course, Effective Communication and Life Skills, has been in existence for fourteen (14) years at this Land-grant

institution, but was only recently included in undergraduate required core courses, due to student popularity, evaluations, and positive results.

ACT in Experience (10 minutes) – *Objective 1*

Depending on participant familiarity with the term, the facilitator will then offer the opportunity for participants to engage in ACT practices during this roundtable session. The facilitator will guide participants through one ACT exercise, stemming around the ACT concepts of observing self (or 'perspective taking'(Harris, 2006)) and defusion. Participants will experience this observing self and defusion activity, guided by the facilitator on a provided worksheet. This experiential exercise will demonstrate its effectiveness for both personal use, as well as a benefit for leadership students (**see Appendix B**).

ACT in Discussion (20 minutes) – *Objective 3*

Lastly, the facilitator will offer reflections on her experience with implementing this into her classroom, including pieces that have been challenging to deliver, helpful for students, confusing for students to understand, more appropriate contexts for ACT, among others. The facilitator will then offer the remaining time for the discussion questions listed below:

Possible Discussion Questions
1. Have you used any of the ACT concepts before in your classroom (or similar concepts)? If so, what have you seen as outcomes?
2. Mindfulness seems to be a concept sweeping across Western universities. Where have you seen this implemented successfully? Unsuccessfully?
3. What are some of the challenges of infusing some of these ideas into the classroom?
4. While this course is technically entitled, "Effective Communication and Life Skills," we have infused some of these tactics and techniques in leadership programming, leadership workshops among professionals, ect. What is the balance between 'life skills' and leadership education?

Foreseeable Implications of Discussion

When considering the complexities that students face as young people in today's world, ranging from financial crisis, to citizenship, to interpersonal conflict, to global purpose, a holistic approach must be taken at the university setting. Leadership education must now adapt in order to empower university graduates who can address, understand, and influence the dynamics of social change and development (Rost & Barker, 2000). ACT answers this call by taking a holistic approach with an emphasis on relational frames to leadership education.

By infusing ACT concepts and principles within leadership education, we provide a tangible solution for individuals in the most chaotic time of transition to find grounding in their values, and an overwhelming amount of control over who they are currently and who they would like to become.

References

Harris, R. (2006). Embracing your demons: An overview of Acceptance and Commitment Therapy. *Psychotherapy in Australia, 12*(4), 2-8.

Hayes, S. (2015). Acceptance and Commitment Therapy (ACT). Retrieved from the Association for Contextual Behavioral Sciences (ACBS): https://contextualscience.org/act.

Hayes, S. C., Strosahl, K., & Wilson, K. G. (2011). *Acceptance and Commitment Therapy: The process and practice of mindful change* (2nd edition). New York City, NY: Guilford Press.

Lumina Foundation. (2012). Today's reality. Retrieved from the Lumina Foundation website: https://www.luminafoundation.org/todays-student-statistics.

National Alliance on Mental Health (2014). Mental Health facts in America. Retrieved from the National Alliance on Mental Health website: http://www.nami.org/Learn-More/Fact-Sheet-Library.

National College Health Association (2013). Reference group executive summary. Retrieved from the National College Health Association website: http://www.acha-ncha.org/docs/ACHA-NCHA-II_UNDERGRAD_ReferenceGroup_ExecutiveSummary_Spring2013.pdf.

Paladino, D. A., Murray, T. L., Newgent, R. A., & Gohn, L. A. (2005). Resident assistant burnout: Factors impacting depersonalization, emotional exhaustion, and personal accomplishment. *Journal of College and University Student Housing: 32*(2), 18-27.

Pistorello, J., Hayes, S. C., Lillis, J., Long, D. M., Christodoulou, V., LeJeune, J., & Villatte, J. (2013). Acceptance and Commitment Therapy (ACT) in classroom settings. In J. Pistorello (ed.). *Mindfulness & Acceptance for Counseling College Students.*

Rost, J. C., & Barker, R. A. (2000). Leadership education in colleges: Toward a 21st Century paradigm. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies, 7*(1), 3-12.

Appendix A
ACT Participant Handout

What is ACT (Acceptance and Commitment Therapy)?

Acceptance and Commitment Therapy (ACT, typically pronounced as 'act') (Hayes, Strosahl, & Wilson, 2011) is an empirically-based psychological intervention therapy that uses acceptance and mindfulness strategies alongside commitment and behavioral change, in order to increase psychological flexibility (Hayes, 2015). Psychological flexibility is when an individual can "contact the present moment fully as a conscious human being, and based on what the situation affords, change or persist in behavior in the service of chosen values" (Hayes, 2015, para. 1). The purpose of ACT is to not necessarily eliminate challenging feelings, but to instead be present in the moment, alongside acknowledging what behaviors are in alignment with our values (Hayes, et al., 2011). Other similar leadership content, exercises, and similar to ACT include mindfulness, acceptance-based approaches, values, and goal setting.

Approach Summary (Harris, 2006)

Accept your reactions and be present
Choose a valued direction
Take action

Steven C. Hayes, the original founder of the form of cognitive-behavior therapy in the early 1980's, identified six core principles of the intervention practice (Harris, 2006):

1. **Defusion**: Learning methods to reduce the tendency to reify thoughts, images, emotions, and memories;
2. **Acceptance**: Allowing thoughts to come and go without struggle;
3. **Mindfulness**: Awareness of the here and now, experienced with openness, interest, and receptiveness;
4. **Observer Self ('Perspective taking')**: Accessing a transcendent sense of self, a state of continual consciousness, which is unchanging;
5. **Values**: Discovering what is most important to one's true self; and
6. **Committed Action**: Setting goals according to values and carrying them out responsibly.

Alongside other models of psychological flexibility, ACT has been proven to "ameliorate distress and promote learning, reduce stigmatization of others, and prevent the development of psychological problems" (Pistorello, et al., 2013, p. 226).

How can it be infused in a leadership class?

Originally intended in the clinical psychological setting (*therapy* versus *training* in the classroom), in order to become implemented into the classroom setting, it becomes essential to emphasize key principles of ACT over actual content (Hayes, et al., 2011). Due to the nature of the material, successful implementation of ACT within university classroom settings comes when instructors participate in most exercises, model vulnerability, and take responsible risks when delivering the material (Pisotrello, et al., 2013). By infusing ACT into university

classrooms, research has shown that college students' (with some level of distress) psychological distress is significantly reduced (Pisotrello, et al., 2013).

ACT's infusion among university classroom is not novel. ACT has been used in university classrooms as its own class entirely. It has also been infused into existing psychology, communication, and leadership classes, among targeted individuals (i.e., freshman) or across years, in order to prevent the development or enhancement of such mental health issues (Pistorello, et al., 2013).

The following Figure 1-1 demonstrates how the presenting case study implements the ACT Matrix of ACT concepts throughout multiple modules within a semester at a Land-grant institution in the Pacific Northwest of the United States. The course first introducing the concept of psychological flexibility before it then identifies the below six concepts to students in the following order: connection, values, mindfulness, expansion, defusion, observing self, and committed action. These concepts are explored in class through experiential activities, small group discussions, individual reflections, and Stretch Application assignments that allow for the tangible application of course materials into their personal lives.
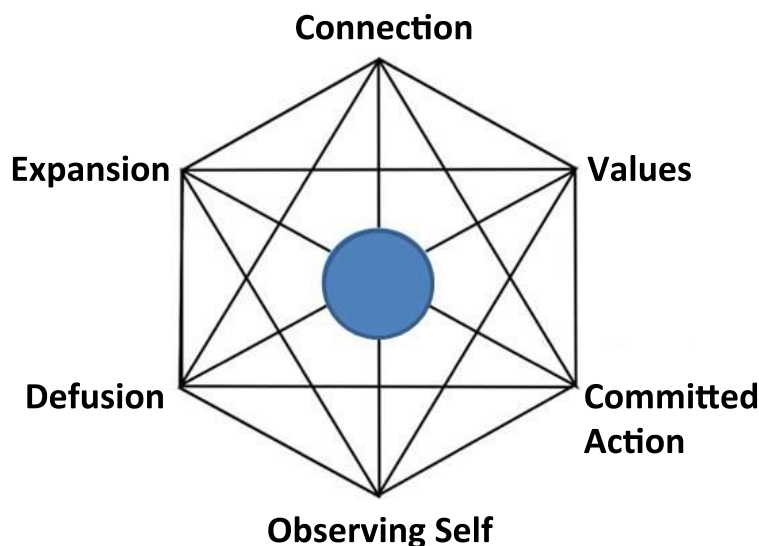
Figure 1-1. Case Study ACT Hexagon

A copy of the course syllabus can be available upon request.

Appendix B
ACT in Experience
*Observing Self and Defusion Exercise*

The following exercise is used in multiple university classrooms at a Land-grant university in the Pacific Northwest of the US (as well as a leadership course in the southeast region of the United States), among students ranging in age, major, and sex; this course is entitled Effective Communication and Life Skills, and is a university required course for undergraduate education.

Observer Self
1. Encourage participants to take a comfortable posture (i.e., plant your feet on the floor, with spine erect - center your head at the top of your spine, and take a few deep breaths)
2. Explain to participants that we are looking for the neutral observer – a state of awareness that is much slower than our mind. While our mind (in ACT called the 'Thinking Self') is often racing, while observer self is aware, here, present, and now.
3. With writing utensils, participants will begin to color on the human form (below), coloring what they experience (emotions) and where specifically on the body.
4. The facilitator will then ask participants, "Where do you feel _____ in your body?" She will then give participants a few seconds to find where that emotion is, and make a few marks on the template (for example, "strong," "fatigue," "achiness or pain").
5. The facilitator will then explain to participants that our awareness of our physical sensations and their emotional responses is through the ACT concept 'observer self,' which doesn't judge our feelings, sensations, or thoughts – it doesn't put it through a ringer of right/wrong. Instead, it simply notices what is true in our own experience, providing information that you can now do something with.

Defusion
6. Next, the facilitator will ask participants to complete the thought bubbles on the worksheet by finishing the sentences, "I am not _____ enough," "I am too _____," and any additional thoughts in their head that may be spinning, that they haven't been able to get out of their mind for several days.
7. The facilitator will then explore further the ACT concept of defusion, explaining to participants that these thoughts are your actual thoughts, and the neutral noticer (or observer self) is that part of you that is able to notice that these are only thoughts. The facilitator will further explore why this exercise is important; the 'Observer Self' separates the mind's thoughts from your identity (i.e., you are not your thoughts – you are instead simply *aware* of your thoughts). Once we have identified what our thoughts are, we can then see if they're helpful or unhelpful in helping us live a fulfilled life; this concept of *defusion* allows us to begin to create space between our thoughts and our observer self.
8. The facilitator will then encourage participants to continue to work this process through with the following internal prompts: "Where do I hold resentment?" "Where do I hold a sense or pride or accomplishment?" "What does love look like?"
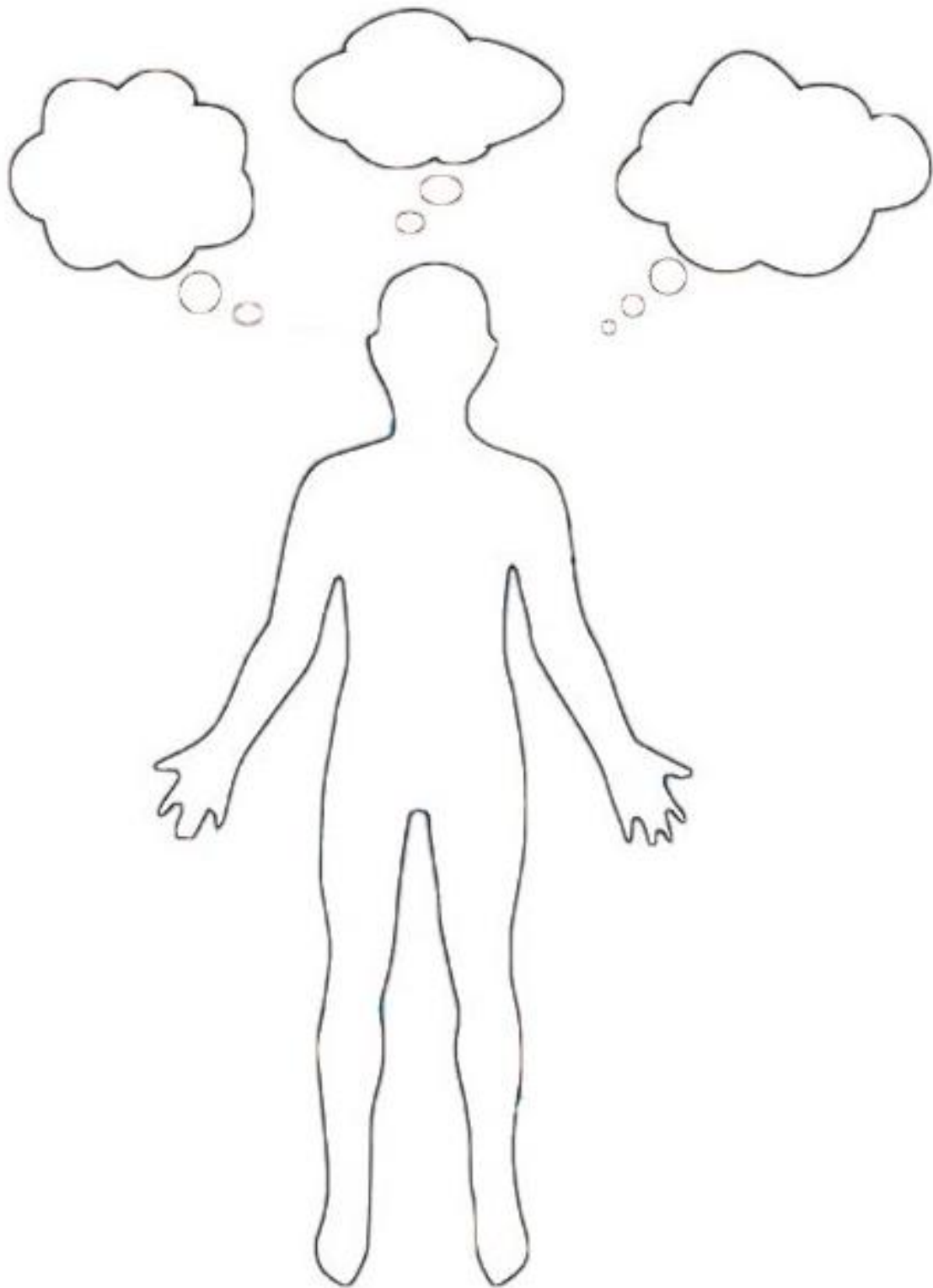
Calling All Grads:
Exploring How Graduate Students can be Successful in their Academic Programs

Carolynn Komanski
University of Florida

Jennifer Moss-Breen
Creighton University

Abstract

Earl-Novell (2006) found a conglomeration of research indicating a plethora of varying factors leading to graduate student attrition. This roundtable discussion seeks to collaboratively and constructively re-examine the factors that impact graduate students success in our academic programs. This dialogue will provide tangible insights for graduate students and leadership educators to best answer the question, "How can we be successful graduate students and be prepared for our careers after graduation?"

Introduction

Define the problem:

The competition for jobs in academia and in top companies is rigid. The jobs are there, but applicants have to stand out from the crowd. On any given year, there may be 10-20 new positions in your particular sub discipline, and you can be certain that there are plenty of graduate students and post-docs around the country who have spent the past 5-8 years working day and night to show that they have the drive, imagination, and expertise to compete for these few positions (Lovitts & Nelson, 2000). In addition, there are assistant professors who are looking to change jobs and against whom you must also compete. For each of those jobs there may be 75-250 applicants, depending upon how specific the search committee made the position description (Lovitts & Nelson, 2000).

If you want to be in the group that is called for interviews, you must set up work habits early in your graduate career that will put you in a position to be competitive. Hard, consistent work will not guarantee that you will get an interview, but lazy, inconsistent work will just about guarantee that you will not get an interview in today's academic job market (Willson & Hardgrave, 1995). If you want to spend your life doing research and teaching, you need to demonstrate that you are very good at it (Seibert, 2005).

Learner/participant objectives: Upon active participation in this roundtable, participants will have successfully accomplished the following objectives:
1. Identify, evaluate, acknowledge personal responsibility in regards to graduate student success among educational research
2. Discuss and assess the use of the terms 'graduate student success'
3. Critically analyze and find the teachable implications of the what it means to be a graduate student (presenting, researching, publishing)

4. Explore ways to enhance understanding and value of the ownership in the roles of graduate students (academic coursework, working with faculty and researchers)
5. Promote innovative means to address personal and professional development in graduate education
6. Establish partnerships to better support graduate students in leadership research and education

Background

Effective education leadership makes a difference in improving learning. Mouton (2011) identifies common struggles that are encountered by master's and doctoral students, and takes a practical approach to solving these challenges. Challenges deal with the preparation, planning, research process, and research product of theses and dissertations. Understanding the real-life activities that students have to undertake in order to produce a final research product and how external factors can support them in this process is key (Mouton, 2011). Providing an understanding of a logical framework that students can follow such as a step-by-step guide to talk with their faculty advisor, learn how to manage their time or priorities, and learn how to write are factors which can influence a student's success (Kuh, Kinzie, Schuh, and Whitt, 2011).

Means for Discussion/Interaction

Overview of the Session Plan:

0 – 5 minutes: Introduction of Facilitators (and participants)
5 – 10 minutes: Introduction to Graduate Student Behavior within Leadership Education
- Self-discipline
- Significance of basic skills *(writing, communication, problem-solving)*
- Types of literature on graduate student success *(role-based approach versus constructivist approach)*

10 – 20 minutes: Facilitated Conversation
- Each topic will be followed by discussion questions *(addressing participant objectives)*: (1) semantics of 'graduate student success' (2) the role of the graduate, (3) student basic skill development, and (4) resistance in leadership education
- Additional background information is provided for participants to present further context and insight into presented topics

20 – 25 minutes: Where do we go from here?
- Participants will be encouraged to exchange contact information for ongoing dialogue, initiate a Support Network, and/or provide ongoing outreach to enhance conversation on graduate student success among leadership education and research

Discussion Questions:
1. Semantics of 'graduate student success'.
   a. *Do we need to reevaluate the term 'successful graduate student' in leadership education?*

       b.   Factors which influence student success and how can one achieve success?

Background: As the number of applicants to graduate programs increases, the importance of adequately evaluating each applicant also increases. Specifically, an indication of the applicant's potential success in the graduate program is a key element in the acceptance decision (Gross, Lopez, & Hughes, 2008; Hardgrave & Wilson, 1994). Knowing the factors which can influence student success can provide for proactive measures, or expectations, to be clearly communicated so students can take ownership of their educational success (Kuh, Kinzie, Schuh, & Whitt, 2011).

2.   The role of the graduate student.
      a.   What are we expecting from students and how are we gauging their ability to be successful (Cao & Gabb, 2007; Ferrer de Valero, 2000)?
      b.   How do we instill the active, relational, and dynamic characteristics of the student in our classroom?
      c.   Several alternative terms have been suggested, including 'collaborators,' 'participant,' and 'member' (Uhl-Bien, et al., 2014); what are your thoughts on using these phrases as alternatives to 'student?'

Background: Academic programs missions and values are indicators of what philosophical expectations are to be achieved. The sequence of courses and what they entail should be supportive of the mission and values. In concert of these overarching factors, the expectations of students within an academic program needs to be established in order to measure progress and success (Bain, Fedynich, & Knight, 2010). Evaluation periods vary by program as do the expectations. As a field of leadership educators and scholars expectations are set by our professional associations. Understanding how graduate students navigate expectations in the classroom and in our field must be considered as it impacts the future of a profession (Kraska, 2008).

3.   Basic Skill development.
      a.   What are the expected skills that students and faculty should have for their academic programs?
      b.   Are role-based approaches to skill development in leadership education and research, considering today's organizations shifting towards shared leadership?
      c.   How can we empower students to have strong writing, communication, presentation, and facilitation skills?
      d.   What can we do for learning opportunities to improve skills?

Background: Role-based approaches to followership studies the leadership process through the role of the follower in a hierarchical context (Uhl-Bien, et al., 2014). Such an approach allows one to better understand how followers work with leaders in order to either contribute or take away from leadership outcomes (Carsten, et al., 2010). Due to the status differential between followers and leaders, followers take a multitude of roles. While some followers may construct their role in a more traditional, 'subordinate' sense, (reduced responsibility-taking, conformity, and reluctance), others may construct a more dynamic and courageous role in their relationship with the leader (or even as co-leader) (Carsten, et al., 2010). Carsten and colleagues (2010)

suggest that there is a continuum between passive and proactive followers. Within this continuum, there are also individuals who perceive followership as an active role; however, these individuals will only express their opinion if they are given the opportunity to do so (Carsten, et al., 2010). Their place on the continuum also aligns with their organizational climate, including the amount of authoritarian style and hierarchical environment within their workplace (Carsten, et al., 2010).

A transfer of power is needed with the leader-follower relationship. Basic skills are a necessity required by employers in all fields (Earl-Novell, 2006). Providing experiential learning of skills development is one way which can empower students to understand their level of skills within the continuum of their program and their desired field (Earl-Novell, 2006). Fostering engagement in diverse settings creates learning opportunities in which they can strengthen their skill development (Gross, Lopez, & Hughes, 2008).

4. Resistance
    a. *How do we encourage students to critically examine success within our academic programs?*
    b. *How can we initiate conversation among our students of intelligent disobedience (Chaleff, 2015)?*
    c. *How can we support student's involvement in professional development and networking opportunities to learn outside of our immediate sphere of influence?*

Background: Self-reflection (Authentic leadership) and transitional development (Change leadership) provide for theoretical understanding of the developmental changes in student as leaders within the profession. Learning theories provide support for Faculty and program developers to design learning opportunities for our students. However when the learner does not meet expectations intentional dialogue is needed (Earl-Novell, 2006). Such behaviors could include passive-aggressive responses (Tepper, et al., 2001) or constructive resistance (Carsten & Uhl-Bien, 2013). Ultimately, research shows that followers with weaker co-production beliefs of leadership will more likely obey a leader's unethical requests, while followers with stronger co-production beliefs will more likely resist the leader (Carsten & Uhl-Bien, 2013). Understanding this balance of how students can be followers to our leadership we must critically examine how we can best support then to advance (Ferrer de Valero, 200). Providing support to learn globally outside of the constructs of the 'classroom' are opportunities which can broaden the skill set of graduates (Kraska, 2008; Hardgrave & Wilson, 1994).

Foreseeable Implications of Discussion

Similar to the ALE Conference theme of 'Cultivating Leadership Education for a Complex World,' the role, term, and outcomes of *graduate students* within leadership education has tensions and challenges. Although most leadership educators agree of the significance of graduate student success within the academic process, many cannot reinforce answer the questions of *how?* How do we teach, study, and practice graduate student success within the context of an ever-changing world? This roundtable discussion will not only allow participants to constructively discuss and reflect on the ramifications for our lack of incorporation of expectations and ownership into our research and teaching, but also provide collective, tangible solutions for how to do so most effectively.

Recommended next steps/Action

Supporting our future of our association and profession has been an acknowledgement of the Association of Leadership Educators. Providing intentional opportunities to support our graduate students and faculty so that students can be successful is a give and take. This round table allows for further insights to be drawn, the enhancement of research collaboration, sharing of innovative pedagogy, and the initiation of a conversation key to the success of future leadership education.

"I believe we have an obligation to help our (students) get past an elitist view of leadership that coincides with a conformist view of followership… As leadership educators, we can help our students re-conceptualize how they view followers and nudge them past the preconceived notion that followers are unimportant and inconsequential to organizational success" (Raffo, 2013, p. 269, 270).

References

Bain, S., Fedynich, L., and Knight, M. (2010). The successful graduate student: A review of the factors for success. *Journal of Academic and Business Ethics*. Retrieved from: http://www.aabri.com/manuscripts/10569.pdf

Beqiri, M., Chase, N. & Bishka, A. (2010). Online course delivery: An empirical investigation of factors affecting student satisfaction. *Journal of Education for Business*. *85*, 95-100.

Berg, H.M. & Ferber, M.A. (2016). Men and women graduate students: Who succeeds and why?. *The Journal of Higher Education 54* (54). 629-648.

Bowen, W.G., & Rudenstine, N.L. (1992). In pursuit of the Ph.D. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.

Braunstein, A. (2002). Factors determining success in a graduate business program. *College Student Journal, 36*, 471-484. Retrieved March 23, 2010 from EBSCO Host Mobile.

Cao, Z. & Gabb, R. 2007. Student attrition at a new generation university. Australian Association for Research in Education. Conference, 2006, Adelaide.

Carson, J. B., Tesluk, P. E., & Marrone, J. A. (2007). Shared leadership in teams: An investigation of antecedent conditions and performance. *Academy of Management Journal, 50*(5), 1217-1234.

Carsten, M.K., & Uhl-Bien, M. (2013). Ethical followership: An examination of followership beliefs and crimes of disobedience. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies, 20*(1), 45-57.

Carsten, M. K., Uhl-Bien, M., West, B. J., Patera, J. L., & McGregor, R. (2010). Exploring social constructions of followership: A qualitative study. *The Leadership Quarterly, 21*, 543-562. doi 10.1016/j.leaqua.2010.03.015.

Chaleff, I. (2009). The courageous follower (3rd ed.). San Francisco, CA: Berrett-Koehler.

Chaleff, I. (2015). Intelligent disobedience. San Francisco, CA: Berret-Koehler.

Earl-Novell, S. (2006). Determining the extent to which program structure features and integration mechanisms facilitate or impede doctoral student persistence in mathematics. *International Journal of Doctoral Studies, 1*, 45-57.

Ferrer de Valero, Y. (May-June, 2001). Departmental factors affecting time-to-degree and completion rates of doctoral students at one land-grant research institution. *The Journal of Higher Education, 72*(3), 341-367.

Gross, N.A., Lopez, R., & Hughes, W.J. (2008). Theory into practice: Applying lessons learned from retention studies to build a diverse graduate community. In AIP Conference proceedings at the National Society of Black Physicists. Retrieved March 20, 2010 from AIP Conference Proceedings.

Hardgrave, B.C. & Wilson, R.L. (1994). Predicting graduate student success: A comparison of neutral networks and traditional techniques. *Journal of Computers & Operational Research 22* (3). 249-263.

Hoskins, C. M., & Goldberg, A. D. (2005). Doctoral student persistence in counselor education programs: Student-program match. *Counselor Education & Supervision, 44*, 175 - 188.

Kraska, M. (Fall 2008). Retention of graduate students through learning communities. Retrieved March 23, 2010, from http://scholar.lib.vt.edu/ejournals/JITE/v452/kraska.html.

Kuh, G. D., Kinzie, J., Schuh, J. H., & Whitt, E. J. (2011). Student success in college: Creating conditions that matter. John Wiley & Sons.

Leithwood, K., Seashore, K., Anderson, S., Wahlstrom, K,. (2004). Executive summary review of research: How Leadership Influences Student Learning. University of Minnesota, Center for Applied Research and Educational Improvement. Retrieved from the University of Minnesota Digital Conservancy, http://hdl.handle.net/11299/2102.

Lovitts, B. & Nelson, C. (2000). The hidden crisis in graduate education: Attrition from Ph.D. programs [Electronic version]. *Academe Online*. Retrieved May 10, 2010, from http://www.aaup.org/AAUP/CMS_Templates/Academe Templates/AcademieArticle.aspx

McCollum, D. & Kajs, L. (2007). Applying goal orientation theory in an exploration of student motivations in the domain of educational leadership [Electronic version*]. Educational Research Quarterly, 31*, 45 -59.

Mouton, J. (2011). How to succeed in your master's and doctoral studies: A South African (p. 280). Van Schaik Publishers. Chicago

Raffo, D.M. (2013). Teaching followership in leadership education. *Journal of Leadership Education, 12*(1), 262-272.

Seibert, A. (2005). The resiliency advantage: Master change, thrive under pressure, and bounce back from setbacks. Berkley, CA: Berrett-Koehler.

Summary of Workshop on Graduate Student Attrition (1998). National Science Foundation, Division of Science Resources Studies, NSF 99-314, Arlington, VA.

Uhl-Bien, M., & Ospina, S. (2012). Paradigm interplay in relational leadership: A way forward. In M. Uhl-Bien & S. Ospina (eds.), *Advancing relational leadership research: A dialogue among perspecitves,* pp. 537-580. Charlotte, NC: Information Age Publishers.

Uhl-Bien, M., & Pillai, R. (2007). The romance of leadership and the social construction of followership. In B. Shamir, R. Pillai, M.C. Bligh, & M. Uhl-Bien, eds., Follower-centered perspectives on leadership: A tribute to the memory of James R. Meindl. Greenwich, CT: Information Age Publishing.

Uhl-Bien, M., Riggio, R.E., Lowe, K.B., & Carsten, M.K. (2014). Followership theory: A review and research agenda. *The Leadership Quarterly, 25*, 83-104.

Willson, R.L. & Hardgrave, B.C. (1995). Predicting graduate student success in an MBA program: Regression versus classification. *Journal of Educational and Psychological Measurement 55* (2), 185-196.

Wright, C. (1964). Success of failure in earning graduate degrees. Retrieved May 10, 2010, from http://www.jstor.org/stable/2111819.

Application of the Big 5 Personality Model to Virtual Team Leadership

David G. Wolf, Ph.D.
Barry University

Abstract

Studies have shown that personality is an important factor in determining virtual team leadership success (Gratton & Erikson, 2007; Hertel, Geister, & Konradt, 2005; Bell & Kozlowski, 2002). There have also been contextually rich investigations that have shown compelling evidence for the depth and breadth of the five personality dimensions used in the Big 5 personality model via a variety of instruments and across different cultures (Goldberg, 1990; McCrae & Costa, 1987). This roundtable discussion will share the results of a recently created VT leadership assignment that was implemented in a Master's Degree program and presented in a hybrid format in a foundational leadership course.

Introduction

Virtual Teams (VTs) have transformed the workplace. Today, the VT is an increasingly common alternative to the traditional work group. While VTs offer many advantages, the lack of face-to-face interaction creates new challenges. Perhaps the most critical one is the difficulty in maintaining clear communication. Connection is the lifeblood of organizations, and without a 'human connection' facilitating communication, VTs cannot achieve optimum performance. Teaching virtual team leadership can be difficult and creating a virtual team leadership assignment that will enhance theoretical as well as practical leadership skills in a virtual environment can be daunting. The Big 5 personality model has been researched vigorously over the last 40 years among different variables including job performance, salary levels, life and career satisfaction and job training. It is only recently that researchers are examining the importance of personality in teams (Furumo & de Pillis & Green, 2009). Hand in hand with the challenges faced by VTs are opportunities to: improve the setup of new teams and the leaders they create; establish communication standards and add a human connection to strengthen working relationships through sound training and techniques. For the purposes of this assignment, the students were told the word "virtual" encompasses any and all communication that did not take place in a face-to-face environment. Many students found this project to be an awakening in that they had limited experience with this type of assignment and had never completed the Big 5 Personality instrument to learn how they might interact with their teammates in a virtual environment. Loosely based on a study of 71 virtual teams in an undergraduate business program, this study sought to intensify the leadership aspects of virtual team to create team efficiency and effectiveness in the virtual environment (Cogliser, et. al., 2012).

Background

The goal of this assignment was to aid leadership students in understanding the effect of VT goal management and how leadership effectiveness is influenced in a virtual environment using the Big 5 Personality Model and to assist them in understanding the various factors virtual team

members will display in a virtual setting as opposed to face- to-face team meetings. This model consists of five separate, yet interrelated dimensions:

(O) penness to Experience/Intellect – High scorers tend to be original, creative, curious, complex; Low scorers tend to be conventional, down to earth, narrow interests, uncreative.
(C) onscientiousness - High scorers tend to be reliable, well-organized, self-disciplined, careful; Low scorers tend to be disorganized, undependable, and negligent.
(E) xtraversion - High scorers tend to be sociable, friendly, fun loving, talkative; Low scorers tend to be introverted, reserved, inhibited, and quiet.
(A) greeableness - High scorers tend to be good natured, sympathetic, forgiving, courteous; Low scorers tend to be critical, rude, harsh, and callous.
(N) ueroticism - High scorers tend to be nervous, high-strung, insecure, worrying; Low scorers tend to be calm, relaxed, secure, hardy.

Means for Discussion/Interaction

Applying the model and these factors to a virtual group may prove to be an enlightening process for all students. Having a better understanding of each others personality's may enable student groups to establish trust and confidence in each other's abilities to perform the necessary tasks to accomplish VT goals. The facilitator will use the chart in Appendix

A to engage participants in a discussion of VT leadership using the identified model. Due to the complex nature of this assignment and geographic proximity of the participants, each team was required to complete this project in a virtual environment. Within this environment, establishing trust is the critical component for our team's success (Lipnack & Stamps, 2000). A commonly used definition of trust is "the willingness of a party to be vulnerable to the actions of another party based on the expectation that the other will perform a particular action important to the trustor, irrespective of the ability to monitor or control that other party" (Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 1995, p.712). Zand (1972) found that high trusting teams were more open to discussion, better at problem solving, more innovative and showed more self-control when threatened.

The combination of the 5 factors along with the interpersonal knowledge, skills and abilities of the group members can lead students to establish trust and team effectiveness (Pierce, 2008). In a quantitative study conducted by Pierce (2008), a hypothesis was put forth and statistically proven valid and reliable that "a team member's propensity to trust has a positive effect on perceived virtual team effectiveness" (p.35). Within the example team identified in Exhibit A, team trust was already present based on past interpersonal and academic relationships within the degree program, which allowed for early productivity.

From a leadership perspective, one of the key dimensions is neuroticism. One of the key components of this dimension is self-esteem and "it appears there is convincing evidence for the inclusion of self-esteem as an important trait of both superior and subordinate in analyzing leadership effectiveness" (Hill & Ritchie, 1977, p.499). It is therefore logical to assume that neuroticism is negatively related to leadership effectiveness in a virtual team setting (Bell & Kozlowski, 2002). In the example in Exhibit A, only one person scored high in this area (84th

percentile), which accounted for the team's ability to have a shared leadership style with this project.

The Big Five Personality model appeared to be an appropriate indicator of personality trait confluence among the team members in most of the aspects analyzed and offered a positive predictor of the team's success to meet the stated goals and objectives of this assignment. It is also important to note that motivation also played a significant role for our team. Because this project was given in an academic environment, receiving a high grade became a motivating factor. In the traditional work setting, the absence of this motivation (bonus, raise, etc. for willingness to be on the team) could possibly influence the overall outcomes, despite the scores on the individual's personality assessment tests.

References

Bell, B. S., & Kozlowski, S. W. (2002). A typology of teams: Implications for effective leadership. *Group and Organization Management, 27*, 14-49.

Cogliser, C. C., Gardner, W. L., Gavin, M. B., & Broberg, J. C. (2012). Big five personality factors and leader emergence in virtual teams: Relationships with team trustworthiness, member performance contributions, and team performance. *Group and Organization Management*, *37*(6), 752-784. http://dx.doi.org.ezproxy.fau.edu/10.1177%2F1059601112464266

Furumo, K., de Pillis, E. and Green, D. (2009) Personality influences trust differently in virtual and face to face teams. *International Journal of Human Resources Development and Management*, 9(1), pp. 36-58.

Goldberg, L. R. (1990). An alternative description of personality: The big five factor structure. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 81*(6), 1216-1299.

Gratton, L., & Erickson, T. J. (2007, November). 8 ways to build collaborative teams. *Harvard Business Review*, 101-109.

Hertel, G., Geister, S., & Konradt, U. (2005). Managing virtual teams: A review of current empirical research. *Human Resource Management Review, 15*, 69-95.

Hill, N. C., & Ritchie, J. B. (1977). The effect of self-esteem on leadership and achievement: A paradigm and review. *Group and Organization Studies, 2*, 491-503.

Lipnack, J., & Stamps, J. (2000). *Virtual teams*. New York: John Wiley & Sons.

Mayer, R. C., Davis, J. H., & Schoorman, F. D. (1995). An integrative model of organizational trust. *Academy of Management Review, 20*, 709-734.

McCrae, R. R., & Costa, P. T. (1987). Validation of the five-factor model of personality across instruments and observers. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 52*, 81-90.

Pierce, E. A. (2008). *The effect of personality and trust on virtual team effectiveness* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). Case Western Reserve University, Cleveland, OH.

Zand, D. E. (1972). Trust and managerial problem solving. *Administration Science Quarterly, 17*, 229-239.

Appendix A

This chart indicates how each member of one team scored after taking the Big 5 Personality test:

Dimension	Team Member			
	Team Member 1	**Team Member 2**	**Team Member 3**	**Team Member 4**
Openness: (Reflects open-mindedness and interest in culture)	Perfers traditiona and familiar experiences.	Prefers traditional and familiar experiences.	Somewhat conventional.	Enjoys novel experiences and seeing things in a new way.
Conscientiousness: (Reflects how organized and persistent people are in pursuing goals!	Very well organized and can be relied upon.	You are very well organized and can be relied upon.	You are very well organized and can be relied upon.	You tend to do things somewhat haphazardly.
Extraversion: (Reflects preferences for behavior in social situations)	You are relatively social and enjoy the company of others.	You enjoy spending quiet time along.	You are extremely outgoing, social and energetic.	You are extremely outgoing, social and energetic.
Agreeableness: (Influes how people intereact with others.)	You find it easy to critize others.	You find easy to criticize others.	You are supportive, good-natured, and courteous, and supportive.	You tend to consider the feelins of others.
Neuroticism: (Reflects emotional stability, levels of negative thoughts/feelings.)	You aren't particularly nervous or calm.	You are general relaxed.	You are generally anxious person and tend to worry about things.	You probably remain calm, even in tense situations.

Analytics in Business Education:
Building Leaders as Data Literate Decision Makers

Donna L. Haeger, Ph.D.
Cornell S.C. Johnson College of Business

Lauri A. Branch, Ph.D.
St. Bonaventure University

Abstract

Leaders today require a strong grasp of analytic and data science skills. As the volume of information grows, so does the gap in leaders with the ability to manage, understand and make decisions using data. While most leadership programs graze the subject of descriptive analytics, deeper understanding and ability are required across organizations that leverage prescriptive and predictive modeling. Understanding data modeling and its outcomes is key to leadership and organizational success when results are transfomed into decision making. Methods for educating data literate leaders must be cultivated.

Key Words (English): business analytics, data science, education, leadership development

Introduction

It is known that analytics provides fact based decision-making. Data supporting decision making to increase competitive advantage is a reliable way to increase the bottom line (Davenport, 2013). This roundtable will encourage participants to share perspectives on the importance of addressing the business analytic and decision science talent gap by promoting a shift in business analytic education for leaders beyond descriptive analytic emphasis to the prowess of data science rooted in predictive and prescriptive analytic modeling.

Discussion

The primary discussion will zero in on the tie between analytics and decision-making for leadership education. It is not enough that leaders simply know how to analyze the data. Turning the results into reliable decisions at all levels is key. Applications from healthcare, transportation, marketing practice, academia or any other areas will be offered to support this discussion about the growth and methods of applying analytic decision-making to both student education and leadership training.

Background

The volume of data available today can be empowering or paralyzing depending on an organization's capacity to leverage it in decision-making. That capacity is highly reliant on talent. In their Analytics Trends 2016 -The Next Evolution, Deloitte (2016) reports that "Forty percent of respondents to a 2015 MIT Sloan Management Review survey say they have difficulty hiring analytical talent". Analytics is becoming a ubiquitous and highly sought competency

affecting businesses of all sizes, enterprise wide, both domestically and globally, making it as fundamental in higher education and business today as reading and math. It has been estimated that by 2020 data will grow at the zettabyte level to over 40 times the amount of data that was available in 2009.

Organizations worldwide continue to increase their demand for and emphasis on such business analytic resources to pursue IoT (internet of things) strategies, machine learning (cognitive computing) and prescriptive (automated decision making) and real time analytics. Back in 2011, McKinsey Global Institute's Big data: The next frontier for innovation, competition, and productivity (2011) estimated that by 2018, "the United States alone could face a shortage of 140,000 to 190,000 people with deep analytical skills as well as 1.5 million managers and analysts with the know-how to use the analysis of big data to make effective decisions."

Implications

If leaders are to attract and cultivate analytic based decision making from employees, it is imperative that they exemplify this type of decision making (Davenport, 2013). The discussion will focus on the importance of addressing a talent gap and the need to begin shifting business analytic education beyond a descriptive analytic emphasis to the prowess of data science rooted in predictive and prescriptive analytic modeling. Examples from retail, healthcare, transportation, to apply analytics to decision making for both student education and faculty pedagogical use.

References

Davenport, T. H. (2013). Analytics 3.0. Harvard Business Review, 91(12), 64-+.

Deloitte. (2016). Analytics Trends 2016. The next evolution.

Manyika, J., Chui, M., Brown B., Bughin, J., Dobbs, R., Roxburgh, C,. Hung Byers, A. (2011). Big data: The next frontier for innovation, competition, and productivity.

Deconstruction and Reconstruction: Driving Questions and Considerations for Leadership Education Program (re)Design

Dr. Nyasha M. Guramatunhu Cooper, Dr. Jennifer W. Purcell, Dr. Heather I. Scott, Dr. LaJuan Simpson-Wilkey, and Dr. Felicia Mainella, PhD
Kennesaw State University

Abstract

Three decades have passed since the first undergraduate leadership studies program was established in 1987, and considerable advancements have been made regarding best practices for leadership education as the field has formalized and gained legitimacy. As such, leadership educators have a growing literature base to inform curricular and co-curricular program development and redesign. During this roundtable, the facilitators and participants will share experiences in (re)designing leadership studies curriculum to better reflect best practices and empirical findings that are emerging from the growing literature base in leadership education. The purpose of the roundtable is to identify common questions that drive curriculum development and redesign. Attention will be given to how leadership educator identifies inform and are reflected in these and related inquiries. The session will include discussion on considerations for program redesign and will conclude with an invitation to continue the dialogue post-conference as a cross-institutional community of inquiry and practice.

Introduction

Leadership studies has seen considerable expansion as a discipline. If one follows the trajectory of the discipline, the development of theory ushered in inquiry about leadership practice in various contexts. The next wave of inquiry focused on leadership education and its connection to leadership theory and practice. Conversations about leadership education (curricular and co-curricular) take on more urgency as the discipline expands against a backdrop of 21st century contextual shifts influenced by trade, technology, and migration. Within this new space, leadership education programs face the complex and necessary task of imagining and reimaging their existence by clearly articulating their purpose, intent, and impact. The existence of a significant number of leadership education programs domestically and abroad suggests that program developers have done critical reflection on the purpose, scope, and impact of their programs. However, given new developments in theory and practice, as well as responses to external factors brought to bear by 21st century demands, program development is never complete. There is a process of conceptualization, implementation, assessment, and reflection that is in constant motion. This reality suggests that design and redesign are an integral part of sustaining leadership education programs. In this roundtable discussion, we invite an exploration of the redesign process: intentionally examining the questions and considerations that drive the redesign process in leadership education programs.

Background

In presenting the complexity of developing a core curriculum for leadership studies, Watt (2003) noted five important considerations: a) levels of learning, b) understanding leadership, c)

leadership studies philosophy, d) goals and objectives, and e) assessment. These considerations provide a framework for designing leadership studies programs, but they are also crucial in the redesign process because they provide a way to measure the success and impact of what has been and a way to query and facilitate what will become. Carefully considering what was and what will become of our curricula and programs is crucial for the viability and legitimacy of leadership education programs. Fincher and Shalka (2009) documented the importance of such considerations in developing co-curricular leadership education. Similarly, Gigliotti and Ruben (2017) emphasize the necessity for systemic and intentional planning for leadership education and echoed Blackwell's (2009) reflection that leadership educators fill the gap between leadership theory and daily leadership practice.

At (university name redacted for blind review), our Leadership Studies curricular program is embarking on the redesign process. Factors such as a change at the institutional, college, and department level, changes in the learner population, anticipation of workforce needs, and opportunities for internal and external partnerships have presented an opportunity to reevaluate and redesign our program. Housed within an interdisciplinary department, our undergraduate Leadership Studies Program offers a 15 credit hour certificate program. Courses within the program approach leadership from a postmodern and multidisciplinary lens designed to facilitate development and growth of leadership capacities. We also offer upper division electives courses, which attract students from across the institution.

The diversity of our faculty represents the diversity of our students. We each come to the discipline with different expertise and training. This diversity in ways of knowing and being reflects the appeal of leadership studies in that there is no formulaic ways to study, teach, or learn about leadership. In their 2015 article on conceptualizing educator identity in leadership education, Seemiller and Priest articulated a common awareness and question among leadership educators: how do our individual identities inform our practice as leadership educators? Spaces such as ALE encourage leadership educators to share best practices, yet we each have substantial latitude in our pedagogies. The addition of new faculty members has prompted necessary conversations about the different ways to teach leadership, and the importance of making physical and intellectual space for leadership educator identities.

Given the shifts in leadership, learner needs, opportunities for collaboration, and addition of faculty with different expertise, we are at a prime juncture to examine the intent and impact of our program. The redesign process provides an important opportunity to use Watt's (2003) model to think about the purpose, identity, and impact of our leadership studies program. Watt's model is a useful beginning in that it prompts collective reflection among faculty, administrators, and staff because the success of leadership programs rests on understanding how different elements and stakeholders work together. Part of our current work is reimagining Watt's program design model for curricular redesign, especially as we consider the short and long-term implications of this pursuit. Additionally, our work is further guided by frameworks emerging from educational psychology that present nuanced conceptualizations of how learners build leadership capacity and the subsequent pedagogical considerations that surface from this emerging body of literature (Grimes, 2015) as well as case studies on similar leadership studies programs (White, 2006).

The benefit of discussing the redesign process is that there is sharing of knowledge with colleagues who have gone through the process, but it also adds to the creation of best practices in program redesign, which will be beneficial for current and future programs as our discipline grows. Internally, our efforts are resulting in the cultivation of a community of practice that is central to our discipline. Our hope is that colleagues from other institutions will further enhance or expand our learning and redesign community. Boyce (2006) encourages leadership educators to continuously integrate emerging scholarship while building upon the existing scholarship. Such systematic cycles of reflection and integration are critical to our practice. Based upon previous ALE conference experiences, this setting provides a space conducive for rich cross-institutional brainstorming that yields positive impacts for multiple programs.

Means for Discussion/Interaction

Following introductions of the facilitators and participants, the facilitators will provide a brief overview of recent efforts to redesign a credit-bearing undergraduate leadership studies curriculum. Facilitators include the department chair for the leadership program, the program director, and faculty representatives who each have unique vantage points from which to pose critical questions for program redesign. The overview will capture driving questions and considerations, such as internal and external influences, that have informed the process of deconstructing and reconstructing the program curriculum. Roundtable participants will then be invited to share their experience in developing and refining leadership curriculum, including the impetus driving development, supports and resources, and lessons learned. Participants will also be asked to critique the curriculum redesign process model proposed for leadership education programs.

Foreseeable Implications of Discussion

The purpose of the roundtable is to encourage colleagues identify potential areas for curricular improvement based upon emerging scholarship and increasingly refined conceptualizations of leadership education, including the educator identities, content, audience, and outcomes. As the leadership studies gains legitimacy as a discipline, the need for more intentional, evidenced-based leadership education grows. The Association for Leadership Education responds to this need in providing a holding space for scholars, educators, and practitioners to explore best practices for teaching and developing leadership. The facilitators of this discussion will advance a critical conversation for our field with the intent of refining their strategies and encouraging colleges to reflect on their own practice and curriculum.

References

Blackwell, C. (2009). Leadership theory and education: Building bridges or digging chasms. *Journal of Leadership Education, 8*(1), 238-243.

Boyce, L. (2006). Using a comprehensive leadership framework as a scholarship and teaching tool. *Journal of Leadership Education, 5*(2), 69-79.

Fincher, J. and Shalka, T. R. (2009). Co-curricular leadership education: Considering critical questions. *Journal of Leadership Education, 8*(1), 228-237.

Gigliotti, R. A. and Ruben, B. D. (2017). Preparing higher education leaders: A conceptual, organizational and operational approach. *Journal of Leadership Education, Winter 2017*, 96-114.

Grimes, M. W. (2015). How does learning in leadership work? A conceptual change perspective. *Journal of Leadership Education, Special 2015*, 26-45. doi: 1012806/V14/I4/T1

Seemiller, C. and Priest, K. L. (2015). The hidden "who" in leadership education: Conceptualizing leadership educator professional identity development. *Journal of Leadership Education, Summer 2015*, 132-151. doi: 1012806/V14/I3/T2

Watt, W. M. (2003). Effective leadership education: Developing a core curriculum for leadership studies. *Journal of Leadership Education, 2*(1) 13-26.

White, B. J. (2006). Design and implementation of an interdisciplinary leadership studies minor at a historically black, liberal arts college. *Journal of Leadership Education, 5*(2), 50- 59.

Leadership and Career Education: Connecting For a New Vision

Gayle Spencer
University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign

Abstract

Leadership and career education share a common purpose of self-knowledge and efficacy, plus a mutual goal of enhancing the skills and competencies of students to make a difference in their personal, organizational, and global worlds. While the education imperative of both are essential in student development, the integration and service delivery of leadership skills and career competencies are typically separate entities with little overlap. Join me as we dialogue about a new vision to connect student engagement, leadership, and career readiness to better prepare students.

Introduction

With limited resources on our campuses and increased expectations from stakeholders and consumers, it is imperative that we seek new ways to envision our services, collaborate to increase learning, and provide experiences for long-term success and impact. Retention and graduation are critical outcomes of higher education as well as successful first destinations in employment. Collaboration in leadership and career education will maximize opportunities for students to graduate with skills and a purpose as well as gain skills and knowledge that will transition to successful and meaningful work lives or graduate school admission. Self-knowledge is a core component of both processes. Interpersonal skills such as working in teams, influencing others, and achieving a common purpose in a group, an organization, or globally, are key competencies emphasized by leadership education and essential for post-graduation success. Success for our students includes skill development, meaningful experiences, reflection, cultural competency, advocacy for common purposes, and a vision for the future—all qualities sought by employers and graduate/professional schools.

Unfortunately, student engagement, leadership education, and career development are often located in separate offices with little cooperation or an agreed upon vision. This roundtable will challenge us to consider the intersection of engagement, leadership education, and career/professional development as an imperative and strategic goal of higher education. How does student affairs make career readiness a critical goal for the future of our graduates from the day they enter college? How do we focus on the development of self-knowledge and interpersonal competencies as the key initiative to prepare our students as future citizens and workers that make a difference? How does the intersection of leadership and career development ensure that we have graduates that are local and global citizens making a difference in their organizations and society? Student and academic affairs needs to wrestle with these questions so that experiential and leadership education are core components of higher education and student success.

Learner objectives: Participants will understand the common purposes, competencies, and outcomes of career and leadership development among college students; participants will

understand the intersection of leadership and career/professional development as an imperative or strategic goal of higher education; participants will analyze the connection and integration of leadership and career education; and participants will identify services and programs in career and leadership education that educate students for future endeavors.

Background

Leadership and career education share a common ground that emphasizes the essence of self-knowledge/awareness as a crucial step in student development and deciding, or acting upon career options. Leadership education emphasizes the importance of self-awareness as key for leadership development (Hall, 2004; Shankman, Allen, & Haber-Curren, 2015). Career development consistently emphasizes that knowing oneself is essential in career exploration and decision-making (Parson, 1909; Super, 1953; and Paterson, Sampson, Reardon, & Lenz, 1996). This common ground provides an exceptional opportunity. Reflection is a key skill of leadership development and career development as individuals learn about themselves and are able to "tell their story" of meaning and ability to lead and contribute to a workplace---another common ground to unite the discipline. Both fields emphasize the value of interpersonal skills, ability to work in a team, and communication skills (NACE, 2015; Northouse, 2015; Lussier & Achua, 2016; Kouzes and Posner, 1987, 2007; HERI, 1996). Finally, creating change and visioning a better organization or global community are critical for future workers as well as citizens in our global society. While the intersections may seem obvious, there has been very little dialogue within higher education about how these services collaborate and are integrated in a way that optimizes student learning, success, and preparation for the realities of a global society.

This roundtable will be a dialogue about the common ground of leadership and career development. What is the intersection of leadership and career education? Why is it important? How might services be integrated to make a difference in student learning and efficacy? How can early student engagement and leadership education enhance career readiness? How does career preparation become leadership development so as not to scare students with the word "career?" How can student engagement support work-related experiences and internships that focus on professional development and leadership in the workplace? What would a "new vision" integrating these critically functional areas look like?

Means for Discussion/Interaction

Roundtable will be a dialogue/discussion of the common ground or intersection of leadership education and career/professional preparation.

Questions: What are the common components/aspects of leadership education and career development? What are the end goals of each educational endeavor? How might services and programs in career and leadership education be integrated or combined? What would make a difference for students to be future leaders and gain desired employment/acceptance into graduate school? How would you design a collaborative initiative? What are the outcomes of leadership education? Career education? What are the similarities/differences? How do we insure that graduates are leadership actors and career ready?

References

Hall, D. T. (2004). Self-awareness, identity, and leader development. In D. V. Day, S. J. Zaccaro, and S. M. Halpin (Eds.), *Leadership development for transforming organizations: Growing leaders for tomorrow*. (153-176). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum & Associates.

National Association of Colleges and Employers (2014). *The skills/qualities employers want in new college graduate hires*. Retrieved from http://www.naceweb.org/about-us/press/class-2015-skills-qualities-employers-want.aspx

Kouzes, J.M., & Posner, B.Z. (1987/2007). *The leadership challenge*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Higher Education Research Institute [HERI]. (1996). *A social change model of leadership development: Guidebook version III*. College Park, MD: National Clearinghouse for Leadership Programs.

Northouse, P. G. (2015). *Leadership: Theory and practice*. Los Angeles, CA: Sage.
Lussier, R. N., and Achua, C.F. (2016). *Leadership: Theory, applications, & skill development*. Cengage Learning.

Parsons, F. (1909). *Choosing a vocati*on. Boston: Houghton Mifflin.

Paterson, G.W., Sampson, J.P., Reardon, R.C. & Lenz, J. (1996). A cognitive Information processing approach to career problem solving and decision making. In D.B Brown, L. Brooks & Associates (Eds.), *Career choice and development*, 3rd edition. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Shankman, M. L., & Allen, S. J., & Haber-Curren, P. (2015). *Emotionally intelligent leadership: A guide for college students* (2nd ed.). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Super, D. E. (1953*)*. A theory of vocational development. *American Psychologist, 30*, 88-92.

Examining the Intersectionality of Leadership and Management: Reframing Our Pedagogical Approach

Jared Nielsen & Brendon Fox
Fort Hays State University

Abstract

Just as leadership educators make the distinction between leadership and management, they must also reconcile the unavoidable connection between the two. Within leadership and management theories, we identify contradictory conclusions; some theorists suggest that leadership is simply an element of management while more contemporary scholarship elevates leadership in contrast to management. We understand leadership and management as distinct disciplines, yet with overlapping characteristics in a Venn-like fashion. Our goal is to utilize a roundtable discussion comprised of experienced faculty to develop new and innovative pedagogy to more clearly elucidate the issue for our students that they may be better equipped for a future which will almost certainly demand understanding of leadership and management.

Introduction

Perhaps most leadership studies programs start like ours: with an introductory course in leadership theories and concepts. These courses begin by defining leadership and making a clear distinction between leadership and management. Throughout the program, this distinction is maintained. Management theories and practices not generally included in course content or class discussions. The purpose of leadership studies is to explore the concept of leadership—this idea that individuals can influence others to create positive change without holding a position of authority or being a "manager."

Our program concludes with an integrative capstone course which is designed to bring together the various components of the program with the goal of giving students new ways to understand organizational situations and lead within an organizational content. The primary text for the course is *Reframing Organizations* by Bolman and Deal (2013) wherein students learn to look at organizations through four different lenses or frames. Through the reading of the text and class lectures, students are exposed to countless organizational case studies and tasked with wrestling through a variety of situations, some real, some fictional.
Consider this experience from one of the authors:

We were nearing the end of the semester and to ensure that my students truly grasped the concepts, I asked them to think of questions and write them down. One student asked about the differences between leadership and management. At first I thought, 'Why? Didn't they learn this in their freshman course?' But on second thought, I realized how much of our course material contained management practices. In fact, management principles were very much integrated into the material. It was no wonder that students were confused.

Although leadership and management are unique, they intersect often in organizational contexts. It is nearly impossible to separate the two when dealing with organizational conflict or creating

organizational change. In trying to reconcile this issue, leadership faculty may choose to simply ignore management altogether. Conversely, some faculty may simply treat the class as a primarily a management course wherein leadership principles are included as an aspect of management. These approaches do not help students to walk away with a clear understanding or either leadership or management and they do not properly prepare students for their step into organizational leadership. Faculty must consider the role the management plays in an organizational leadership course, while still emphasizing leadership theories and practices in exploring practical ways understand and respond to organizational situations.

Background

Educators of leadership are often challenged to explain the differences in the theoretical underpinnings of leadership and management. Extant literature has explored this quandary with the conclusion that a practitioner needs to be competent in both. Kotter (2008) argues that although leadership is increasingly important in complex organizations, it is also largely confusing in comparison to management; a different activity that is better understood (p. viii). Additionally, leadership involves setting direction, aligning, and motivating followers – tasks that are "…far too difficult and time-consuming for any one individual no matter how talented" (p. x). Traditional management, on the other hand involve "coordinating mechanisms" that are inadequate to deploy by themselves because of the sheer amount of non-routine coordination involved in a change effort (p. x).

We posit that leadership and management overlap because leaders spend a percentage of their time managing and vice versa. Yukl (1989) cites controversy in the academe where some assert a clear distinction between leadership and management (Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Zaleznik, 1977), and other authors who find no purpose in assuming that one cannot be a manager and a leader simultaneously (p. 253). Since these questions have plagued leadership scholars for decades, we find merit in the proposition that both disciplines compose a symbiotic or even synergistic relationship wherein management and business studies follow a systemic approach, e.g. human resources, financial analysis, and accounting functions, and leadership involves psycho/socio-functioning: essentially, the structure (management) and infrastructure (leadership).

We also acknowledge that both functions have been identified as distinct as characterized by (Yukl, 1989; Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Zaleznik, 1977; Gardner, 1990, Kotter, 2008; & Rost, 1993), so what confronts scholars and practitioners now is the cause and effect relationship between the two. Does management precede leadership? Are they equally important to goal attainment or is leadership the higher order? What personal characteristics are needed to be successful at both? Finally, is leadership theory evolving and replacing management theory? Mintzberg (1973) contended that leadership is a subset of management, thereby implying that leadership is one role of management (Crawford, Brungardt, & Maughan, 2005). However, there is evidence in the literature that leadership is becoming the dominant consideration. Blake and Mouton's Managerial Grid (1962) explains the management style of leaders. The transactional nature of management (planning, steps and timelines, controlling and problem-solving, etcetera) is co-opted in the literature by Bass (1985) in his description of transactional leadership and how it manages resources, uses contingent rewards and management by exception (1990). He also noted that transactional leadership is inferior to the transformational leadership that Burns (1978)

first posited by adding the charismatic, inspirational and consideration that leadership is characterized as being (Crawford, Brungardt, & Maughan, 2005).

Means for Discussion/Interaction

We intend to facilitate an open-ended discussion on this topic and utilize a series of questions to guide and direct the conversation:

- What questions, if any, have students posed regarding management in a leadership course?
- A student who is also enrolled in a management class saying that she has been taught that leadership is simply a subset of management skills and questions the relevance of your class. How would you respond?
- Bolman and Deal (2013) introduce the idea of framing and re-framing to more clearly understand and decipher organizational situations. Do you think this concept could be used to rethink pedagogical approaches in leadership, partially as they relate to the topic at hand?
- Do you have any ideas, perhaps in the form of allegories, analogies, or metaphors, which could be used to better help students understand the leadership-management relationship?
- What scholarly material would you suggest to a student who wanted to explore this issue in greater depth?

Forseeable Implications of Discussion

We suspect that participants will come from the round-table discussion witn a new appreciation of how we think about how management and leadership are connected. Since according to Yukl (1989) there is a controversy in the academe, this discussion should highlight that chasm and provide an opportunity to seek some sort of consensus. We expect attendees to come away with a deeper understanding of the disciplines that they can share with their students in the classroom. Another take-away might be to spark more academic writing on the subject.
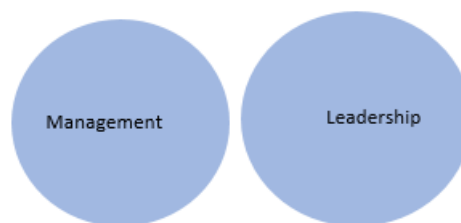

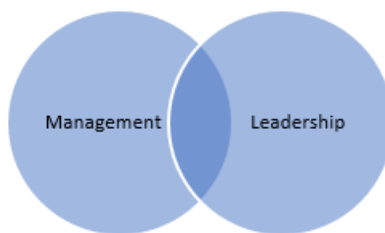Figure 1: Mintzberg Model (1973)

Figure 2: Kotter Model (2008)

Figure 3: Contemporary Model

Learning Objectives

- A more comprehensive understanding of the differences and similarities of leadership and management

- To be able to help leadership students identify their role as future leaders and their impact on followers

- To inspire future conversation and more research on the question of leadership versus management

- Increased confidence in the articulation of the historical perspectives of leadership and management

- To help students understand how leadership and management roles impact organizational outcomes

References

Bass, B. M. (1985). *Leadership and performance beyond expectations*. New York, NY: Free Press.

Bass, B. M., Avolio, B. J., & Pointon, J. (1990). *The implications of transactional and transformational leadership for individual, team, and organizational development*.

Bennis, W., & Nanus, B. (1985). The strategies for taking charge. *Leaders, New York: Harper. Row*.

Blake, R. R., & Mouton, J. S. (1964). *The new managerial grid: strategic new insights into a proven system for increasing organization productivity and individual effectiveness, plus a revealing examination of how your managerial style can affect your mental and physical health*: Gulf Pub. Co.

Bolman, L. G., & Deal, T. E. (2013). *Reframing Organizations (5th ed)*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Burns, J. (1978). Leadership, 1978. *New Yorker: Harper & Row*.

Crawford, C., Brungardt, C., & Maughan, M. (2005). Understanding leadership: Theory & concepts. Hoboken: NJ: John Wiley & Sons.

Gardner, J. W. (1990). *On leadership*. New York, NY: The Free Press.

Kotter, J. P. (2008). *Force for change: How leadership differs from management*: Simon and Schuster.

Mintzberg, H. (1973). *The nature of managerial work*. New York, NY: Harper & Row.

Rost, J. C. (1993). *Leadership for the twenty-first century*: Greenwood Publishing Group.

Yukl, G. (1989). Managerial leadership: A review of theory and research. *Journal of management, 15*(2), 251-289.

Zaleznik, A. (1977). Managers and leaders: Are they different. *Houston Police Department Leadership Journal*, 47-63.

Teaching Leadership at the Graduate Level:
Drawing Upon Our Complex World to Enhance Learning

Leah Georges & Jennifer Moss-Breen
Creighton University

Abstract

This roundtable discussion session is designed for those currently engaged with or interested in graduate leadership education. The conversation will offer the opportunity to discuss strategies to engage adult graduate learners and discover how to effectively make the transfer between teaching undergraduate leadership students to students at the graduate level. Because graduate students bring rich life experiences to the classroom, applying leadership concepts to students' own complex experiences creates a rich opportunity for learning and application. As the number and quality of graduate leadership programs continue to increase, graduate instructors and administrators will seek opportunities to share best practices and build a community of support around scholar practitioner leadership education. This roundtable discussion provides one such opportunity.

Introduction

This roundtable discussion session is designed for those currently engaged with or interested in graduate leadership education. Although the field of undergraduate leadership education is ripe with best practices, curriculum models, and published teaching techniques, the field of graduate leadership education is poised for a similar discussion. Leadership educators often work across program levels, yet the focus of extant research on leadership education has focused primarily on the undergraduate level.

Doctoral education in the United States has experienced a profound shift over the last several decades and one of the results has been a surge in novel graduate program initiatives and a mainstream acceptance of the scholar practitioner model of doctoral study (Boud & Tennant, 2006; Boyer, 1990). Consequently, graduate leadership programs have the opportunity and obligation to train industry leaders how to apply theoretical and academic knowledge to their respective fields of practice. What is less known, however, is *how* to best train these varied graduate leadership program students and how best practices and education models translate, or do not translate between undergraduate and graduate leadership programs. While fields such as business and nursing have begun the conversation concerning how to best train leaders. It is time for a broader conversation concerning leadership education at the graduate level (Friga, Bettis & Sullivan, 2003; Radzyminski, 2005).

Although the new and burgeoning field of graduate leadership education is in its relative infancy, the 2016 Association of Leadership Educators (ALE) provided an opportunity to discuss future paths towards providing graduate leadership teaching resources to administrators, faculty, and students. As a result of this 2016 conversation, the focus of graduate leadership education has become a priority for many. This roundtable discussion provides an additional opportunity to continue this conversation. Specifically, the objectives of this roundtable discussion are:

1. Discuss how (and whether) undergraduate leadership teaching strategies translate to graduate scholar practitioner students;
2. Provide an opportunity to share best practices in teaching graduate leadership students;
3. Introduce a tested model of graduate leadership education designed for graduate student scholar practitioners in an online leadership program

Background

A rich body of knowledge tells us that the adult scholar practitioner graduate student is qualitatively different than the typical undergraduate or nontraditional adult learner (Knowles, Holton, & Swanson, 2015). For this reason, leadership educators must consider how best to inspire and lead these students through a graduate academic program. In the late 1960s, Malcolm Knowles coined a new theory of education, distinguishing the adult learner from the typical adolescent or young adult learner. Andragogy, or "the art and science of helping adults learn" (Knowles, 1980, p. 43) sought to define and explain the needs of adult learners, distinct from the learning styles and motivations of the traditional student. Knowles defined five underlying concepts of the adult learner, specifically as someone who (1) has a unique and independent self-concept who can direct his or her own learning, (2) has a deep reservoir of life experiences, (3) has learning preferences and needs related to his or her changing social roles, (4) is interested in immediate application of new knowledge, and (5) has an internal rather than external motivation to learn (Knowles, 1980; Merriam, 2001). While best practices created with an undergraduate leadership population in mind may work beautifully in a traditional leadership program, they may not cleanly translate to a graduate leadership program model created with Knowles' andragogical principles in mind. This challenge illustrates the unique nature of graduate leadership education and the need for empirical and applied research about how best to serve these uniquely motivated students.

The practical challenges that graduate students encounter are also typically and qualitatively different from those students in undergraduate programs. For example, adult scholar practitioners offer a wide breadth and depth of knowledge and applied skills to the academic community and the students' respective fields. Although these students have a wealth of applied experience and capacity for graduate education, many scholar practitioner students lack the writing skills necessary for doctoral level scholarly work. As leadership educators, it is our duty and opportunity to train these seasoned professionals to articulate their work through a scholarly style of writing. A rich body of research tells us how to improve *undergraduate* student writing and research suggests that students need to write frequently and receive constructive feedback about their writing (Beaufort, 2007; Granello, 2001; Harris, 2006). However, what is not yet known is how best to apply these practices to graduate leadership programs to help students write in a scholarly tone (Glassick, Huber, & Maeroff, 1997).

Means for Discussion/Interaction

The roundtable conversation will include a facilitator-led discussion and provide an opportunity for participants to dialogue with others who are currently involved in leadership education at the masters or doctoral level. The following questions will guide the 45-minute conversation:

- What challenges do instructors experience in teaching graduate leadership students?
- What undergraduate leadership teaching strategies translate (or do not translate) to graduate leadership student classrooms (both online and in person)?
- What best practices have those in attendance found fruitful in the graduate leadership classroom?
- How can ALE (either through continued affinity groups or other programming) support graduate leadership teaching and learning?

The facilitator will also share some best practices from a scholarship of teaching and learning study about a specific leadership course in an online doctoral leadership program. The facilitator will also take notes and later disseminate them to attendees as requested.

Foreseeable Implications of Discussion

The aim of this roundtable discussion is to encourage instructors to consider the complex world in which we live and cultivate *graduate* learners, in addition to the traditional undergraduate learners, to model effective leadership skills and practice. As the number and quality of graduate leadership programs continue to increase, graduate instructors and administrators will seek opportunities to share best practices and build a community of support around scholar practitioner leadership education. This roundtable conversation provides one such opportunity.

This roundtable conversation will also equip participants with talking points, tangible tools, and teaching strategies the participants may use to modify their own graduate leadership program curricula. The facilitator is encouraged by Boyer (1991) and others' belief that graduate student scholarship is a dynamic process of discovery *and* application. As leadership educators, we have the opportunity to help our students learn and grow effectively within the academic arena, but also more effectively apply their knowledge to their field of practice. This roundtable conversation serves as an introduction about how best to accomplish these goals.

References

Beaufort, A. (2007). *College writing and beyond: A new framework for university writing instruction.* Logan, UT: Utah State University Press.

Boud, D., & Tennant, M. (2006). Putting doctoral education to work: Challenges to academic practice. *Higher Education Research & Development, 25,* 293-306. doi:10.1080/07294360600793093

Boyer, E. (1990). *Scholarship reconsidered: Priorities of the professoriate.* San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

Friga, P. N., Bettis, R. A., & Sullivan, R. S. (2003). Changes in graduate management education and new business school strategies for the 21st century. *Academy of Management Learning & Education, 2,* 233-249. doi: 10.5465/AMLE.2003.10932123

Glassick, C. E., Huber, M. T., & Maeroff, G. I. (1997). *Scholarship assessed: Evaluation of the professoriate*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

Granello, D. H. (2001). Promoting cognitive complexity in graduate written work: Using Bloom's Taxonomy as a pedagogical tool to improve literature reviews. *Counselor Education & Supervision, 40,* 292-307. doi: 10.1002/j.1556-6978.2001.tb01261.x

Harris, M. J. (2006). Three steps to teaching abstract and critique writing. *International Journal of Teaching and Learning in Higher Education, 17,* 136-146.

Knowles, M. (1980). *The modern practice of adult education.* New York, NY: Cambridge.

Knowles, M., Holton, E. F., & Swanson, R. A. (2015). *The adult learner: The definitive classic in adult education and human resource development.* New York, NY: Routledge.

Merriam, S. B. (2001) Andragogy and self-directed learning: Pillars of adult learning theory. *New Directions for Adult and Continuing Education, 89,* 3-13. doi: 10.1002/ace.3

Radzyminski, S. (2005). Advances in graduate nursing education: Beyond the advanced practice nurse. *Journal of Professional Nursing*, *21*, 119-125. doi: 10.1016/j.profnurs.2005.01.003

Moving Away from Management: Engaging in Difficult Campus Conversations

Maria Versteeg, Glorida Kerandi, & Ben Marcy
University of Minnesota

Abstract

Recently, a culturally charged incident concerning the 2016 Presidential election occurred at a large mid-western University creating tension within the student body. This roundtable will examine the incident as a case study and discuss the role of leadership educators in student empowerment related to divisive campus-wide events. Specifically, we will focus on how leadership educators can cultivate spaces for student-driven conversations so they are better prepared to engage in environments that are often polarizing, challenging and complex.

Introduction

In the fall of 2016, an incident in connection to the 2016 Presidential election occurred at a large mid-western University, which created tension within the student body. Every fall, registered student groups on this campus are given the opportunity to promote their organization on designated panels on University property. One student group promoted their organization by using a controversial slogan from the Presidential election. Within two days there were responses, including open demonstrations of students gathered around the panel, from several student organizations and individual students who found this slogan offensive. Subsequent incidents of vandalism on the designated panel and other student panels not initially involved in the controversy occurred. These incidents created a division within the student body and negatively impacted the climate of inclusion and community on this campus. Different constituents of the University community released responses of the events, including different levels of administration, faculty and staff. However, many of these responses were limited by the political nature of this incident. This roundtable will examine and explore these responses, as well as formulate best practices moving forward for identifying and creating dialogue around campus climate and social justice issues on University campuses.

Background

As leadership educators, we have the responsibility to help move conversations forward when divisive events occur on campus. Within a citizen-driven community model, leaders act as facilitators and conveners of citizens, not as a dominating voice in the dialogue (Block, 2009). This increases the feelings of ownership for the citizens and their willingness to commit to addressing and solving problems within their communities (Block, 2009). Our desire is to discuss how administrators, faculty, and staff can adopt this model of leadership and convene students, the citizens, to address such incidents in the future. We believe adopting these practices will increase levels of student engagement, and the students have more ability to create the conversations and cultures they feel are necessary and important.

As Universities increase in diversity, it becomes increasingly important that administrators, faculty, and staff address conversations regarding social justice. Dialogues addressing these

issues have become necessary in order for communities to maintain relevancy and stability. When addressing social change, the sequence of consciousness of self to collaboration is crucial (Astin & Astin, 1996). This means it is first necessary for a community member in the university to recognize the identities they have while holding a particular role (e.g. students, staff, faculty and administration). Then to begin to move to collaboration, one must recognize and appreciate the various different identities in a campus space in order to begin collaboration and social change (Astin & Astin, 1996). This challenges members of the University community to go beyond seeing others as their immediate role within the University (e.g. students, staff, faculty and administration). Collaboration instills a sense of citizenship and participatory responsibility in the members of the community (Astin & Astin, 1996). We believe that a university that has this strong sense of citizenship will have a culture that proactively prevents divisive and potentially alienating incidents from happening.

The effort to challenge traditional ideas of hierarchy and role within the university is a disconcerting one for many. Dismantling hierarchy and positions of power is critical for creating space for students to drive social justice conversations and take ownership for the social change they want to see on their campus, while still respecting, maintaining, and appreciating the diversity of thought that is seen within their community (Eisler, 2016; Block, 2009; Astin & Astin, 1996).

Means for Discussion/Interaction

Item	Description Outline	Resource	Time
Welcome	Explain parameters - lenses and roles Introduction of individuals present • What is your role within your University communities? What parameters or limitations do you feel come with that role? • Prior to introductions, pass out colored paper identifiers that correspond to the role the participant holds in the University. Ask them to hold this card during the first portion of the		2 min
First Frame of the Case	Packet given at this point. Participants will be guided through each handout in this packet. Background - Picture of the initial student group's promotional space prior to all reactionary incidents	Handout 1	1 min
Initial Individual Responses	What feelings surface for you when seeing a political slogan of this nature publically displayed on a University campus?		2 min

Second Frame of the Case	Responses from a neighboring student organization's promotional space, multicultural University department, and a cultural organization will be presented and the reactionary vandalism by an unidentified individual will be shown.	Handout 2	2 min
Responses Within Personal Contexts	Being aware of your role and capacity at your Universities, what feelings and thoughts are emerging for you when seeing the initial reaction from the student body as well as University faculty and organizations?		2 min
Third Frame of the Case	Formal responses from the student organization, as well as administration from the University will be presented. Video clips of a reactionary campus climate conversation that was held and a public protest organized by cultural organizations on campus will be shown.	Handout 3, Video Clips 1 & 2	2 min
Reactions	Is this what you expected? How are you reacting to the progression of events?		2 min
Fourth Frame of the Case	Another act of vandalism directed towards a student organization that has a strong cultural identity that followed shortly after the campus climate conversation will be shown.	Handout 4	1 min
Fifth Frame of the Case	Formal responses from a University administrator as well as the original student organization will be examined.	Handout 5	1 minute
Final Reactions	After seeing the entirety of this situation, what feelings do you have regarding this situation? Is this how you expected it to end?		2 min
Responding to Student Dialogue	• Have participants put away their role-identification card for the remainder of the roundtable. Student conversations are happening as administration and faculty are formulating formal responses, what is that effect? How do administration respond in a way that is formal, but also prompt and relevant?		10-13 min
Wrapping Up and Moving Forward	How do we enact change in times of controversy? How to we move from addressing and having dialogue about the issues to creating tangible changes to social injustices that need to be different?		12-15 min

Foreseeable Implications of Discussion

Recently, a culture of polarization and division has been growing in our world, and it is critical that our conversations and actions adapt to fit this new emerging culture. Social justice and campus climate is essential to fostering community and creating learning environments conducive to academic and personal growth for students. Knowing how to best cultivate student leadership and empower students to create dialogue regarding these controversial topics is crucial in a world that is constantly changing and rich in complexity.

References

Astin, H.S., & Astin, A. W. (1996) *A Social Change Model of Leadership Development Guidebook, Version III*. College Park, MD: National Clearinghouse for Leadership Programs

Block, P. (2009) *Community: The Structure of Belonging*. San Francisco, CA: Berrett-Koehler Publishers, Inc.

Eisler, R. (2016). Reframing Organizational and Social Change: From Domination to Partnership. In K. G. Schuyler, J. E. Baugher, & K. Jironet (Eds.), *Creative Social Change: Leadership for a Healthy World* (101-118). Bingley, UK: Emerald Group Publishing Ltd.

Educational Leadership through Differentiation: Responsive Teaching for a Complex World

Maude Yacapsin
Messiah College

Abstract

This research reviews faculty self-reports regarding educational leadership for differentiation as it relates to responsive teaching in higher education coursework. It highlights results from data collected via a brief, synchronous, non-binding, survey administered to leadership educators. The survey included questions regarding the number and type of activities utilized in college coursework and the manner by which these activities addressed the complex needs of all learners. Faculty, regardless of content area or discipline, completed the survey. Participants had the opportunity to discuss methods by which differentiation occurred within an activity, assignment or course, based on researched instructional strategies and best practices.

Introduction (including learner/participant objectives)

In higher education settings, there has been a focus on widening participation of people from diverse cultural and socio-economic backgrounds (David, 2009). Research shows educational, purposeful, interaction between diverse groups of college students relates to personal growth and development, vocational preparation, intellectual development and diversity competence regardless of academic, cultural or religious affiliation (Hu & Kuh, 2003). The data presented in both past and current research describes the need for differentiation in higher education. Scholars such as Astin (1993) suggest affective learning is most influenced by classroom interactions; those which flourish in a strong community environment. Differentiation, based on prevalent, psycho-educational foundations, highlights constructs evident in culturally responsive teaching practice. Differentiation promotes a participatory, collective learning environment among students from varying cultural backgrounds in the college classroom (Yacapsin, 2013).

Learner/Participant objectives:
By the end of the roundtable session, participants will have:
- An enhanced understanding of differentiation in higher education through presentation and discussion
- Completed a self-report regarding differentiated activities in their coursework
- Selected a course or course activity to evaluate (via checklist provided) for differentiation/addressing learner needs

Background (including connection to leadership literature/theory)

To be effective in classrooms, professors must relate teaching content to the academic, social and cultural backgrounds of their students. According to the research, teaching that ignores student norms of behavior and communication provokes student resistance, while teaching that is responsive prompts student involvement (Olneck, 1995). There is growing evidence that strong, continual engagement among diverse students requires a holistic approach. That is, an approach

where the how, what, and why of teaching are unified and meaningful (Ogbu, 1995). This directly relates to educational leadership as educators answer the call to embrace multiple viewpoints, cultures and leadership theory when teaching.

For example, most educators exhibit transformational leadership qualities. Whether they are selected for a formal or an informal leadership role, effective educational leaders exhibit important skills, values, and dispositions (Danielson, 2006). Edicational leaders call others to action and energize colleagues with the aim of improving teaching and learning (Danielson, 2006). In addition, Michael Fullan (2007) writes, "the litmus test of all leadership is whether it mobilizes people's commitment to putting their energy into actions designed to improve things; it is individual commitment, but above all it is collective mobilization" (p. 9).

Differentiating instructional elements based on student characteristics increases the likelihood that students earn as much as possible as efficiently as possible and allows the educator to recognize individual differences (Sprenger, 2003; Tomlinson, 2004, 2005). This promotes successful establishment and maintenance of professional mentorships students seek and establish with professors (Goldstein, 1999; Kanevsky & Keighley, 2003; Levykh, 2008; Forsten & Hollas, 2002).

Means for Discussion/Interaction

The following list of activities/prompts support the objectives for the Roundtable discussion:
- Brief survey distributed.
- Provide demographic facts about your institution.
  Does your institution have a strong teaching and learning community? How is that evidenced (program, committee)?

Data presented to facilitate and support discussion:
- Average age of today's college student.
  Increase in cultural diversity on campus (by observation or college quick facts).
- Flexible grouping to support discussion:
  Group faculty/staff members in to groups according to institutional size, type, etc…
- Evaluate and discuss course activities for differentiation (content, process, product).

Foreseeable Implications of Discussion

It is typical that college faculty are experts in a single discipline such as Chemistry, Literature or Music Theory, for example. As experts in their said field, academicians must remain abreast of new information directly affecting their discipline. Differentiation requires training and access to supports to which faculty may be unaccustomed. Access to faculty supports are limited on some campuses as is time to implement changes perceived as having little consequence, short-term. Educational leaders must stress the importance of differentiation for the long-term as student demographics continue to change the face and body of higher education. Although differentiation is essential for longevity, higher education leaders need to guide colleagues through limitations affecting the ability to serve students. These may include:

- Access to and support for instructional technologies, distance education
- Access to faculty development
- Opposing viewpoints
- Time to modify, enhance curriculum
- Prohibitive state, federal or institutional regulations
- Institutional culture

References

Astin, A. W. (1993). *What matters in college? Four critical years revisited*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

David, M. (2009). Social diversity and democracy in higher education in the 21st century: Towards a feminist critique. *Higher Education Policy, 22*, 61-79.

Forsten, C., & Hollas, B. (2002). *Differentiated instruction: different strategies for different learners*. Peterborough, NH: Crystal Springs Books.

Fullan, M. (2007). *Leading in a culture of change* (rev. ed.). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Goldstein, L. S. (1999). The relational zone: The role of caring relationships in the co-construction of mind. *American Educational Research Journal, 36*, 647-673.

Hu, L., & Kuh, G. D. (2003). Diversity experiences and college student learning and personal development. *Journal of College Student Development, 44*, 320–344.

Kanevsky, L., & Keighley, T. (2003). To produce or not to produce: Understanding boredom and the honor in underachievement. *Roeper Review, 26*, 20-28.

Levykh, M. G. (2008). The affective establishment and maintenance of Vygotsky's zone of proximal development. *Educational Theory, 58*, 83-101.

Ogbu, J. U. (1995). Understanding cultural diversity and learning, in *Handbook of Research on Multicultural Education*, edited by J. A. Banks and C. A. M. Banks. New York, NY. Macmillan.

Olneck, M. R. (1995). Immigrants and education, in *Handbook of Research on Multicultural Education*, edited by J. A. Banks and C. A. M. Banks. New York, NY: Macmillan.
Sprenger, M. (2003). *Differentiation through learning styles and memory*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin.

Tomlinson, C. (2004). Point/Counterpoint: Sharing responsibility for differentiating instruction. *Roeper Review, 26*, 188-189.

Tomlinson, C. (2005). Traveling the road to differentiation in staff development. *National Staff Development Council, 26*(4), 8-12.

Yacapsin, M. (2013). Faith: A new component in differentiated instruction. *Christian Perspectives in Education*, *6*(1). Retrieved from http://digitalcommons.liberty.edu/cpe/vol6/iss1/2

Appendix

Roundtable discussion prompt: A brief survey on differentiation in coursework

Title of Course and Department.

Activity(ies)/assignment(s) (please list).

For the following, check all that apply.

Content Differentiation
In this course, students have access to:
- o Materials prior to class (readings, assignments, syllabus, texts)
- o Graphic organizers
- o Materials in electronic format (lectures, handouts)
- o Varied print materials (enlarged print, braille)
- o Mini-lessons or lecture bursts
- o Peer collaboration opportunities
- o Note-takers or scribes
- o Mentors (faculty or professional community)
- o Audio/video recorders, recordings

Process Differentiation
In this course, students are able to:
- o Read materials (via textbook, articles, handouts, electronic documents)
- o See materials (via classroom screen, computer, overhead, devices)
- o Work with materials (via hands-on activities, peer teaching, writing, manipulatives, apps, devices)

Product Differentiation
In this course, all students are assessed by the same:
- o Paper
- o Oral report/presentation
- o Test(s)
- o Quiz(es)
- o Case study
- o Technology platform (webpage, Twitter feed, Google slides, App)
- o A combination of the activities above
- o Other _____

Project Youth Extension Service (YES) Virtual Mentorship Program

Cameron Rutledge, M.A., James C. Johnson, MBA, Myra. G. Moses, Ph.D.,
& Harriett C. Edwards, Ed.D.
North Carolina State University

Abstract

The purpose of this roundtable session is to explore the Project Youth Extension Service (YES) virtual mentorship program. This versatile, innovative program provides college interns access to high quality talent development opportunities, exposure to a wide array of seasoned professionals, enhanced learning networks, and experiential learning activities.

Introduction

This session will examine the Project Youth Extension Service (YES) virtual mentorship program. Project YES is a national internship program that trains college interns from around the country to work with youth in military families who are impacted by military deployments. Project YES is a member of the Department of Defense-US Department of Agriculture Military Partnership program and is facilitated through North Carolina State University. The program has two primary goals: 1) to serve as a professional development opportunity for college interns, and 2) to serve children and youth of military families impacted by deployments or other military-required separation.

An integral element of the internship is the requirement to complete a career-broadening project. Each intern works under the guidance of a mentor. The project takes place over an eight-month period and provides Project YES interns an opportunity to create a personalized project that correlates with their career interest. The interns also can select a mentor of their choice to help guide them through their project. Since Project YES is a national program with both interns and mentors located throughout the nation, the mentor project is largely conducted through virtual means. Face-to-face instruction between Project YES staff and interns occur during summer and fall orientation training sessions.

Discussions will focus on two primary learning objectives:

- Participants will be able to identify effective methods for implementing or enhancing a mentoring program in their organization.

- Participants will be able to identify barriers for implementing or enhancing a mentoring program in their organization.

Background (including connection to leadership literature/theory)

Sinclair (2007) proposed critical, experiential work requires challenging a student's way of thinking about leadership. The concepts of leadership and mentorship are often linked in professional development discussions. Evidence indicates leadership programs with an inclusive

mentor element provide positive professional outcomes (McKim & Velez, 2017). The National Leadership Education Research Agenda further propends "... leadership theory and research is inclusive of both curricular and co-curricular educational contexts" (Andenoro et al., 2013, p.3).

The requirement to complete a career-broadening project has served as a building block of the Project YES internship. The inclusion of an experiential, focused project immediately provided a means to maximize leadership experiences and provide a coherent, focused approach towards intern professional development was built into the initial program structure.

At the start of the mentor project interns receive a mentor guide which serves as the overarching guide for both interns and mentors. The guide outlines the scope and expectations of the project and a timeline to identify key dates throughout the mentor project. Upon receiving the guide and timelines, interns are led in a series of interactive sessions that include an overview of the mentor project, general requirements, project selection and design, mentor selection guidelines. Once matched, interns and mentors conduct monthly meetings to discuss pre-determined professional development topics (such as networking, resume' writing, and so forth) as well as more specific project-centric topics.

Since Project YES interns are not centrally located at [NAME] University, the Project YES mentor project manager coordinates intern and mentor communications, training, and coaching through a virtual communication network. The network includes a combination of online networking, monthly team calls, on-line progress reports, and pre-coordinated status checks. The process provides an opportunity to pro-actively engage with interns and mentors and to build a social capital network that serves to enhance the larger human and communication network (Cohen & Prusak, 2001; VanDerLinden, 2005).

Another way that we stay informed about each intern's project, and keep the interns accountable, is to have them submit progress forms throughout the duration of their mentor project. These forms vary based on where the intern is at in their project, but generally asks for the interns provide an overview of each intern's project, share the successes and roadblocks that each intern is facing and helps the interns to identify the next steps in their project.

The mentor project culminates with the interns presenting their projects to the Project YES group via an online platform. The presentations provide an overview of the mentor project to include a project description, learning objectives, project implementation process and a summary of any successes and roadblocks. White and Guthrie (2016) posit learning is generated not from the leadership experience itself but instead from the reflection following the activity. To ensure true learning opportunities are not missed, interns also complete a written reflection paper to maximize the learning opportunities inclusive in the project. The entire project is maintained via an e-portfolio platform.

Means for Discussion/Interaction

Session Overview:
Introduction of Participants and their interest in the topic (5 minutes)

The discussion will begin with a brief introduction of the roundtable session followed by an introduction of facilitators and program staff. Roundtable participants will then be offered an opportunity to briefly introduce themselves and to share their expectations of the session. This will allow facilitators to tailor discussions to best address participant interests and questions.

Background of Project YES and Mentor Project Process (10 minutes)
Following the introductions, the facilitators will provide background information regarding Project YES and the mentoring program. This background information will include the origins of the mentor project and the current process guiding the mentor project. Discussions will highlight the virtual mentorship process that serves as the over-arching program model. Topics will include mentor identification and qualifications, project timelines, and support materials. This section will transition We will also discuss how we run a mentor program through primarily virtual means and the highlights and roadblocks that have presented themselves with such a program.

Adaptation and changes to the project throughout the years (10 minutes)
The closing segment will present the successes and challenges of leading a virtual mentor program. The discussion will conclude with a brief discussion regarding program changes and anticipated adaptations.

Group Discussion (20 minutes)
Below are a list of sample questions that will be used to facilitate discussion.
- Are there any questions or clarification that is needed about this process?
- Has anyone done a similar program? If so, in what context?
    - What has worked? What roadblocks did you face?
- What ways could a program like this be improved?
- In what way is mentoring used in your organization?
    - How effective has it been?

Foreseeable Implications for the Future

Virtual mentoring provides increased access to diverse resources and professionals (Knouse, 2001) and provides enhanced accessibility to resources that may otherwise be unavailable in traditional mentoring structures. As public, private, and educational institutions continue adapting to global economies, professionals can expect to operate in an increasingly virtual environment. The comprehensive benefits of the Project YES virtual mentorship program provide first-hand experience with techniques, strategies, and processes effective in creating a virtual program that stimulates learning, engagement, and accountability.

Today's workforce continues trending towards virtual teams and workplaces. With the technological advances introduced over the past 10 years, co-worker communication and workplace projects are increasingly conducted with minimal face-to-face interaction. The Project YES mentor project has been conducting a successful virtual mentorship program for the past six years and has positively positioned interns with matching skills necessary for a successful transition.

References

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

Cohen, D., & Prusak, L. (2001). *In good company: How social capital makes organizations work.* Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Press.

Knouse, S. B. (2001). Virtual mentors: Mentoring on the internet. *Journal of Employment Counseling, 38*(4), 162-169. Retrieved from http:// proxying.lib.ncsu.edu/ index.php?url=http://search.proquest.com.prox.lib.ncsu.edu/ docview/ 237022467?accountid=12725

McKim, A.J., Velez, J.J. (2017). Informing leadership education by connecting curricular experiences and leadership outcomes, *Journal of Leadership Education 16*/(1), 81-95. doi 1012806/V16/I1/R6

Sinclair, A. (2007). Teaching leadership critically to MBAs: Experiences from heaven and hell. *Management Learning, 38*(4), 458-472. Sage Publications, Los Angeles London, New Delhi and Singapore.

VanDerLinden, K.E.. (2005). Learning to play the game: Professional development and mentoring, *Community College Journal of Research and Practice,* 29(9), 729-743. doi 10.1080/10668920591006575

White, J.V., & Guthrie, K.L. (2016). Creating a meaningful learning environment: Reflection leadership education, *Journal of Leadership Education, 85*(1), 60-75.

Innovating Leadership Programs that Develop Leaders: Addressing the Gap between Leadership Education and Leaders' Needs

Sky Georges, Benjamin Morris, & Madeline Grace Black
University of Florida

Abstract

Across the globe, organizations are investing in developing their leaders – allocating substantial resources to leadership development programs. It is estimated leadership development is a $14 billion industry. Yet, there is evidence to suggest leadership programs are ineffective and do not make do on promises to build human capital and develop leaders. Developing a generation of leaders who will be equipped to address the wicked problems will require leadership educators and scholars to address the gap between leadership development programs and leaders' needs. This roundtable will discuss strategies for more impactful leadership education.

Introduction

Developing a generation of leaders who will be equipped to address today's, as well as, the future's wicked problems will require leadership educators to address the gaps in leadership develop programs. Ardichvili, Natt och Dag, and Manderscheid (2016) claimed many organizations around the world allocate a majority of their training and development funds to leadership development programs. Loew and O'Leonoard (2012) asserted leadership development is a $14 billion industry in the in the United States. A report that studied 300 U.S. based companies showed they spent approximately 35% of training budgets on leadership programs and showed an increase in programs after a programmatic decline in the early 2000s (Bersin by Deloitte, 2014). However, there is empirical evidence to suggest leadership development is not having the impact organization leaders desire (Ardichvili et al., 2016). Rowland (2016) argued that the current methods used to develop leaders is "antithetical to the type of leadership we need (para.1). Given the resources organizations are investing in developing their leaders, leadership academics and educators have a responsibility to address the gaps and offer more innovative and fitting approaches to leadership development. So this begs the question, what can leadership educators and scholars do to address the mismatch between leadership education and what leaders need to address today's complex issues?

By acknowledging there is a gap in leadership education, scholars and educators have a real opportunity to come together and find solutions. For leadership development to have the impact stakeholders want, educators and scholars must catch-up and keep-up with the current trends in organizational practices. Rowland (2016) suggest educators focus on leaders' "being," as well as their "doing" (para. 2). Leadership education must be contextualized and experiential, allowing participants to visualize themselves in their roles as leaders. Participants of this roundtable will contribute to: (1) understanding the gaps in leadership education; (2) identifying how leadership education can renovate to meet the needs of leaders; and (3) discussing new trends in leadership development that are showing greater impact.

Background

Leadership education, out of context, does not work (Faris and Perry, 2011). Rowland (2016) suggests that at the heart of good, practical leadership development there are four factors: (1) experiential learning; (2) a focus on participant's being as well as their doing; (3) systematically contextualized leadership; and (4) faculty who act as Sherpas instead of experts. Leadership development through experience will evoke emotions, and it is then when our emotional circuits in our brain are firing that we learn and retain the most information, leading to changed behavior. In today's society, where organizations and individuals have little time and even fewer financial resources to spend on expensive, yet ineffective leadership programs, we as leadership educators need to recreate leadership training to increase the participants return on investment, as well as, create more effective leaders. It is only recently that experiential leadership training has become a popular tool for developing leaders (Volz-Peacock, Carson, & Marquardt, 2016). The reason behind this popularity could be from the social and interpersonal aspects of the experiential learning. However, there are opportunities to further the research around experiential leadership development, and we hope to discover those opportunities through our discussion.

Means for Discussion/Interaction

The discussion will begin by asking participants to talk about the impact they believe leadership education has. Participants will then be asked to define experiential leadership. The definitions given will aid in giving participants common ground for dialogue. The facilitators will then address the challenges to designing and implementing experiential leadership, and how this could impact the future of leadership programs. The discussion on the challenges will help provide context for discussing the steps for potential solutions. Participants will then be asked to think about ways leadership education can be more contextualized – related to the work leaders are engaged in – and experiential. In addition, participants will explore the idea of bringing attention to leaders' "being" in leadership education. The discussion will be concluded by asking participants whether or not they feel experiential leadership programs that are contextualized in leaders' experiences, focuses on "doing" and "being" can help cultivate leadership education in today's complex world.

Foreseeable Implications for Discussion

Addressing the mismatch between leadership education and leaders' needs will change the way we, leadership scholars and educators, create programs that enable leaders to tackle wicked issues. Cultivating leadership for a complex world requires practitioners and scholars wrestle with this issue and find innovative solutions. Leadership educators have an obligation to stakeholders – leaders, organizations, and institutions – to create intentional and practical leadership programs that will positively impact leaders' behaviors. There is a real opportunity to reflect on how the field of leadership education has been implementing leadership development programs, identify the gaps, and address them. In order to prepare leaders, given our wicked issues in the U.S. and around the globe, this discussion is a necessity.

References

Ardichvili, A., Natt och Dag, K., & Manderscheid, S. (2016). Leadership development: Current and emerging models and practices. Advances in Developing Human Resources, 18(3), 275-285. doi:10.1177/1523422316645506

Bersin by Deloitte. (2014, January). The corporate learning Factbook® 2014: Benchmarks, trends and analysis of the U.S. training market (Bersin & Associates Factbook Report). Retrieved from http://marketing.bersin.com/corporate-learning-factbook-2014.html Google Scholar

Faris, N., & Parry, K. (2011). Islamic organizational leadership within a western society: The problematic role of external context. The Leadership Quarterly, 22(1), 132-151. doi:10.1016/j.leaqua.2010.12.012

Loew L., O'Leonard K. (2012). Leadership development fact book 2012: Benchmarks and trends in U.S. leadership development, Bersin by Deloitte report. Oakland, CA: Bersin by Deloitte. Google Scholar

Rowland, D. (October, 2016). Why leadership development isn't developing leaders. Harvard Business Review. Retrieved from https://hbr.org/2016/10/why-leadership-development-isnt-developing-leaders

Volz-Peacock, Mary, B. C. (2016, April 29). Action Learning and Leadership Development. Advances in Developing Human Resources, 318-333.