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Improving the Candidacy Process in an Ed.D. in Interdisciplinary Leadership Program: An Educator Workshop

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Abstract

The Ed.D. in Interdisciplinary Leadership Program at a Midwestern university is working to improve the programs' candidacy process. Passing candidacy is a requirement in the program. To pass candidacy students must demonstrate graduate-level writing skills, higher-order thinking skills, and an ability to apply their knowledge to address complex, real-world problems. Candidacy is an opportunity for students to demonstrate their preparedness to complete the dissertation phase of the program. In the past, the programs' candidacy process was an assessment of the student's attainment of the programs' learning outcomes up to that point in the program. Recently the core faculty within the program identified an opportunity for the candidacy process to be an assessment *for* learning for both faculty and students rather than strictly an assessment *of* learning. The purpose of this educator workshop is to provide the opportunity for attendees to actively participate in a rubric exercise and dialogue process. The faculty of the Ed.D. Program used this same process to reform their candidacy process. Attendees will be provided the opportunity to (1) practice using a rubric to assess students' graduate-level writing, critical thinking skills, and knowledge translation, (2) examine the usefulness of a rubric exercise and discussion framework as a guide to continuous improvement in candidacy assessment processes, and (3) share in a dialogue with others interested in candidacy processes, the use of rubrics, and/or the role of assessment for learning in leadership development. Faculty in undergraduate, master's, and doctoral level programs can use their learning from the workshop experience to create action plans and learning protocols for their capstone, candidacy, or other qualifying exercises processes to help both students and faculty to learn and grow.

Introduction

While the example that follows focuses on what an essay-based candidacy process in this particular Ed.D. in Interdisciplinary Leadership Program looks like, it is an idea with potential for leadership programs at both the undergraduate and graduate level (e.g., senior or master's degree capstone projects could also follow this model). The two aims of this educator workshop are to: (1) share with other leadership educators some ideas on how to initiate continuous improvement initiatives in their programs, and (2) share with educators some lessons on the use of rubrics or qualifying exercises that require additional consideration when working on these assessment elements. We attribute part of our interest in proposing this workshop to a need to evaluate our own progress as an evolving narrative. We hope that by sharing this workshop you might learn from our experience and, by sharing our experience, we might find allies and hear from other leadership educators about their experiences as we learn together to engage in continuous improvement processes to strengthen leadership education.

The Ed.D. in Interdisciplinary Leadership Program at our Midwestern university was founded in 2011 with a class of 16 students. Since its inception the program has grown to approximately 300 students from 49 states and 10 countries. Students progress through the fully online program

taking courses for the first two years of the program. After completing 32 hours of coursework students must complete and pass candidacy to advance to the dissertation phase of the program. Candidacy is the mechanism by which students demonstrate their familiarity with scholarly works important in the field and their capabilities to explain and connect, in written form, this knowledge to generate new ideas (Riviere, 2016). Previously candidacy was completed by students in our program using an e-portfolio. The e-Portfolio was made up of documents the student had prepared during the previous semesters of coursework. The student selected what s/he believed provided evidence of meeting the program learning outcomes and packaged the evidence to be presented on an online platform.

Recently the core faculty in the program identified an opportunity for the candidacy process to be shifted from what Boud and Soler (2016) call an assessment *of* learning to an assessment *for* learning for both faculty and students. The core faculty in the program initiated the development of a new candidacy process in August of 2016. The shift to a new candidacy process is part of an effort to ensure the program keeps students at the center of all learning experiences and to ensure the pursuit and achievement of candidacy status informs students and faculty about what Riviere (2016) suggests is important at this stage, i.e., whether a student is qualified to proceed with a dissertation. This educator workshop will (a) identify the background and need for programs to periodically engage in rigorous self-study and reform of program benchmarks, (b) outline the key activities attendees will engage in during the facilitated session, (c) discuss key results from our utilization-focused evaluation project that examined the development of our program's new candidacy process, and (d) describe what attendees could expect to gain from attending this session.

This educator workshop will be composed of four main efforts and will seek to achieve three goals. Attendees will be guided by the presenters/facilitators through a four-phase sequence of storytelling, active participation, group discussion, and summarizing activities. By the end of the session, attendees will have (1) practiced using a rubric to assess students' graduate-level writing, critical thinking skills, and knowledge translation, (2) examined the usefulness of a rubric exercise and discussion framework as a guide to continuous improvement in candidacy assessment processes, and (3) shared in a dialogue with others interested in candidacy processes, the use of rubrics, and/or the role of assessment for learning in leadership development.

Review of Related Scholarship

The purpose of candidacy processes, also called comprehensive exams or qualifying exercises, is to provide each student with the opportunity to signal to the core faculty of their respective program that they are a steward of the discipline (Riviere, 2016). Graduate students who pass candidacy demonstrate high levels of accomplishment in their abilities to conserve the most important ideas and findings from past and current scholarly works and transform the knowledge generated and conserved by others to help explain and connect it to new ideas that will help address the complex real-world problems facing society today (Riviere, 2016). The goal of the candidacy process is to provide feedback to both the student and the program faculty. This feedback can be used by students to continue to improve their graduate-level writing skills, higher-order thinking skills, and ability to apply their knowledge to address real-world problems. Faculty can use the feedback to adjust ongoing teaching and learning practices and to improve

students' achievement of intellectual development, critical thinking, knowledge translation, and communication capacities that are needed for success in their professional careers.

There are many types of qualifying exercises that can be used by graduate programs. As Riviere (2016) suggests, whichever type of exercise is used the important thing is that "faculty can come to meaningful agreement on the learning goals, assessment criteria, and the validity and reliability of the assessment process" (p. 250). Concerns about the preparedness of graduates to become active participants in the transformation of their societies have fueled the call for public accountability of the overall quality of preparation and training programs. Therefore, reforms have taken place within programs to provide evidence of the impact of program activities on improved student learning (Tucker & Uline, 2015). Many programs have focused on aligning assessment frameworks with practices that highlight the importance of assessment and feedback as central to understanding student development through the program (Darling-Hammond, Meyerson, LaPointe, & Orr, 2010). As Tucker & Uline (2015) suggest, programs can distinguish themselves by paying more attention to assessment. But as Riviere (2016) reminds us "there is no need to re-invent the wheel when it comes to assessment" (p. 250).

Based on this background, there is a critical need for programs to periodically engage in rigorous self-study and reform program benchmarks to keep pace with what is known to influence student learning. The tests and measurements we choose to use in trying to assess learning, influence learning itself (Thomas, 2013). The rubrics used within academic settings to provide consistency when evaluating student work can serve multiple purposes not only for the student, but for the faculty as well (Jonsson & Svingby, 2007). Using rubrics provides more consistent descriptions of students' abilities than other types of evaluations, especially when multiple reviewers are involved. Additionally, rubrics consist of a set of criteria that reflect the aspects of student work that are of interest to the program. Therefore, rubrics can both promote learning and improve instruction because rubrics make expectations and criteria explicit, and they facilitate feedback and self-assessment of faculty/program instruction (Jonsson & Svingby, 2007).

Discussion of Process & Results

Every student in the Ed.D. in Interdisciplinary Leadership Program must pass candidacy to progress to the dissertation phase of the program. In February of 2017 the program adopted a new candidacy process, which shifted the process from a collection of artifacts from the students' time in the program presented as an e-portfolio to the writing of two original five-page essays, one essay in the category of self-reflection and one essay in the category of theory application. The aim of the assessment study was to examine the new candidacy process and determine the reliability of the rubric used to review the candidacy submissions.

The research was designed as a naturalistic experiment to explore how the changes to the processes affected the faculty and students involved in the process. At the time of the study the faculty group consisted of five core faculty members. Students fulfilling their candidacy requirement wrote two five-page essays in response to the candidacy scenario/question prompts provided to them during their 14-day writing period. The candidacy scenario/question prompts ask students to formulate responses to complex, real-world problems using appropriate leadership theories, reflective practices, and appropriate evidence. Each set of student essays

were reviewed and evaluated by two core faculty members. The faculty members conducted independent scoring on the essays with the aid of a five-criteria rubric.

The rubric is designed to aid the evaluator in assessing the students' abilities to meet expectations related to graduate-level writing, higher-order thinking, and knowledge translation skills (see Appendix A for a copy of the rubric). The review criteria are each scored on a 1 (does not meet expectations) to 4 (exceeds expectations) scale. Assigning partial points is allowed. For each student, an average score is calculated from the individual scores on the five criteria. If the average score is above 2.5 for both reviewers the student receives a pass. If the score for either of the two reviewers is 2.49 or below the student does not pass and is given the scores and the written feedback from the reviewers and informed of their opportunity to complete a second attempt. The same two reviewers re-review the second attempt essays. This has been the policy since the beginning of the program existence in 2011.

After six months of using the new candidacy process the faculty met to conduct a rubric exercise and discuss their experience with the new process. A snapshot of how many students have attempted and completed candidacy in the Interdisciplinary Ed.D. Program in Leadership, and how the different core faculty in the program have scored students' candidacy attempts, was presented at the beginning of the meeting. The descriptive data indicated that from February 2017 to July 2017 there were 51 students who were evaluated using the essay process. During the previous e-portfolio process around 76% of students passed on their first attempt and 94% of students passed on their second attempt. With the new essay process 64% of students passed on their first attempt and 82% passed on their second attempt. Therefore, in that six-month study period a total of 115 candidacy essay reviews were conducted by faculty. As seen in Table 1, the candidacy reviews were approximately equally spread among the five core faculty members.

Table 1.

Candidacy reviews completed by the five core faculty reviewers

	Reviewer					
Process	One	Two	Three	Four	Five	Total
Essay	22	25	21	25	22	115

To determine whether the rubric provided consistency across reviewers we examined the scores for each reviewer. Faculty rater reliability was estimated by running a one-way ANOVA to compare reviewers aggregate scores on the candidacy essays they had reviewed over the six-month period. There was a significant difference between the reviewers on how they scored the candidacy attempts at the $p<.05$ level [$F(4, 93) = 7.29$, $p = .01$]. To further explore the statistically significant ANOVA result, a post hoc Tukey test was computed. This test is designed to compare each of the reviewers to every other reviewer. Of the ten comparisons two were statistically significant. Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for reviewer four was significantly different than reviewer one and three. The remaining comparisons revealed no significant differences. Reviewer two and five did not significantly differ from any of the other reviewers and reviewer one did not differ from reviewer three (see Figure 1 for a visual representation of the reviewers scoring trends for each rubric criteria). These results informed the need for program faculty to dialogue about their interpretations and use of rubrics in the evaluation of candidacy essays.

Qualitative data from the rubric exercise and focus group discussion revealed that raters where able to complete their reviews of the essays quicker and more thoroughly than they had been able to do with the old candidacy e-portfolio process. Discussion of the intended purpose of candidacy for the students and for faculty revealed some disparate expectations among the faculty. Identification of these differences led to a lengthy and in-depth discussion among faculty about what the purpose of candidacy is for the program. The qualitative data gathered during the rubric exercise also led to discussions about the central topics of fairness, task authenticity, and what success for candidacy looks like for a student and for the program.

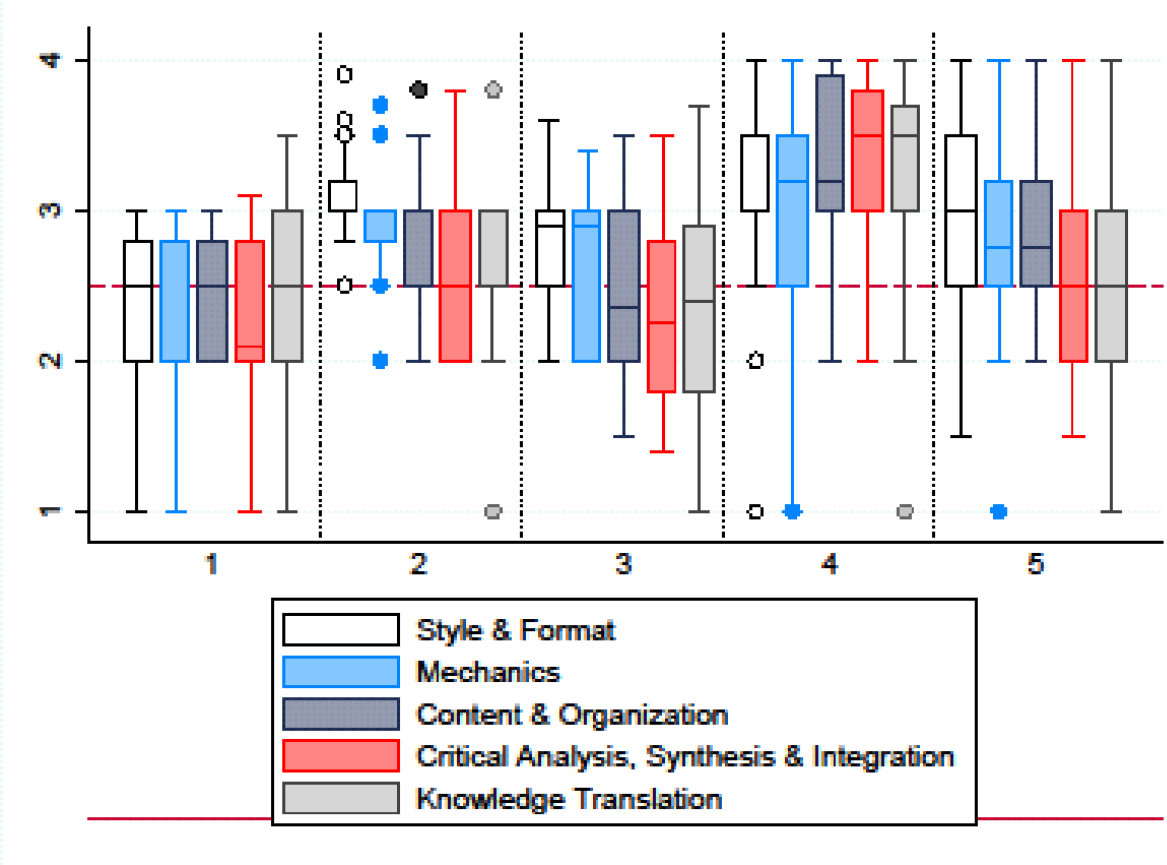

Figure 1. Box plots of average scores for each reviewer by rubric criteria for essay process (1st attempts only)

Taken together, these results suggest the rubrics were not consistently applied across all reviewers. However, faculty were willing to engage in a continuous improvement process to adjust the process as needed to best serve the students. Results of the study found the faculty prefer the new essay candidacy process over the e-portfolio process because the essay process (1) evaluates the students current ability to synthesize and apply what they have learned, (2) assesses the development of the student, (3) provides an opportunity for faculty to evaluate if a student can accept feedback, (3) shows whether the student can accept ambiguity, (4) helps instill and evaluate student humility, (5) gives the program benchmark data about student learning and progress, and (6) is not as time intensive as the previous candidacy process for the faculty. Continued analysis of the data will help faculty make decisions about further adaptations to the candidacy process and help faculty continue to learn and grow in their use of rubrics. It is

recommended that faculty meet regularly on the topic of candidacy to continue the dialogue about the clarity of candidacy scenarios/question prompts, rubric understanding and reliability, and transparency and accountability of program policies related to candidacy.

Workshop Plan & Implications

The objective in this AEA educator workshop session is to take stock of the budding literature on assessment for learning, propose and practice a useful method for using rubrics in the candidacy process of a doctoral-level leadership program, and share in a dialogue. This breakout workshop session will seek to achieve three main objectives. By the end of the session, attendees will (1) strengthen their comprehension of rubrics, (2) examine the usefulness of a rubric exercise and discussion framework as a guide to continuous improvement in doctoral-level candidacy processes, and (3) share in a dialogue with others. The presenter/facilitator will use three approaches (storytelling, active participation, and group discussion) to guide attendees through a productive, focused, and engaging four-phase session.

We will begin the first phase of the session by identifying the scholarly, policy, and practical reasons leadership developers should be concerned with assessment for learning and the use of rubrics. In the second phase of the session attendees will be invited to engage in a group discussion to make the case that, for the most part, we can recognize that appropriate, rigorous assessment can do important work. Attendees will participate in a rubric exercise and discussion in the third phase of the session to experience how this framework can be applied as a guide to continuous improvement in doctoral program candidacy. This process has been used by the faculty in the Ed.D. in Interdisciplinary Leadership Program at a Midwestern university to capture ideas and insights that helped them answer questions about developing and maintaining a challenging and trustworthy doctoral-level candidacy process. Finally, in the fourth phase of the session the group will turn what was shared and discussed during the session into compelling summary stories that they can share with colleagues.

Attendees can expect to benefit from this session in at least three ways. First, attendees will develop their skills and receive feedback in their use of assessment for learning. Second, attendees will be introduced to, and gain experience, working with an analytic rubric designed to assess graduate-level writing, higher-order thinking, and knowledge translation skills that they could implement into their own programs, classrooms, or contexts. Finally, attendees will discuss how to apply the ideas introduced in the session to all situations in which assessments are used. This can include undergraduate, masters-level, and doctoral-level assessments of performance tasks and indirect self-reporting assignments in a diverse array of leadership development programs.

Workshop Lesson Plan Description

This educator workshop will be structured using the BOPPPS model for planning lessons. BOPPPS stands for B - Bridge-In, O - Objectives or Outcomes, P – Pre-assessment, P - Participatory Learning, P – Post-assessment, and S - Summary/Closure.

Bridge-In: To gain the attendees attention, build motivation, and explain why the session is important. The learning session will begin with a story to illustrate what rubrics are and how they can be used to promote learning and improve instruction.

Objectives: To clarify the learning intention of this educator session the facilitator will share with attendees the three objectives for the session. By the end of the session, attendees will (1) practice using a rubric to assess students' graduate-level writing, critical thinking skills, and knowledge translation, (2) examine the usefulness of a rubric exercise and discussion framework as a guide to continuous improvement in doctoral-level candidacy processes, and (3) share in a dialogue with others interested in the use of rubrics, doctoral candidacy processes, and/or the role of assessment for learning in leadership development

Pre-Assessment: To get a sense of what attendees are interested in and what they already know about rubrics session, attendees will be invited to engage in a group discussion to talk about the different types of rubrics. Attendees will be called upon to share their stories of evaluating, building, or using rubrics within their programs, departments, or institutions.

Participatory Learning: To fully engage attendees in this educator workshop session and get attendees involved as actively in the learning process as possible a series of intentional activities will be facilitated. This sequence of activities will help attendees achieve the specified objective and gain both professional development and practical application benefits. Attendees will participate in a rubric exercise and discussion activity used previously by the faculty in the Ed.D. in Interdisciplinary Leadership Program.

The Rubric Exercise: For this group exercise attendees will review three five-page essays. The review period will be limited to 40 minutes. Each attendee will be instructed to use one rubric for each essay. In the end, each attendee will complete three rubrics. Attendees will also assess how long it took to review the 15 pages of text. If an attendee does not complete all three rubrics in 40 minutes they will be asked to estimate how much additional time they would need to complete the rubrics. Scores from rubrics will be entered into a spreadsheet and projected for everyone to see. Group discussion will begin with identifying any inter-rater inconsistencies and discussing how each person rated the documents.

Post-Assessment: To assess if the attendees have met the objectives and to go deeper into our learning and understanding of rubrics. A discussion will be facilitated after the rubric exercise to examine attendees' experiences during the rubric exercise and explore their understanding of the assignment purpose and validity (see Appendix B for sample discussion questions).

Summary/Closure: To reflect briefly on our collective experience and integrate the learning that emerged during the session the group will turn what was shared and discussed during the session into compelling summary stories that can be shared with colleagues.

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Appendix A

Please evaluate the student's two papers (as a whole) and provide feedback in each of the following five categories on the following scale. Partial points are permitted:

1 - Does Not Meet Expectations
2 - Partially Meets Expectations
3 - Meets Expectations
4 - Exceeds Expectations

Students must receive an average score of 2.5 across all five categories to receive a 'pass' score. A score of 1.0 or less in any one category will result in a 'no pass' score.

1. STYLE AND FORMAT

To achieve a top score (4 points) in the area of style and format your paper should:

- Consistently model the language and conventions used in the scholarly/ professional literature; for example, the paper would meet the guidelines for submission for publication in a peer reviewed journal.
- Demonstrate thoroughness and competence in documenting sources; the reader would have little difficulty referring back to cited sources and clearly knowing which are direct quotes and which are paraphrased. Original sources should be clearly identified and correctly cited in both the body of the text and the reference section.
- Adhere to APA style and formatting requirements as articulated in the manual.

2. MECHANICS AND ORGANIZATION

To achieve a top score (4 points) in the area of mechanics your paper should:

- Be error-free in terms of mechanics, spelling, and grammar.
- Aid the reader in following the writer's logic, for example subheadings are used to help keep the reader on track throughout the paper.
- Clearly outline the major points related to the topic and logically arrange the ideas to summarize related literature. Suitably model transitions and contain no apparent logic gaps between topics being addressed. Flow smoothly from one idea to another and properly use discipline-specific terms.

3. CONTENT

To achieve a top score (4 points) in the area of content and organization your paper should:

- Effectively establish a sound scholarly argument. Introduce and remain carefully focused on the topic and the scholarly argument.
- Include the selection of suitable sources (i.e., peer reviewed literature, including original empirical research, and scholarly literature).
- Be interesting and hold the reader's attention; for example, general ideas are expanded upon in a logical manner thereby extending the significance of the work presented beyond a re-statement of known ideas.

4. CRITICAL ANALYSIS, SYNTHESIS, AND INTEGRATION

To achieve a top score (4 points) in the area of critical analysis, synthesis, and integration your paper should:

- Present the current state of knowledge for the topic being addressed by utilizing a diversity of opinions. These various, and possibly conflicting, opinions should be presented in a balanced manner and seamlessly woven together to illustrate a complete grasp of the literature across multiple research approaches utilizing appropriate national and international peer-reviewed journals.
- The essential findings of multiple sources should be accurately and concisely paraphrased, analyzed, and integrated.
- Raise important issues or ideas which may not have been represented in the literature cited.

5. KNOWLEDGE TRANSLATION

To achieve a top score (4 points) in the area of knowledge translation your paper should:

- Present elements that reflect a detailed and nuanced understanding of the major and minor concepts/theories/themes from the leadership literature.
- Demonstrate your ability to identify and develop creative solutions to significant and complex real-world problem.
- Demonstrate a masterful ability to address the intended audience through skillful and suitable word choice.
- Translate and apply knowledge to appropriately inform practitioner decision-making that will improve and provide more effective services, products, processes, and/or systems
- Achieve the intended purpose articulated in the paper and answer each facet of the candidacy question.

Appendix B

Reflective Questions for Faculty During Candidacy Improvement Discussion

1. Who is the intended audience for the assessment? What information is available about social backgrounds, cognitive skills, and personal characteristics of the target audience? Who are our students?

2. What aspects of an individual's [intellectual, critical thinking, knowledge translation, communication] ability should be assessed? – Define the construct(s)

3. For whom are the results on the assessment intended: for the students themselves and/or for our program which makes the assessment a requirement?

4. How will the assessment instrument be developed, and how is it going to be validated? What is the degree to which the tasks on the assessment are similar to, and reflective of a real world situation towards which the test is targeted (test authenticity)? To what degree is the task reflective of the type of task the professional will perform in the target situation, i.e., their organization (task authenticity)?

How to Draw Toast:
Enhancing systems thinking in global leadership education

Abstract

In order to develop innovative solutions for the many complex, wicked issues currently facing today's globalized world, our students must be equipped in systems thinking. The new demands of leadership require the ability to think from this systems perspective (Flores, et. al, 2012). This Educator Workshop provides the content, pedagogy, and delivery for how to effectively and experientially introduce the concept of systems thinking in the classroom. Participants will leave this workshop with a scholarly, theoretical, and practical understanding of systems thinking; tools to implement a systems thinking exercise into their global or intercultural leadership courses; and engage in discussion for introducing systems thinking in today's classrooms in order to combat tomorrow's global issues in our organizations and communities.

Introduction

"Even a small child can use a hammer and saw, but it take a master carpenter who fully understands the tools and their limitations to build a house"
(Betts, 1992, p. 38).

Although there is no overarching, agreed upon definition of systems thinking (Shaked & Schechter, 2013), most researchers can agree that systems thinking is "the discipline that integrates the disciplines, fusing them into a coherent body of theory and practice" (Senge, 1990, p. 12). A system is "a set of elements that functions as a whole to achieve a common purpose" (Betts, 1992, p. 38). Systems are characterized by their synergy, where "the whole (system) is greater than the sum of its parts (elements), because the relationship among the elements adds value to the system" (p. 38). This type of thinking encourages leaders to see the bigger picture, organizing information into a meaningful whole (Flores, Matkin, Burbach, Quinn, & Harding, 2012), emphasizing the interrelationships between components rather than the components themselves in the system (Shaked & Schechter, 2013). This paradigm shift allows us and our organizations to shift from seeing ourselves as "separate from the world to the connected world, from seeing problems as caused by someone or something 'out there' to seeing how our own actions create the problems we experience" (Senge, 1990, p. 13).

Systems thinking is essential to the future of leadership education. The new demands of leadership require the ability to think from a systems perspective (Flores, et. al, 2012). It is only through whole-systems approaches that our students will begin to meet society's evolving needs (Betts, 1992). The development of leaders who are fully equipped with systems thinking skills is an essential response to the multitude of adaptive challenges facing our world today (Heifetz, 2003; Fullan, 2004).

Until we integrate systems thinking into leadership education and programming, "we cannot expect [our] organizations or systems to become transformed" (Fullan, 2004, p. 2). This Educator Workshop provides the content, pedagogy, and delivery for how to effectively and

experientially introduce the concept of systems thinking to global leadership classrooms. Upon completion of this Educator Workshop, participants will meet the following learner objectives:

1. Develop a scholarly, theoretical, and practical understanding of systems thinking;
2. Become equipped with tools to implement a systems thinking exercise into their global leadership courses; and
3. Engage in discussion for introducing systems thinking in today's classrooms in order to combat tomorrow's global issues in our organizations and communities.

Review of Related Scholarship

"... human endeavors are systems. They ... are bound by invisible fabrics of interrelated actions, which often take years to fully play out their effects on each other. Since we are part of the lacework ourselves, it is doubly hard to see the whole pattern of change. Instead, we tend to focus on snapshots of isolated parts of the system and wonder why our deepest problems never seem to get solved. Systems thinking is a conceptual framework, a body of knowledge and tools that has been developed over the past fifty years, to make full patterns clearer, and to help us see how to change them effectively"
(Senge, 1990, p. 7).

Systems Thinking in Education

Systems thinking has been applied in higher education across fields of public health, engineering, telecommunications, biology, hospitality and tourism, management, among others; of the most common of fields is environmental sustainability, due to its clear impact on ecological, economic, cultural, and social aspects (Shaked & Schechter, 2013). In higher education, systems thinking pedagogy has been introduced through metaphors (Taber, 2007), personal experience (Frank, 2002), case studies (Blizzard, et al., 2012), and systems modeling (Hung, 2008).

A significant amount of research has shown a multitude of benefits by introducing systems thinking within education at the K-12, undergraduate, and graduate levels. For example, through her study among graduate students, Zulaf (2007) concluded that systems thinking can be learned; once her students were introduced to systems thinking, they then drew connection between decisions and consequences, acknowledged delays in systems, and limited blaming others to see their own contribution to the problem. Systems thinking education has also proven to yield positive outcomes in student performance and school functioning (Shaked & Schechter, 2013) through its application to school reform (Miller-Williams & Kritsonois, 2009), parent-school partnerships (Price-Mitchell, 2009) and evaluation (Dyehouse, et al., 2009).

Systems Thinking in Leadership Education

Systems thinking pedagogy and theory has been applied to enhance leadership development across fields. Peter Senge (1990), coined as a founding father of systems thinking, suggested that this approach is the fifth discipline that integrates personal mastery, mental models, building shared vision, and team learning within leadership development. A review of previous literature on systems thinking identified several characteristics of successful systems thinking leaders:

cognitive characteristics (understanding the whole system), capabilities (analyzing the need), individual traits (management skills and good human relations), and background and knowledge (interdisciplinary knowledge or broad experience) (Frank, 2010).

Through grounded theory modeling, Eich's (2008) study drew from the experiences and perspectives of diverse, successful student leadership programs to identify sixteen (16) programmatic attributes (in three clusters) of high-quality leadership programs in the United States. The third cluster in this theory of high-quality leadership programming is research-grounded continuous program development: how programs are developed and implemented. Such type of programming utilizes systems thinking applied for constant program improvement, focused on research about learning, program development, and leadership conducting their own students for assessment. The exploratory study concluded that the application of systems thinking towards leadership programming can have a beneficial effect on students, where they gain a scholarly, research-grounded perspective on leadership, where they can personally apply and incorporate models into their own leadership experience (Eich, 2008).

Shaked and Schechter (2013) explored the application of systems thinking towards school leadership and management. By enhancing systems thinking among school principals, their management and functioning can be improved in order to address the complexities of their profession. By shifting their thinking about these issues as a whole and emphasizing their interrelationships, the researchers suggest that school principals can develop higher performing schools (Shaked & Schechter, 2013).

Although not directly, systems thinking has been applied within various leadership theories. Anderson & Anderson's (2001) book on change management provided strategies and tools of systemic thinking for transformational leaders. Alongside transformational leadership, systems thinking has also been paired with complexity leadership theory, where systems thinking relies on the "ability to see the world as a complex system, in which we understand that 'everything is connected to everything else'" (Sterman, 2000, p. 4).

Systems Thinking in Global Leadership

Systems thinking was first applied through a mode of scientific investigation, later used in research and application as a means to combat world problems (Shaked & Schechter, 2013). Considering the nature of today's adaptive challenges, such work "demands [the] ongoing learning" (Heifetz, 2003, p. 75) of systems thinking. This approach is the prime paradigm to approach global and intercultural issues, due to the interconnected nature of societies and ideas; "these areas stretch across the boundaries of nation-states and continents with the local and global becoming enmeshed" (Spring, 2008, p. 334). The consequences of not understanding these local and global connections will only increase over time if not fully developed or addressed (Brooks & Normore, 2010).

Global leaders must acknowledge the importance of systems thinking in order to address today's interconnected, global issues; "the more we study the major problems of our time, the more we come to realize that they cannot be understood in solation. They are systemic problems, which means that they are interconnected and interdependent" (Capra, 1996, p. 3).

Lesson Plan Description

Introduction to Systems Thinking (10 minutes)

Conference participants will first be introduced to the concept of systems thinking, as introduced in the course content of the Global Issues in Agricultural, Human, and Natural Resource Sciences course. Participants will gain not only an understanding of the definition of systems thinking, but also the scholarly research accompanying systems thinking within higher education, leadership education, and global leadership.

Systems Thinking Exercise: *How to Make Toast* (40 minutes)

The following systems thinking exercise was adapted from Tom Wujec's *Wicked Problem Solving toolkit* (Creative Commons, 2017) and corresponding TED Talk presentation (TED, 2013).

Following the systems thinking scholarly content of this Educator Workshop, participants will then be asked to draw a picture of *how to make toast* on an 8.5 x 11 blank sheet of paper (paper and markets will be distributed to participants for this process). Participants will then have the opportunity to share their pictures with the rest of participants – either at their tables or collectively (depending on session size). Participants will then discuss similarities (commonalities) and differences they view among the group drawings.

Participants will then be asked to individually draw *how to make toast* on a large stack of Post-it notes; ultimately, participants will begin to draw individual steps/stages to the process on each Post-it note. Depending on session size, participants will be asked to go around to view the various groupings of Post-it notes on participant tables.

Next, the group will collectively (depending once again on session size) place all Post-it notes on a communal wall in the session, for all participants to see. They will then be asked to **silently** and **collectively** organize all Post-it notes on the wall, in accordance with their placement in the toast-making process. Ultimately, the facilitator will encourage the group to arrange the Post-it notes into a single, uniform line in the toast-making process (once again, silently and collectively).

Systems Thinking Discussion Questions (20 minutes)

Upon conclusion of the systems thinking exercise, the following discussion questions will be proposed, along with guided prompts for further depth:

1. **What did you notice about that entire process?**

The purpose of this opening discussion question is to simply gain an understanding of what stood out to participants throughout the process.

2. **What changes did you see between your original drawing on your sheet of paper and the Post-it notes you created next? Why do you think those changes occurred?**

What most participants tend to notice is the heightened level of detail in the step-by-step process outlined in the Post-it notes. This allowed participants to recognize a shift in perspective and

paradigm (similar to thinking in systems) when looking at something (i.e., a system) via a series of individual, singular processes (highlighted in the blocked notes). When discussing with the larger group following the TED Talk, it's important to draw from comments and responses raised during this question, to highlight the benefits of creating visualizations when thinking systemically.

3. **What did the process look like when you were placing your Post-it notes in the overall line-up? How did others' Post-it notes play a role in this process?**

The process of placing Post-it notes in an organized fashion can be incredibly challenging for participants (and take quite some time), simply due to the high volume of notes. As a facilitator, it's important to have participants acknowledge how this challenge was overcome. Additionally, address (if applicable) how participants started aligning notes originally in a horizontal line, then identified major 'processes' in making toast by placing several Post-it notes in a vertical alignment to highlight the 'sub-processes' associated within the line-up. You can even further expand on this aspect after it is highlighted in the TED Talk post-discussion.

When considering others' roles in this line-up process, it's important to highlight how diversity in thought and experience played a role in the process; for many participants, the Post-it notes created a significant amount of detail and variety in the process, including multiple steps that were never originally considered.

4. **What changes did you see (if any) in your own perception of *making toast* from when you started this experience until now?**

For many participants, this fairly simple process has become incredibly more complex. This is important to address, considering possible assumptions we bring to relatively 'simple' problems with 'simple' solutions in our world. What assumptions were possibly made throughout this exercise? How did these assumptions impact the process (individually and/or collectively)?

This question also draws reference from the above discussion about diversity in perspective. With completing this exercise, some students have viewed the term 'toasting' as toasting beverages for celebration. Similarly, students vary in their preparation of toast after it has been toasted, depending on their previous experience and personal likes/dislikes (i.e., adding butter, peanut butter, flax seeds). This conversation can be continued further to address the importance of bringing all diverse stakeholders to the table when addressing issues/problems within a system (i.e., everyone comes to the conversation with differing perspectives, opinions, insights to possible solutions).

5. **How did communication impact the experience?**

Drawing from research identified in the TED Talk, participants who completed this process silently completed the process much faster than if there was communication involved. It becomes important to draw from responses in this discussion question after watching the TED Talk video. Consider the following discussion following the video: What are you losing by not communicating throughout this process? What are you gaining? It becomes important to note the need for efficiency versus further explanation/elaboration when identifying solutions to complex issues. How does this impact systems thinking?

After hearing from a multitude of responses, the facilitator will show Tom Wujec's TED Talk presentation (TED, 2013). This TED talk specifically addresses the purpose of this exercise, why

it was delivered in the manner it was, and the implications for our organizations. Upon concluding this video, we will engage in further discussion, drawing from participant responses to the above discussion questions.

Discussion of Outcomes/Results

By utilizing this exercise several times among both leadership programming (Global Citizenship Program) and leadership courses (Global Issues in Agricultural, Human, and Natural Resource Sciences), I present the below discussion and reflection of the exercise outcomes and results.

First, this exercise is incredibly engaging for students. By simply identifying and defining concepts of systems thinking, students lack the ability to compare the benefits between utilizing and not utilizing systems thinking for themselves. This experiential activity provides students with an opportunity to experience systems thinking first-hand, leading to introspective and critical self-reflection of personal assumptions, behavioral tendencies, paradigms of thinking, and diverse perspective.

Secondly, it is important to focus more on the discussion and debrief than the process itself. Due to time restraints, I have cut this exercise short and/or have included the exercise in two class periods (with days in between meeting), which truly inhibits the experience and reflection process. Students become out of touch with the entire process holistically, thereby lacking the connection to each step in the experience and limiting depth in conversation. The discussion also allows for introspective reflection on the exercise and how participants' own assumptions and behaviors may or may not have been helpful to finding solutions.

Thirdly, it's essential to infuse this experience throughout the semester, both drawing from debrief discussion/responses, as well as the process itself. I have continued to use Post-it notes and white boards when creating systems modeling and diagrams throughout the semester; by utilizing a similar methodology, students begin to start visualizing (cognitively) systems in these blocked, step-by-step perspective intrinsically without physical Post-it notes present.

Additionally, it's important to note that the process of arranging Post-it notes collectively can be very challenging for introverted students, despite its silent process. This is essential for educators to keep in mind while facilitating this process; the inclusion of all students is necessary for the debrief of this exercise. However, it might also be a learning opportunity for the facilitator to highlight who was or was not involved in the process – how this might impact the leadership process, how this might limit innovation or creativity, and perhaps what role each individual student played in this process as an opportunity for introspective reflection on their own role in systems thinking.

Lastly, the exercise and TED Talk video are great starting points for introducing systems thinking in a semester- or quarter-long course. This exercise allows for an excellent foundation for diving deeper into systems thinking in the future. Throughout my Global Issues course, we have continued to draw from this exercise weekly, within each global issue and system presented. The TED Talk also does an excellent job at appropriately communicating the entire purpose and application of the exercise to real-life situations, organizations, and systems thinking paradigms.

Workshop Plan and Implication

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, emotions, and interactions with others throughout the presented systems thinking activity. This experience will allow participants to also reflect on their current paradigms within their own personal and professional lives that either enhances or inhibits their ability to see local, organizational, communal, or global problems from a systems thinking perspective.

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Innovating the first day of the leadership course: A case-in-point approach toward transforming the expectations of teacher and learner.

Abstract

The purpose of this workshop is to demonstrate an innovative, student-driven method for transforming the expectations of the teacher and learner on the first day of the leadership class. Conventional wisdom would hold that the first day of class matters. But far from being a mere slogan, there is substantial theoretical, and growing empirical, support for a coherent approach on the first day. Case-in-point teaching, then, can provide a template for how a leadership instructor can achieve multiple goals in that initial class. Following an overview of the relevant literature, the facilitator will engage the participants in this workshop in a modified case-in-point simulation of a first day, followed by a reflective dialogue on participants' own praxis.

Introduction

The purpose of this workshop is to demonstrate an innovative, student-driven method for transforming the expectations of the teacher and learner on the first day of the leadership class. That is, an emphasis on the *form* of the course and not only the *function.* An additional purpose is that participants will dialogue and reflect on their own experiences, issues, and approaches on the first day of their leadership courses. As a result, there are three specific objectives: that as a result of the workshop, participants will have

1. Understood the theoretical and empirical importance of the first day of class
2. Engaged in a modified case-in-point first-day simulation
3. Reflected on their own praxis and identify ways to improve their own approach

Review of Related Scholarship

Conventional wisdom would hold that the first day of class matters. But far from being a mere slogan, there is substantial theoretical, and growing empirical, support for a coherent approach on the first day. As Shulman (1971) described, given the vital "implicit impressions, tensions, and dynamics" that are at play on the first day (p. 2), the instructor, consequently, must plan accordingly. What follows is an overview of the theoretical and empirical foundational literature on how this should be achieved.

The philosophical support for a structured first-day approach is not new. In the 1980s, several authors articulated not only the critical role of the first day, but instructional strategies to achieve certain goals (Eble, 1988; Serey, 1989; Weimer, 1989). One of the earliest was Wolcowitz's (1984) book chapter, where she makes the argument for both explicit and implicit student needs.

The former related to course logistics, while the latter concerns the teacher-student relationship. Most authors recommend, naturally, clarity on assignments, etc., but it is this secondary, more holistic, issue that many address more fully. Brouillette and Turner (1992) speak to crafting the "sociological imagination" of the students in the class (p. 276), while Riffer's (1983) goals including reorienting a student's understanding and confidence toward the discipline. These two involve the construction of the classroom and student, while Brooks (1985) considers the influence of the first day on the teacher's perceived competence. His analysis of the psychological literature "provides evidence for the immediacy and power of first impressions," which from a teaching context, has significant implications for the first day (p. 63). Similarly, Dorn (1987) perceives the first class as an "encounter among strangers," that should cause any teacher to more seriously consider the tacit "habits, customs, and reflections" they use on the initial day of the course (p. 61).

These early theoretical pieces have given way to a broader consensus on not only the critical role of the first day, but some of the most vital components necessary. Davis' (1993) book chapter was an early forerunner of such recommendations, and her work has been followed by widely regarded teaching books, each with book chapters focused on the first encounter with students: Curzan and Damour's (2006) "The First Day of the Term," Lucas' (2007) "The First Day of Class and the Rest of the Semester," and Svinivki and McKeachie's (2011) "Meeting a Class for the First Time." There are several primary themes from such works around the recommended approach for teachers on the first day, including: Attention to the teacher-student relationship; clear expectations; group norms for dispositions and behaviors; the role of student involvement; and personal sharing.

One of the primary critiques of the aforementioned literature is its theoretical foundation. As one author described, "there is little empirical evidence…to suggest that an instructor engaging in such activities during the first day of class achieves these desired short-term results" (Hermann & Foster, 2008, p. 140). That said, there is increasing empirical evidence to suggest that many of the long-held theoretical recommendations are not only important, but can have lasting affects as well. Perlmann and McCann (1999) authored one of the first studies focused specifically on the first day of class. Eleven participating faculty had 570 students complete a short open-ended survey about the most useful things, and the biggest pet peeves, a teacher could do on the first day. The student data was largely congruent with theoretical literature, and was compelling enough to cause ten of the faculty to change their teaching approach on the first day the following semester. Similarly, Henslee, Burgess, and Buskist (2006) surveyed nearly 150 undergraduates in an introductory psychology course around a diverse set of preferences for the first day. Although the results illustrated student disbelief that the first course would have any lasting influence, the authors conclude that "our data do not imply that students know or understand what is most advantageous for them with regard to structuring the first day" (Henslee, Burgess, & Buskist, 2006, p. 191).

Beyond survey research, other empirical support has come through methodological innovations. Hermann and Foster (2008) introduced a reciprocal interview activity that created a "dynamic conversation" in which the goals and expectations of both the instructor and student are addressed (p. 139). A total of 103 students participated in interviews on the first day of five different introductory courses. The authors conclude that only did the faculty value

the student transparency, students indicated they enjoyed the activity; felt it clarified the instructor's expectations; and felt more comfortable participating in class and interacting with the instructor throughout the term. Likewise, a study by Case, et al. (2008) also investigated the value of a reciprocal interview activity with 146 students in eight different courses. Akin to Hermann and Foster's (2008) findings, Case, et al. (2008) results also indicate student support for most faculty to engage their classes on the first day via the interview. Not only because of increased openness around assignments and expectations, but as the initial beginning blocks in "creating a community of learners" (p. 213).

Other scholars have turned the methodological focus toward experimental research. Wilson and Wilson's (2007) study provided students in two different classes a negative or positive first day experience. Their study should be consulted for the specifics of the design, but the results revealed that students with the positive first day experience reported higher motivation for the majority of the course, and their grades were significantly higher by the end of the term. These findings align with other research on the role of first impressions within a classroom (Sunnafrank and Ramirez, 2004). Moreover, Hermann, Foster, and Hardin (2010) conducted a quasi- experiment around classes that did or did not receive the reciprocal interview activity on the first day. By the end of the semester, "students experiencing the activity (n = 187) reported greater clarity regarding their course responsibilities, more support from their instructor, and greater course satisfaction on both official evaluations and experimenter-administered measures, compared to students who had not (n = 190)" (Hermann, Foster, & Hardin, 2010, p. 79). Finally, McGinley and Jones (2014) modified the reciprocal interview for the experimental intervention with 111 participants in four classes. Having completed an academic motivation questionnaire, the student findings are more complex, but overall consistent with much of the empirical scholarship above around the role and importance of the first class.

Lesson Plan Description

Overall, the theoretical and empirical literature calls attention to the importance of the first day of class. Consequently, this interactive workshop will demonstrate one method toward innovating the first day of a leadership course. The structure follows the three objectives stated earlier: that the participants will have 1) Understood the theoretical and empirical importance of the first day of class; 2) Engaged in a modified case-in-point first-day simulation; 3) Reflected on their own praxis and identify ways to improve their approach to the first day of class.

For objective #1, the Presenter will introduce the workshop and provide a 10-minute overview of the relevant literature.

For objective #2, the Presenter will facilitate a 30-minute "first day of class". Although other examples are available for engaging in case-in-point teaching (Parks, 2005; Wildermuth, Smith- Bright, Noll-Wilson, & Fink, 2015), this workshop activity is adapted from Smith's (2008) "first-day questions" framework, which builds the course expectations precisely around *what* students want to learn and *how* they want to learn it. Ultimately, this modified case-in-point approach allows the instructor to not only engage in themes relevant to the course content, but also clarifies the expectations for both the teacher and learner in the

classroom. As Yawson (2014) describes, "the first day of class is taken very seriously by [Case-in-Point] practitioners as it defense how the class is built as a community" (p. 77).

For objective #3, the Presenter will facilitate a 20-minute dialogue around the participant's own teaching experience and lessons learned. The simulation will spark many conversations around potential applications in one's own context, while the reflective dialogue will allow other successful practices to emerge and be shared with all present.

Discussion of Outcomes/Results

I have over ten years' experience in higher education, where I have taught and utilized this first- day workshop at all levels: from a First Year Experience Leadership course with traditional students, to accelerated week-night organizational leadership courses with adult undergraduates, to doctoral students in an interdisciplinary leadership PhD program. The populations in these various settings range from five students in an intimate classroom to over 200 in a conference hall. Given that the simulation is on the first day, I have yet to gather formal assessment data about its "effectiveness." That said, the feedback from the diverse students in the various settings remains the same: it has allowed them to understand the culture of classroom I teach, their role in the learning process, and the situated leadership roles we will both inhabit during the course

Workshop Implications

As a Workshop, there is an inherent amount of audience participation. As described above, following the brief overview of the pertinent literature, I will run the session as if it were an actual first-day of class, with audience members occupying the role of students. The involvement following the workshop will resemble more traditional dialogue around question prompts and reflection. The benefits to participants will vary depending on their level of teaching experience. Regardless, I anticipate that anyone who has experience or will have experience teaching would have an interest. More specifically, all participants will be compelled to improve their craft and evaluate their own approach to the first day of class.

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Embodiment: Essential Skills & Practices for the 21st Century Leader Abstract

The 21st century requires specific approaches to cultivate leaders who can effectively lead in an increasingly complex and ambiguous world. This experiential workshop focuses on what modern leaders need now – Embodied Leadership capabilities. Embodied Leadership provides a radically different way of learning to lead. This body-mind approach, grounded in somatic intelligence, enables participants to experience the body as a source of intelligence, power, and wisdom. The purpose of this workshop will be to explore the Embodied Leadership methodology and practices used to develop the "self" of the leader. Participants will engage in experiential practices with one another to intentionally uplevel current leadership practices, cultivate presence, and uncover habituated mindsets and actions. Impediments to effective leadership will surface creating space for new embodied practices to emerge.

Introduction

"When we are no longer able to change a situation – we are challenged to change ourselves."
~~Viktor Frankl

Leadership is the ability to take responsibility for something that matters, present and future, and then successfully engage others to bring it to life.

Regardless of rank or position, effective leaders are creators and drivers in their lives and organizations. They aspire to embed a deep sense of purpose in their people and their organizations despite the speed, increased complexity, and chaos of the world. They set a clear vision, inspire others to support it, explore creative solutions while motivating everyone's best efforts, and ultimately, manage their own reactions under the pressure of competing priorities requiring keen self-awareness.

Yet such self-awareness—at the very core of what it means to be an exemplary leader—can be elusive in the current 24/7, hyper-connected world where everyone's so "busy," and no one believes they have the time to engage the unfolding changes at hand.

Yet, we know that developing effective, competent leaders has never been more important or relevant.

The rapidly evolving challenges of the 21st century include everything from the rise and impact of technology, to global climate change and its impact on demography and poverty, to cyber terrorism and pandemics, to shifting customer expectations in new markets, and subsequent attitudes toward education and work. (Johansen, 2012).

As such, conventional leadership development practices will no longer be adequate to prepare leaders for the future. The reason? While leaders have always faced uncertainty, *the global, interconnected reach and scale are unprecedented*. (Johansen, 2017).

Conventional leadership training has focused on teaching people *what to do* through models and case studies, typically delivered in an off-site classroom where participants are thought to be

inspired by expert faculty. They're left to passively take away the latest leadership thinking vs. being challenged to actively develop *who they are as a leader*.

Excellence in leadership, however, does not actually emerge from models or techniques; those typically *describe* effective leadership, *yet rarely produce it*. Rather, exemplary leadership emerges instead from a *way of being* that is effective, consistent, committed, and trustworthy, or what's cited by the Center for Creative Leadership, as "vertical learning," the number one future trend in leader development. In contrast with horizontal learning, which consists of acquiring more knowledge while operating at the same level of cognitive, emotional, and relational complexity, vertical learning involves shifting the structures and mindset of one's deeply embodied worldview to ultimately change how one sees the world (Petrie, 2014).

New skills to effectively engage in the increasingly volatile, uncertain, complex, and ambiguous world, or VUCA, a term from the Army War College as a result of the end of Cold War, will be essential not only in the marketplace, but in today's world of higher education (Halamka, 2011). Today's chaotic, turbulent, and rapidly changing education environment reflects VUCA as the new educational normal (Apollo Research Institute, 2012; Christensen, Johnson, & Horn, 2008; Kail, 2010, 2011).

Education is now widely accepted as a major driver of economic competitiveness in an increasingly knowledge-driven global economy (David & Halvert, 2015; Wilkinson, 2013). As learning becomes increasingly borderless, education will rank increasingly higher on national agendas (Etzkowitz, 2014) with developing countries viewing education participation as crucial to their transition to developed country standing (Bashir, 2007; Wade, 2008, 2009). As such, leaders will be required to cultivate the capacity of educators who face economically disadvantaged students who may be homeless, have a different religious backgrounds and culture, speak a different language, and arrive at school with differing abilities to learn (Bennett & Lemoine, 2014; McKinsey Global Institute, 2007, 2010).

Twenty first century leaders will require a much broader skill set, one that will equip them to think and act with flexibility and agility in ever-changing, complex environments - to be resilient. Resiliency includes the capacity to absorb and allow the inclusion of new ideas, to change and create new opportunities, and to address the unexpected.

Twenty first century leaders will be required to embrace cross-cultural diversity and cultivate collaborative relationships with all their constituents. Their willingness to 'not know' and to learn from their experiences, especially to apply that learning to perform successfully under new or first-time conditions, will open the way for generative, innovative thinking.

Twenty first century leaders must tap into their primary source of power: those qualities that enable a leader to connect, inspire, engage, and act toward a greater good. Or, said another way, one's primary source of power reflects the *self of the leader*. These personal qualities require cultivating them —on purpose.

As noted leadership scholar and university professor Warren Bennis has said, "*Becoming a leader is synonymous with becoming yourself. It is precisely that simple, and it is also that difficult*."

Expanding one's ability to influence and shape the future requires self-cultivation. It's been well documented that leaders need emotional intelligence – which accounts for 85 to 90 percent of the difference between outstanding leaders and their peers to succeed (Goleman, 1995). Yet, leadership is fundamentally a social endeavor. To lead effectively, one must not only cultivate self-awareness and strength of character; but one must also be acutely aware of the people and the surrounding world, the complex weave of interdependencies between them, and the impact they have on both, or what psychologists call social intelligence (Goleman, 2007).

What's often overlooked, however, is the leader's foundational *somatic intelligence*, the ability to accurately read and respond to one's direct, unmediated sensory and emotional experience of the world (Damasio, 1994; Johnson & Blake, 2010), often denigrated as a 'soft skill.' Yet, amazing as it may seem, what one focuses his attention on literally grows and shapes the various regions of his brain over time. Since it is impossible to take in every sight, sound, smell, and sensory stimulus all at once, our attention functions like a gate, allowing some information in and editing some out.

When we repeatedly focus attention on a new thought or action, the electrical and chemical connections between the involved brain cells strengthen. In this way, frequently trafficked ideas and behaviors are reinforced, until they ultimately become an intrinsic part of both one's behavioral and biological identity: who one is, how one perceives the world, the actions he can take, and quite literally the structure and function of his brain. Long held beliefs, expectations, and attitudes about life take on a physiological shape and literally become embodied, so that the very structure of one's brain reflects the life he has led up to this point. (Damasio, 1994; Merzenich,1999; Blake, 2018).

Our lives are a collection of practices. In short, we are what we practice.

By the time an action has been repeated hundreds or thousands of times, the neural connections are strong enough to make it easy, effortless, and automatic. Aristotle got it right when he said: "*We are what we repeatedly do. Excellence then, is not an act, but a habit*."

Given the increasing necessity for clarity, agility, innovation--to be able to read the complex landscape that's emerging and make the subsequent shifts required for innovation, an intentional shifting up and changing of practices is required, one that displaces those practices currently in place (Johansen, 2017; Flores, 2013) to make way for the future.

The purpose of this workshop, then, will be to share the Embodied Leadership methodology used to develop the self of the leader. Participants of this workshop will explore several Embodied Leadership practices to develop the "self," working toward: embodiment of a compelling leadership presence; the capacity to generate moods of trust and dignity while

shifting negative moods to be more productive; and the development of social intelligence to partner with others within complex situations to co-create innovative solutions.

Review of Related Scholarship

Embodied leadership as an emerging technology, accesses the leader's somatic intelligence, the interconnected systems of our human psychobiology, including: thoughts, emotions, and physiological sensations via 'trying on' new practices, experiencing the impact, dialoguing together, and repeating the learning process. This process provides a natural way to develop leadership presence that can address diverse power dynamics with clarity, move with agility, skillfully employ social and emotional skills, and co-create an inclusive leadership style that is opens doors for innovation (Strozzi, 2007).

Highly developed somatic intelligence supports full access to the leader's social guidance system, a neural system that gauges trustworthiness in others, creates a sense of resonance between people working together, and keys into the best response in the moment. It enables reliable access to the highly vaunted "gut feelings" and intuition that successful leaders often keep under wraps, yet reportedly rely on with great frequency (Damasio, 1994; Johnson & Blake, 2010). And, it enables a leader to be present and attentive to others within the current reality while simultaneously taking effective action to change or re-create it.

Agility is one of the key skills for 21st century leaders. It is defined as the willingness and ability to learn from experience, and subsequently apply that learning to perform successfully under new or first-time conditions (Lombardo & Eichinger, 2000). Those with a high learning agility learn the "right lessons" from experience and apply those lessons to novel situations. They continuously seek out new challenges, actively seek feedback from others to grow and develop, tend to self-reflect, and evaluate their experiences to draw practical conclusions (De Meuse, 2010). Such agility allows leaders to shift intentionally to the new practices required for innovation.

Embodied Leadership, based on cultivating somatic intelligence, is a methodology and change theory that understands human beings as an integrated system of mind, body, and spirit (Brendel & Bennet, 2016; Damasio, 1994; Lakoff & Johnson, 1999; Levine, 2010; Van der Kolk, 1996). As an emerging field of leadership development practice, it's drawn from research in psychology (Gendlin, 1982), mindfulness (Kabat-Zinn, 2003), adult learning and development (Mezirow, 2001), Eastern and Western philosophies (Johnson, 2007), and neuroscience (Siegel, 2010; Van der Kolk, 2015).

The common premise across these disciplines is that the mind and body are interdependent; one does not exist without impacting the other. Notably, neuroscience research tells us that a significant amount of the information we take in is received through the body, out of our conscious awareness (Levine, 2010; Seigel, 2012; Hanson, 2009). And further, from the broad field of interpersonal neuroscience, the idea that features of human cognition—our capacity to learn, think and understand, remember--are actually shaped and resourced by aspects of the body beyond the brain including our emotional centers.

"*The brain is embodied; the regulation of energy and information flows happens, in part, in the body. It occurs where we usually imagine our mental life taking place, in the circuits and synapses of the brain, inside the skull. But it also occurs throughout the body, in the distributed nervous system, which monitors and influences energy and information flowing through your heart and our intestines, and even shapes the activity of our immune system*." (Siegel, 2010, pp. 54-5).

When emotional circuits are activated purposefully via visceral, lived experiences, they prompt awareness of both the environment and what's going on inside one's self. Mindfully attending to such experiences, the intentional mind can be more engaged in order to make conscious decisions about one's behavior (Davidson & Goleman, 2017; Rowland, 2016).

In accessing this information through mind-body practices as demonstrated in this workshop, Embodied Leadership assimilates the body as *an essential place of learning, mood, dignity, coordination and action, and ultimately transformation*. Working somatically or through the body, leaders can learn to access their internal experience including sensations, emotions, and the cognitive meaning they assign to those feelings.

By attending to their full experience, conscious thoughts are reflected in one's physical structures including gestures, movement patterns, and comportment, enabling leaders to gain deeper awareness of self and others. *The self is, in effect, indistinguishable from the body*. Developing this insight creates critical opportunities for fundamentally changing behavior through body- based practices that support a body capable of new perceptions, emotions, behaviors, and actions (Strozzi, 2007); ultimately shifting one's embodied relationship with power and the ability to influence the future.

Lesson Plan Description

Title: **Embodiment: Essential Skills & Practices for the 21st Century Leader**

Time: 90 minutes

Purpose: The vision for this highly experiential workshop on Embodied Leadership is to engage participants in a radically different leadership technology that will fundamentally shift their leadership presence and their capacity to address the challenges of an unfolding future.

Intentionally practiced body-mind movements intervene within one's integrated, mind-body system in ways that cannot be addressed by cognitive processes alone. This affords "a way in" to powerfully experience the intersection of mind and body, cultivating deep insight into one's embodied, largely unconscious, patterns of perception, emotion, and action that result in the leader's self-awareness.

Embodied Leadership practices will be utilized to explore the more complex components of leadership: self-awareness, presence, focused attention, and relationships via somatic practices, dialogue, and feedback.

Individually, and in small groups, participants will work interactively with breath, body awareness, posture, movement, and relational patterns to facilitate present moment awareness of habitual, embodied mindsets, and action styles. Identifying engrained and conditioned

tendencies increases one's capacity to choose to shift into a more authentic and inclusive leadership presence.

Participant leaders will come away with practical tools they can use daily in the workplace and at home to return to center when unsettled, persist in the face of challenges and conflict, and respond more pro-actively to situations, relationships, and diverse circumstances. In turn, these skills enhance the broader capacity for influence, innovation, and inclusion.

Learning Outcomes:

- Learn new distinctions about what makes leaders powerful and where their power comes from to create a compelling leadership presence
- Practice generating moods of trust, respect, and dignity and learn to shift negative moods to be more productive and effective
- Identify and begin to shift habitual mindsets and thought patterns
- Develop the capacity to hold more powerful conversations and skillfully use language to get better results
- Design and commit to a plan to increase focus, presence, and choice around what they care about most

Discussion of Outcomes/Results

Embodied Leadership reflects an integrated teaching that enables individual participants to access and embody a new "way of being" that aligns one's "presence and purpose" across life domains (e.g. work, home community), so that the individual and individual-as-leader reflect a fully cohesive self (Blake, 2018; Brendel, W. & Bennett, C., 2016; Strozzi, 2007).

Embodied Leadership practice results from participants actively experiencing their currently embodied responses, *in the moment they are experiencing them*, and subsequently learning about their leadership styles while simultaneously expressing them in action. As a result, participants can choose to cultivate aspects of their leadership that may have been previously unknown to them, and strengthen their ability to move with presence and agility in the face of increasingly complex challenges.

Over the past fifteen years of teaching this methodology, the author can report that participant results consistently include: 1) an increase in a strong, compelling, centered presence under the pressure of competing commitments; 2) greater capacity to generate moods of trust and dignity (within themselves and their teams) while shifting negative moods to be more productive and effective; 3) an increase in effective listening to both internal and external constituents; 4) greater capacity to co-create the creativity space for innovative solutions to emerge; and 5) increased skillfulness and social intelligence to partner and coordinate with others to mobilize and execute on projects and solutions.

Workshop Plan

This 90-minute experiential session will include a 10-minute introduction to Embodied Leadership and somatic learning. This will facilitate present moment awareness of participants' deeply held patterns of perceiving, thinking, feeling, speaking, and acting.

Participants will be led through a series of somatic practices, individually and with partners, to work with body awareness, movement, and patterns of attention that directly link to particular states of mind (moods, thoughts, and emotions), and styles of action that impact leadership presence and possibility. The session will conclude with a 10-minute group process of the experience, and a discussion of somatic, body-mind tools they can use for their continued leadership development and the development of others.

Sample Presentation:

Time	Activity	Process
10	What is Embodied Leadership? Why Centered Presence? How will it make a difference in my leadership, my community, my family?	Presentation/Interactive
3	Short Attention Practice with a Focus on Sensory Awareness.	Practice
10	Energy Follows Attention - What Does That Matter to Me?	Presentation/Interactive
12	Body, Thoughts, and Feelings as Gateways to Awareness, Clarity, and Power	Partner Practice
15	Practicing Presence and Calm Under Pressure	Practice
15	Crafting a Daily Practice for Presence and Power	Presentation/Interactive
15	Centered, Focused Attention—Training your Body-Brain for Increased Effectiveness and Power in Leadership	Partner Practice
10	Q & A, Review Learnings, Close	Presentation/Interactive
90	45 Minutes Presentation/Interactive 45 Minutes Practice/Partner Practice	

Appendic
es

1) **Resources**

2) **Centering Practice**

Resources for Embodiment: Essential Skills & Practices for the 21st Century Leader

Train Your Mind, Change Your Brain: How a New Science Reveals Our Extraordinary Potential to Transform Ourselves, Sharon Begley, 2007

Your Body is Your Brain: Leverage your somatic intelligence to find purpose, build resilience, deepen relationships, and lead more powerfully, Amanda Blake, 2018

Getting Our Bodies Back, Christine Caldwell, 1997.

The Brain That Changes Itself, Norman Doidge, 2007.

Leaders Make the Future: Ten New Leadership Skills for an Uncertain World. Bob Johansen, 2017

Your Brain and Business: The Neuroscience of Great Leaders, Srinivasan Pillay, 2011.

Mindsight, Daniel Siegel, 2010.

Anatomy of Change: A Way to Move Through Life's Transitions, Richard Strozzi Heckler, 1997.

Being Human At Work: Bringing Somatic Intelligence Into Your Professional Life, Richard Strozzi Heckler, 2003.

The Leadership Dojo: Build Your Foundation as an Exemplary Leader, Richard Strozzi Heckler, 2007.

The Body Keeps the Score: Brain, Mind, and Body in the Healing of Trauma, Bessel Van der Kolk, 2015.

Centering Practice

When mind, body and spirit are aligned, our personal power—the power to generate competent actions and see results, to experience learning and satisfaction in living life--radiates from within. This state of unified alignment is called "center" and the process and practice of developing this alignment is called 'centering.'

Centering first involves the body, yet to be 'centered' encompasses more than physical experiences alone. Centering is a way of life; a living, evolving process of self-organization that increases our capacity for awareness, choice, and learning that leads to accountability, action, and integrity. 'Center' is a state of wholeness in which mental alertness, emotional maturity, effective action, and spiritual connection are balanced in harmony.

We begin a centering practice initially by bringing attention to the body, or soma, the Greek root word which means "the living body in its wholeness." It is in the body that awareness occurs and language begins, it is in the body that emotions, moods, and thoughts arise, and it is in body that we move into action.

Centering builds presence. From center we are able to be present to ourselves and others, to be open to possibilities, and to be connected with the question of "what's important?" in life. To center in this way is to purposefully organize our lives around what we care about, and gives us a practical place to return when life becomes unsettled and we're triggered to react instead of responding.

Why do we Center? How to Center?

Feeling ourselves helps us create more space for sensations and emotions, becoming more curious about them and less reactive. We're building our capacity for a life of greater richness. Centering helps us also feel into or sense others around us, to build empathy, and be more open, present and effective in our relationships.

By centering purposefully, we can practice staying connected to what most matters to us, build our resilience, and help calm and re-center ourselves when we are triggered or under pressure.

To Center—the Practice

1. Shift your attention, on purpose, to your body, noticing sensations, emotions, and internal dialogue. Come into your sensing self to pay close attention to the variations in temperature, pressure or holding, and any kind of movement.

2. Notice what is so now, in this moment. No need to shift or change anything, simply to observe what's so now.

3. Remember why you're centering. You're practicing being present, open, and connected on purpose.
4. Center on purpose by bringing your attention, and your breath, to a point about two inches below your belly button. 'Sense' yourself more than 'think' yourself.

5. From center fill out your length, the dimension of dignity. Breathe in deeply and on the exhalation, imagine and feel/sense your body along that vertical axis.

6. From center fill out your width, the dimension of community; extend out, receive in. Breathe in deeply and on the exhalation, imagine and feel/sense yourself across your width up the full height of your body.

7. From center, fill in your depth, by feeling your back body which includes past, ancestors, future, and longings. Breathe in deeply and on the exhalation, imagine & feel/sense yourself from your back, your depth, through to the front body.

8. Drop your attention back to that place at your center, to a point about two inches below your belly button. Connect consciously to your commitment(s)/what you care about. Speak them to yourself, aloud or silently.

9. Breathing, fill out fully into your length, width, and depth with your commitments. Embody your commitments. Breathe into feeling/sensing your commitments.

10. Practice Centering daily.

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Making Service-Learning a Reality: A Workshop for Creating Service-Learning Leadership Courses

Abstract

Service-learning is a community engagement practice, connecting students and institutions of higher education with their larger communities (Dostilio & Perry, 2017). Because of the learning experiences structured in service-learning pedagogy, it has been identified as a high-impact learning practice in higher education (Kuh, 2008). However, the number of faculty who use service-learning pedagogy in their leadership classes is seemingly low (Jenkins, 2013). This workshop seeks to provide leadership educators with pertinent and relevant literature and resources, along with the time to structure a service-learning leadership course. Participants will engage in course design with deliverables such as a course syllabus, building intentional partnerships, and assessment. By the end of the workshop, participants will be prepared to implement their plan upon return to their institutions.

Introduction

Service-learning is a valuable pedagogy in institutions of higher education. It connects students, faculty, and colleges with their larger communities, providing students an opportunity to develop their sense of civic responsibility and explore their role as local, national, and global citizens. The value of service-learning fits well with 21st century conceptualizations of leadership, as we as leadership educators challenge our students to consider leadership for the common good and their role as global leaders. Additionally, service-learning is also known as a high impact practice in higher education, contributing to student learning and the retention and persistence of students (Astin et al., 2006; Mayhew, Rockenbach, Bowman, Seifert, & Wolniak, 2016). This pedagogical practice requires students to apply their learning in the classroom directly to a real-world context, creating social change in real-time. Students find greater purpose in their role as students and future professional roles.

The nature of service-learning provides many benefits, positively impacting communities and student learning. However, planning for service-learning is time and resource intensive, which may explain why leadership educators hesitate to use the pedagogy in their classes (Jenkins, 2013). Therefore, given the required time and intentionality with respect to developing community partnerships, structuring student experiences, and assessing student learning, we propose a workshop to lead leadership educators through the process of creating a proposal for service-learning in their contexts. It is our hope that with these proposals, leadership educators will create a structure for a service-learning and leadership course with action items to connect with community partners and prepare the necessary resources to support a semester long service-learning experience. Additionally, leadership educators will have prepared a skeleton syllabus including curriculum, class activities, reflection items, and a final project outlines.

The following are our learning objectives for this workshop:

- Understand components of service-learning design including leadership curriculum, partnerships, and assessment strategies
- Identify curricular elements of service-learning for syllabus development

- Identify assessment strategies or tools for evaluating reflections and student learning outcomes

Review of Related Scholarship

Defining Service-Learning

Dostilio and Perry (2017) conceptualized service-learning as one method of community engagement used by postsecondary higher education. Community engagement comprises a diverse number of practice activities connecting postsecondary institutions with their larger community (Dostilio & Perry, 2017). It has also been recognized as a high impact practice for college student learning (Astin et al., 2006; Kuh, 2008). High impact practices are teaching and learning practices that have resulted in the retention and engagement of college students (Kuh, 2008; Mayhew et al., 2016). These practices have been tested across institutions and student cohorts, found to be beneficial to student learning. Kuh (2008) defined service-learning as an instructional strategy giving students "direct experience with issues they are studying in the curriculum and with ongoing efforts to analyze and solve problems in the community" (p. 3). He argued that serving in the community is important as an outcome of college, preparing students for citizenship, work, and life (Kuh, 2008).

Service-Learning in Leadership Education

Service-oriented learning and social responsibility are not new ideas in leadership education. In 2000, Astin and Astin focused attention on "the critically important civic work performed by those individual citizens who are actively engaged in making a positive difference in society" (p. 2), and argued for the development of students as citizens and leaders in a greater society. Many leadership programs, both curricular and co-curricular, have identified community leadership as an outcome of student learning (Komives, Dugan, Owen, Slack, & Wagner, 2011). The Social Change Model of Leadership (SCM) (HERI, 1996) is one model of leadership that explicitly recognizes a community domain of leadership and development of leaders as citizens.

Development in the community domain of leadership requires complex thinking and meaning-making (Komives, Owen, Longerbeam, Mainella, & Osteen, 2005). Student development in this area have been found to be positively influenced by involvement experiences, such as community service, suggesting service-learning as a developmentally positive experience for students (Dugan, 2006). Additionally, service-learning leadership programs have been beneficial for the retention of students in their major and connection to a greater purpose (Authors, In Press). However, while there appear to be numerous benefits of service-learning, the number of leadership faculty using this pedagogy in their courses is low – roughly 11% (n = 34) with a sample of 303 leadership educators (Jenkins, 2013, p. 13). We believe one of the reasons for this is may be the demand of time and intentionality needed to plan these experiences for students.

While faculty members may not be using service-learning as much in their courses, leadership educators have written about service-learning experiences for their leadership courses (Haber-Curran & Strewart, 2015; Langone, 2004; Priest, Bauer, & Fine, 2015; Seemiller, 2006; Sessa, Matos, & Hopkins, 2009). Service-learning experiences require involvement by faculty,

community partners, and students. Priest and colleagues (2015) argued, "Service-learning is not an activity for the class, it IS the class" (p. 224). For students, time spent on site working with community partners and time spent in class engaging in learning about leadership, self, and civic engagement and structured reflection was important. Often student's experiences lasted a semester, but the relationship building among educators and community partners requires longer involvement.

Service-learning experiences ranged with the amount of involvement students had in creating their service-learning experience. Some programs had already structured the service-learning project – identifying a community partner and need for students to address, using class time to educate students about the global need and their local impact (Haber-Curran & Strewart, 2015; Priest et al., 2015). Others allowed for students identify a need and develop an intervention with their community partner (Langone, 2004). Langone (2004) used Perreault's (1994) Citizen Leader Model structure a service-learning projects for students to analyze, implement, and evaluate a need with their community partners. UMD's (1999) PARE models (Priest et al., 2015) was also used to structure experiences. The DEAL reflection model (Ash & Clayton, 2004) was used to structure reflection activities (Sessa et al., 2009; & Priest et al., 2015). Final projects involved a reflection of student learning throughout the experience or final evaluation of student's intervention projects.

Developing Service-Learning Leadership Courses

Provided that many stakeholders are involved in service-learning, the process of developing service-learning leadership courses requires time and intentionality. It is important to first consider the question: how can I integrate service-learning into my course? The field of leadership studies, lends itself to integration of civic engagement and specifically - service-learning - because of the alignment with process-oriented and socially responsible leadership theories. This workshop will highlight a few important factors to consider when developing a service-focused leadership education course.

Curriculum and Resources. Application of what students learn in the classroom to a real-world context and structured reflection of the experience in the classroom is vital for student learning (Kuh, 2008). Jacoby (2014) suggests examining the course outcomes and exploring how service-learning might help achieve these outcomes. Moreover, leadership educators should consider how service-learning would enhance student learning and develop leadership capacities in their courses. Two key considerations are to explore how leadership, as a field of study, might approach larger social issues and how the project could enhance collaboration across difference and cultural factors (Campus Compact, 2003; Jacoby, 2014). Additionally, developing a reading list and selecting a course text, are essential first steps to integral service-learning experiences and speak to the academic rigor of the course (Jacoby, 2014; Morton, 1996). Finally, identifying resources for the course is helpful in initial planning stages. Identification of how additional staff might be utilized (i.e. peer mentors and collaborators), how transportation and logistics might be used, if applicable, and any budget that might be associated with the service-learning project. While there are several steps to developing service-learning curriculum that achieves strong student learning outcomes, these areas of consideration are some of the initial preparations.

Partnerships. Developing meaningful partnerships is critical to the success of service-learning and to the overall foundation of leadership courses. Partnerships are often defined by community organizations, however, building synergies with other campus partners is part of the process of service-learning development, as well. In the workshop, we will explore navigating and building these partnerships in numerous contexts.

Dostilio and Perry (2017) argued that service-learning serves as a bridge between academic affairs and students affairs, bridging good teaching practices with good development practices. Leadership and service-learning is one example of an area perfect for collaboration between student and academic affairs, because activities combine out-of-class experiences with an intentional focus on academic learning outcomes (O'Grady, 2000). Student affairs staff with community connections might help faculty find appropriate agencies or locations for projects, as well as provide expertise in individual and group processing of experiences (Alvarez & Liu, 2002). Further, faculty can provide the historical context and academic analysis for the issues and communities being served.

In the Association of American Colleges and Universities' (AAC&U) 2012 report, *A Crucible Moment: College's Learning and Democracy's Future,* there are five critical actions to build our democracy's future. Developing partnerships is the fifth action, focused on increasing the number of alliances that strengthen local, national, and global communities. With the rising interest to promote civic engagement among postsecondary students, it is crucial to understand the needs of local agencies and organizations. Creating intentional partnerships with local organizations is an effective way to introduce students to social issues in our society and within local communities (Jacoby, 2014). While connecting with organizations is one step, the importance of building intentional and sustainable relationships takes time and commitment yet has a plethora of benefits for students and service-learning faculty. Faculty and staff should develop strong partnerships with local organizations prior to engaging in service-learning projects in order to prevent unnecessary stressors for organization staff and community members (Jacoby, 2014; Torres & Schaffer, 2000). Moreover, strengthening and maintaining strong partnerships helps reduce anxiety and uncertainty of students engaging in service work.

Assessment. Service-learning and leadership education enhance a variety of student learning outcomes (Astin et al., 2006; Mayhew et al., 2016). Leadership education courses paired with well-structured service-learning components increase deep student reflection, which contributes to positive learning outcomes (Iverson & James, 2013; Mitchell, Gillon, Reason, & Ryder, 2016). White & Guthrie (2016) argued that student reflection was an effective and important pedagogical tool for leadership education. Service-learning is definably different than volunteering because it engages critical reflection (Jones, Gilbride-Brown, & Gasiorski, 2005). A well-designed and intentional assessment plan helps facilitate deeper learning and building critical thinking capacities in service-learning (Jameson, Clayton, & Ash, 2013). Moreover, strengthening alignments of assessment, course outcomes, and learning strategies increases the likelihood of building capacity for learning and student evolving identities and habits (Donald, 2002; Jameson, Clayton, & Ash, 2013). This educator workshop will offer an assessment sharing segment to collectively discuss developing strong service-learning assessment plans.

Lesson Plan Description

Title: Making service-learning a reality: A workshop for creating service-learning leadership courses

Time: 90 mins

Purpose: Helping leadership educators identify opportunities to develop service-learning leadership courses

Objectives:

- Understand components of service-learning design including leadership curriculum, partnerships, and assessment strategies
- Identify curricular elements of service-learning for syllabus development
- Identify assessment strategies or tools for evaluating reflections and student learning outcomes

Teaching Method:

1. Introductions (5 minutes)
2. Overview of service-learning design (20 minutes)
    a. Curriculum
    b. Partnerships
    c. Assessment
3. Service-learning curriculum and resources proposal planning (20 mins)
    a. Critical reflection
    b. Readings and Projects
    c. Resources (transportation, peer mentors, funding)
4. Developing partnerships proposal planning (15 minutes)
    a. Identifying partners both in community and on campus
    b. Addressing a need and sustainability of partnerships
    c. Relationship building with partners
5. Assessment proposal planning (20 minutes)
    a. Types of assessment
    b. Critical reflection
6. Service-learning design case study (5 minutes)
7. Wrap-up (5 minutes)

Discussion of Outcomes

This educator workshop will provide detailed strategies, frameworks, and best practices for designing and implementing service-leaning in leadership education. Participants will be able to identify opportunities on their campuses for developing meaningful partnerships and conceptualizing design in service-learning and leadership courses. Finally, the workshop will offer a case study example of a successful service-learning and leadership course design through mixed methods data sets. The case study will be utilized as a vehicle to illustrate how successful planning and intentional design can result in effective student learning outcomes.

The presenters will offer quantitative results from the mixed methods study, comprised of a pre-post-assessment data administered in an extensive service-learning leadership education course. The Civic Attitudes and Skills Questionnaire (CASQ) was used in assessing student change from the beginning of the course to the end. The CASQ was "designed to measure attitudes, skills, and behavioral intentions that might be affected by service-learning participation" (Moely, Mercer, Ilustre, Miron, & McFarland, 2002). The CASQ consists of six subscales: Civic Action, Interpersonal and Problem-Solving Skills, Political Awareness, Leadership Skills, Social Justice Attitudes, and Diversity Attitudes (Moely et al., 2002). Through a paired t-test, the study found increased results in leadership skills, interpersonal problem-solving, political awareness, social justice perspectives, and a decrease in modern racism.

In addition to the quantitative results, presenters will discuss qualitative findings from the mixed methods study. Over 95 student journals and final papers were analyzed using NVivo coding software using a directed content analysis. The three predominant themes from data analysis were 1) cultivating interpersonal skills, 2) building leadership capacity, and 3) developing social issue frameworks. These results showcase the deeper critical reflection of student learning outcomes and support the quantitative findings.

Workshop Implications

This workshop is designed to help leadership educators create service-learning leadership courses. Leadership and service-focused projects offer opportunities for innovative practice in the field of leadership studies and enhance positive student learning outcomes. Service-learning is a high-impact practice in higher education, creating significant learning opportunities for students and aiding in the retention and persistence of students (Kuh, 2008). Service-learning contributes to the development and preparation of students for citizenship, work, and life (Kuh, 2008). Service-learning is not a new pedagogy used in leadership education. Many educators have written about their experiences and results of using service-learning in leadership courses (Haber-Curran & Strewart, 2015; Langone, 2004; Priest, Bauer, & Fine, 2015; Seemiller, 2006; Sessa, Matos, & Hopkins, 2009). Additionally, service-learning can be a significant experience for students' understanding of community leadership and development as citizens (Dugan, 2006).

Though service-learning can be powerful for student learning in leadership courses, number of faculty reporting the use of this pedagogy in their classes is low (Jenkins, 2013). However, service-learning and leadership education share numerous outcomes for the development of students, making it a great pedagogical tool for leadership courses. We see this as a great opportunity to share literature, resources, and our experiences with leadership educators to develop their own service-learning leadership courses. Our hope is that leadership educators will have the structure and resources ready to implement the service-learning design process upon return to their home institutions, supporting leadership educators in their quest to prepare students to lead in the 21st century.

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Appendix
Worksheets

ACADEMIC LEARNING OBJECTIVES

Adapted from Howard, J. (2001).service-learning course design workbook. Ann Arbor: OCSL Press.

Course-Specific Academic Learning objectives include knowledge, skills, attitudes, and behaviors that are particular to your course. Write your current course learning objectives in the numbered spaces below, reflect on how engagement with the community might strengthen one or more of them or enable new learning objectives. Compose new or revised learning objectives in the space below the numbered spaces.

Current Academic Learning Objectives

1. _____

2. _____

3. _____

4. _____

Revised Academic Learning Objectives for Engaged Civic Learning

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

DESIGNING SERVICE-LEARNING COMPONENT

Adapted Dahan & Seligsohn from engaged civic learning course design workbook, *Rutgers-Camden*

Being deliberate about designing community-focused assignments and establishing criteria for selecting placements leads students to glean more relevant learning from their experiences making them more likely to meet course learning objectives (Eyler & Giles, 1999; Schnitzer, 2005).

Look at the Learning Objectives you developed. Then consider the following questions:

1. **What kind of placement might connect to your learning objectives? Where is the placement (a school, a child-care facility, a soup kitchen/homeless shelter, a low-income neighborhood, a community garden)?**

2. **Who does the student work with (directly with students at a school, with staff at an organization, with adults served by an agency, attendees at a series of city council meetings)?**

3. **How many "contact hours" do you think would be necessary to authentically engage with the community to achieve the revised learning goals[1]?**

DEAL Model Critical Thinking Rubric excerpts (Ash & Clayton, 2009; various)

[Modified source: Paul, R & Elder, L. 2001. The Miniature Guide to Critical Thinking. The Foundation for Critical Thinking. Santa Rosa, CA. ww.criticalthinking.org]

	1	2	3	4
Accuracy	Consistently makes inaccurate statements and/or fails to provide supporting evidence for claims	Makes several inaccurate statements and/or supports few statements with evidence	Usually but not always makes statements that are accurate and well---supported with evidence	Consistently makes statements that are accurate and well---supported with evidence
Clarity	Consistently fails to provide examples, to illustrate points, to define terms, and/or to express ideas in other ways	Only occasionally provides examples, illustrates points, defines terms, and/or expresses ideas in other ways	Usually but not always provides examples, illustrates points, defines terms, and/or expresses ideas in other ways	Consistently provides examples, illustrates points, defines terms, and/or expresses ideas in other ways
Depth	Fails to address salient questions that arise from statements being made; consistently over--- simplifies when making connections; fails to consider any of the complexities of the issue	Addresses few of the salient questions that arise from statements being made; often over--- simplifies when making connections; considers little of the complexity of the issue	Addresses some but not all of the salient questions that arise from statements being made; rarely over---simplifies when making connections; considers some but not all of the full complexity of the issue	Thoroughly addresses salient questions that arise from statements being made; avoids over---simplifying when making connections; considers the full complexity of the issue
Breadth	Ignores or superficially considers alternative points of view and/or interpretations	Gives minimal consideration to alternative points of view and/or interpretations and makes very limited use of them in shaping the learning	Gives some consideration to alternative points of view and/or interpretations and makes some use of them in shaping the learning	Gives meaningful consideration to alternative points of view and/or interpretations and makes very good use of them in shaping the learning
Fairness	Consistently represents others' perspectives in a biased or distorted way	Occasionally represents others' perspectives in a biased or distorted way	Often but not always represents others' perspectives with integrity	Consistently represents others' perspectives with integrity (without bias or distortion)

DEAL Model Bloom-based Rubric (excerpt): Academic Enhancement

1	2	3	4	5	6
Identifies a specific academic concept that you now understand better as a result of reflection on experience	Explains the academic concept (so that someone not in your class would understand it)	Applies: Considers how this academic concept emerges in your experience? (E.g., When did you see it, or note its absence? How did, or could, you or someone else use it?)	Analyzes: Compares and contrasts) your initial understanding of the academic concept in light of your experience of it	Develops an enhanced understanding of the academic concept in light of the experience.	Evaluates the completeness of the concept and/or of your understanding of the concept and/or of its use by you or others

DEAL Model Bloom-based Rubric (excerpt): Personal Growth

1	2	3	4	5	6
Identifies a personal characteristic that you now understand better as a result of reflection on experience	Explains the personal characteristic (so that someone who does not know you would understand it)	Applies: Considers how this personal characteristic does/might positively and/or negatively affect your interactions with others, your decisions, and/or your actions in your project and in other areas of your life	Analyzes the sources of this personal characteristic	Develops the steps necessary to use, improve upon, or otherwise change this personal characteristic in the short term, in project and in other areas of your life.	Evaluates your strategies for personal growth over the long term.

Selection Criteria for Service Learning Community Partner

Adapted from Howard, J. (2003). Community service learning in the curriculum. In *Introduction to service-learning toolkit: Readings and resources for faculty (2nd ed.).* Providence, RI: Campus Compact.

☐ Is the agency or organization's mission related to your course content?	
☐ How long are students placed at the site?	
☐ Is the length of service sufficient for students to successfully meet the service learning goals and for the organization to gain benefits? What evidence do you have for this?	

☐ The activities & experiences for service must provide for relevant learning opportunities.	

Leadership Programs: How to Intentionally Conceptualize, Implement, and Assess Outcomes

Abstract

For the past eleven years, our organization has used a systematic approach for leadership program conceptualization, implementation, and evaluation. Intentional programming creates a transformational experience for learners, and this workshop highlights the strategic framework our organization adopts for program creation. We will share the framework and our experiences in implementing it using two programs as examples. Further, we will cover tools, techniques, and best practices. Participants will then apply concepts from the workshop to reflect on their own programs in their respective organizations. The programs we have developed have been very successful, and the theories, tools, and techniques we adopted now form the basis of a forthcoming book in July 2018.

Introduction

This session is specifically designed for faculty and staff who develop leadership programs - we use the word "educators". We believe that developing students for a successful life after graduation requires a multifaceted approach. Part of this approach is curricular; the other part is robust co-curricular programing.

Our organization offers a continuum of co-curricular programs that address leadership competencies at the different stages of students' leadership development. We currently run nine programs plus a variety of workshops and public lectures, and all of our nine programs were created and revised based on lessons learned in the last eleven years. Our programs have been recognized by students as rigorous, intentional, and have grown immensely in popularity. For example, Program 1 started with 21 participants and now reaches over 130 students each year. To date, over 700 students have successfully completed the program.

Through the eleven years of experience with leadership program conceptualization, implementation, and assessment, we have developed, revised, and finally settled on the framework.

Leadership at our institution is described as the process of influencing and organizing a group to mobilize its resources toward accomplishing an identified goal. In this process, relationships between leaders and followers develop to enable the group to accomplish goals that individuals are not able to accomplish as effectively on their own.

Based upon the core values of integrity, authenticity, ethical and appropriate behavior, and responsibility to community, leaders create the conditions to empower others to make a lasting impact. Throughout our practice, we have found that it is important to create intentional leadership programs to empower students to become such leaders and to help create a community based on these essential leadership values.

Our institution's mission is to educate, train, and inspire the next generation of public policy leaders. Further, we seek to prepare students to enter the global workforce. Towards these ends, our programs assist students to develop their capacity for leadership through intentional programming that specifically targets the competencies in the following categories: Collaboration, Effective Communication, Effective Reasoning, Management, Self-Knowledge, Principled Action, and Having an Inter-Cultural Mindset.

As educators, we need to prepare students for leadership founded in a strong ethical and moral grounding to be successful in this fast paced, information, and technology driven era of differences. It is important to teach students to become self-aware leaders in their personal and professional life and to strive to do the right things at the right time. Practicing this practical wisdom will allow students to move to a higher level of self-awareness through experiences that will propel them to embrace the attitude of a lifelong learner. In order to achieve that, the leadership programming offered on campuses should be intentional. During the workshop, we will share the framework we use in our organization that has proven to successfully conceptualize, implement, and assess intentional leadership programs with other educators.

We will draw from theories that inform our leadership programs and share our own personal experiences using the framework as educators. We will share tools that we use, best practices, and lessons learned. We will use two programs examples that are currently offered to undergraduate students: one program was started in 2008 and the other was introduced last year in the spring of 2017. Our intent to select two programs in different phases of maturation is to highlight program development considerations at each stage and facilitate discussions with workshop participants.

Program 1: Program 1 aims to help participants develop their management skills and help them to become more effective in professional settings in preparation for leadership. It provides participants with opportunities to develop both a set of practical skills and also a theoretical framework with which to approach management and leadership.

Effective leadership begins with a keen sense of awareness of their self and their situation, and effective leaders draw upon a strong foundation of skills, knowledge, and other resources, such

as their networks. Further, effective leadership is based upon the core values of integrity, authenticity, ethical and appropriate behavior, and responsibility to community.

Program 1 trains participants within the framework that in order to understand (and lead) others effectively, individuals must understand (and lead) themselves effectively first.

• Session One: What's Your "Why" of Management and Leadership

• Session Two: Using Your Strengths for Effective Professional Communication

• Session Three: Understanding Your Strengths in the Context of Management and Leadership

• Session Four: Authentic Exchanges: The Science & Art of Building Relationships

• Session Five: Being an Effective Team Player

• Session Six: Mindful Presence to Masterful Presentation

• Session Seven: Negotiating for Success

• Session Eight: Writing and Workplace Etiquette

• Wrap Up: What Happened? So What? Now What?

• Off Campus Sessions: A Hands-on Experience to reflect on Management and Leadership issues through discussion with local organizations

Program 2 The second educator developed and designed a co-curricular program for juniors and seniors that aims to prepare students for a life of responsible leadership, teach them self-awareness, and inspire them to become lifelong learners. Its mission is to empower students to design their lives and careers in a way that aligns with their personal values, and to discover how to lead and manage themselves personally and professionally.

The program provides information and resources on opportunities for both public and private sector careers in a variety of policy-related fields, such as health, energy, international relations, social justice, urban development, law, journalism, education, or the environment. It offers practical training sessions with expert speakers, where participants reflect on how their personal values affect their life and career aspirations by assessing it from various angles.

Program 2 offers leadership training to students on the following topics:

1. Design Your Life 2. From Resume to Interviews: Reflecting Your Personal and Professional Skills 3. Be the Magic in the Room: Developing Your Leadership Presence 4. Talent Acquisition: How to Get the Job you Want? 5. Navigating Intercultural Differences in a Workplace: How to Work with Others 6. EI and Mindfulness for Personal and Professional Development

7. Financial Literacy: Managing Yourself Financially 8. Effective Negotiation Skills

By the end of this session, participants will:

• Demonstrate an understanding of the concepts of intentional program conceptualization, implementation, and assessment.

• Examine how the concepts relate to their work at their own institutions.

• Apply the concepts of intentional program conceptualization, implementation, and assessment in their programs, using tools, including the Session Proposal Form.

Review of Related Scholarship

In their forthcoming book, the two authors suggest that leadership programs should be conceptualized by starting with a strong foundation. Educators should understand the need for the programing within their target population; assess their resources ahead of time; assemble a planning and development team; research best practices and topics to focus on; and develop goals and learning outcomes that tie into the organization's mission before moving forward with developing the program.

Programs are developed intentionally when they are grounded in theory, academically rigorous, developmentally appropriate, structured as a part of a continuum, incorporate reflection as part of the curriculum, are focused on community building, and have a built-in assessment plan that creates a culture of continuous quality improvement. These seven pillars, along with the strong foundation discussed above, encompass the strategic framework for intentional program conceptualization, implementation, and assessment that we use at the Center.

Several theories, models, and frameworks are considered within this framework., including the Kolb's Cycle of Learning, L. Dee Fink's Taxonomy, and Blooms Taxonomy to develop programs that are grounded in theory, and the SMART model to set learning outcomes. When building community within our programs, we also utilize the concepts highlighted in the Social Change Model.

In our institution, we have developed a tool called Session Proposal Form that is used for the planning of individual sessions that serve as building blocks to develop an entire program. From our experience, "the Session Proposal Form has proved useful at every stage of teaching leadership – from session conceptualization, to delivery, to marketing, to assessment. Its strengths lie in its ability to create intentionality in programming, as well as an organizational framework for logistics. The form has also been used to shape detailed sessions, place them neatly into a broader program context, and facilitate discussions about session delivery with educators" ([Authors], forthcoming publication, 2018).

One of the key features of the Session Proposal form is the way in which it can be used for assessment purposes. We use a list of competencies that is based on a review of CAS (Council for the Advancement of Standards), Learning Reconsidered, and LEAP (Liberal Education & America's Promise) standards, as well as the work of Corey Seemiller.

The Session Proposal form is an example of how leadership educators should bring in assessment at every stage of programming. It is important to have a well-designed assessment at conceptualization and build a culture of continuous quality improvement and evidence-based decision making into the program.

"It helps educators or a planning team to determine how well the content is advancing student learning and how program results satisfy the interests of key stakeholders. An evidence-based plan that measures learning, satisfaction, and program efficiency can play a critical role in promoting the program and providing funding justification to donors. Thus, a well-designed assessment and evaluation system plays a critical role in measuring outcomes for the participant, for the department, and for the institution." ([Authors], forthcoming publication, 2018)

Both educators have continued to develop and revise programs in a culture of continuous quality improvement that is based on an analysis of lessons learned from implementing programs, The NACE survey, The World Economic Forum Report. Interviews from supervisors of internships.

Lesson Plan for "Leadership Programs: How to Intentionally Conceptualize, Implement, and Assess Outcomes"

The lesson plan is designed to help participants to develop new sessions or evaluate the rigor with which they are implementing existing sessions. It uses a combination of short lectures, evaluation and practice using a tool called the session proposal form. At the very beginning of the session, participants will be asked to think about one their own programs that they either want to develop or revise. At the end of the session educators will address learner objectives outlined in the introduction.

Lecture (The Learning Environment):

• Use a human centered design approach when conceptualizing programs.

• Educators must strive to improve their own self-awareness.

• Successful leadership programming starts with an examination of "why" the program is needed in the first place

• A learning environment should be "SMART" and empower students to become self- aware, examine how they work in teams and organizations to achieve societal good.

Lecture (The Foundation):

• It is important to have a foundation for strategic program conceptualization: o Identifying and Understanding the Need of the Target Population o Assessing Resources o Assembling a Planning and Development Team o Research and Benchmarking o Developing Goals and Learning Outcomes

Activity: Reflection and Practice: Why is your program needed on campus? What do you need to do to set a good foundation for your program? In small groups using a handout, participants discuss the "why" and the foundational elements listed above as they relate to their selected programs. What do they need to do? What has been successful? What barriers do they face in their own institutions? They will then discuss how well they have addressed these challenges and come up with next steps.

Lecture (The Seven Pillars): Leadership program planning and implementation is based on these seven pillars of program design:

1. Intentionality of Programs 2. Theoretical Grounding 3. Rigor 4. Structure 5. Reflection 6. Community 7. Assessment and Evaluation

Activity: Reflection and Practice: What do you need to do to incorporate the seven pillars into your program? In small groups, using a checklist handout, participants will rate their programs based on the seven pillars. They will then discuss how well they have addressed these elements and come up with next steps to further strengthen their programs.

Lecture: The session proposal form

• What is it?

• How it has been used?

• Pros and cons

Activity: Using the Session Proposal form provided in the appendix, participants will design a session for their existing or new program.

Conclusion: We intend to continue to serve as a resource for workshop participants, answering questions and having conversations.

Discussion of Outcomes and Results

Below we describe our own experiences using the framework. First, we describe our experience making changes to Program 1 to embrace a culture of continuous quality improvement through assessment and later by conceptualizing the Program 2 in 2017. The philosophy of all of our programs is continuous quality improvement. Qualitative and quantitative data are collected at various levels to make informed decisions about changes made in the programs. We use various tools to collect this data. The chart below outlines tools we use for each level of assessment.

Level of Assessment Tools Used in Programs 1 and 2

Student satisfaction and learning level Personal Leadership Challenge

Weekly session surveys Student verbal feedback

Program level SWOC analysis

Session Proposal Form Speaker verbal feedback

Organizational level SWOC

Participation completion statistics Financial data

Institutional level Analysis of achievement related to the

institutional mission

The educator responsible for Program 1 has been working for this program since the winter of 2015. The program experienced high student attrition. The educator observed the program for two terms, took a close look at student feedback, both from current and prior terms, and did some research into best practices of other leadership programs on campus and within the Center. What she noticed is the difference in how students perceive a competitive program vs. a non-

competitive program. Programs that have a competitive selection process seem to have better student retention since students are inspired to actively participate and are committed to the program as a result of their successful efforts. However, Program 1 also needed to "touch the lives of every student at some point in their four years". The educator complemented the perception of competition by adding an interview process to the program that changed its image to an intentional program designed to meet individual needs. Interviews are run by student assistants. The student assistants first outline the expectations for completing the program. Interviewees are asked to "double check" their commitments to make sure they can fully commit to the program that term and if they have a context for which to apply the concepts learned in the program. Prior to the introduction of the interview process, about 50% of participants completed the program. Today, 80% of program participants complete it.

For a program to be perceived as valuable, the program must be extremely relevant to their lives and perceived as a valuable use of time. As referenced in Teaching Leadership: Bridging Theory and Practice, "Jane Vella (2002) explains that adults learn when the content has immediate use and is relevant to their lives."

Participants of Program 1 take surveys after every session, as a reflection tool and as an assessment tool. The wrap up session shows which sessions have resonated with the participants and have memorable points and application to their lives. The educator changed some of the survey questions to promote deeper student reflection. For example, the survey asks, "how have you used lessons learned in the program this past week in your everyday life."

After reviewing the new surveys results and more in depth conversations with current and previous participants, the session line up changed to address relevancy and a continuum, of sessions that build upon each other in an intentional way. Currently, the first part of Program 1 focuses on self-awareness with sessions to help students discover their strengths and areas of needed growth. The next few sessions emphasize the importance of working effectively with others. The final segment of the program covers hard skills like public speaking, negotiation, and writing and workplace etiquette.

By getting to know the students in the program, the educators found that many of them are just starting out in their process of leadership development and need more structured guidance to apply the lessons to their lives. They developed a requirement of a personal leadership challenge. Through the "Personal Leadership Challenge" portion of the program, students identify a tangible challenge they currently face and develop goals and plans to tackle it. Sessions offer skills and practice to achieve these goals. Staff and fellow participants offer support throughout the process. Students are provided the opportunity to reflect on and share their experiences with others.

The personal leadership challenge reflections became a source of assessment and to further increase knowledge about management and leadership, the educator added visits to local organizations to discuss leadership topics with the leaders of those organizations. For example, students in the program visit a homeless shelter where there is an afterschool program. Prior to the visit, they read about how childhood trauma affects the minds of children and what homelessness looks like in this rural area. They spend time with the children for about 45 minutes. They then debrief with the Executive director who gives her experience and philosophy of leadership. Emphasizing the topics of flexibility and empathy, we discuss the articles and leadership challenges the organization faces with the populations it serves. Students walk away not only with increased awareness of the issues in the community, but also with a better understanding into how empathetic leadership is exercised within a context that is outside of their experience. Further, they are able to see an example of leadership for a purpose that is larger than the leader themselves.

The popularity of the program posed a logistical challenge when the number of applicants increased from around 45 to between 60-70 depending on the term. Best practices suggest that 20-25 learners in the room is the optimum environment for a cohesive learning community. The educator divided the group into two sections and started running back to back sessions with a half hour dinner with the whole cohort in between. During those dinners, facilitators run small group discussions on leadership topics learned in the program. All of these changes have created more interaction among the participants, a shared learning experience, and a sense of community.

In Program 1, the educator uses the session proposal forms for continuous quality improvement. By reviewing them after each session, she can see if the learning outcomes still match the content delivered. By looking at the surveys, she can gather data to make that decision.

Some memorable quotes below highlight the transformative experience our students have.

"The most important thing that I learned is that true leadership does not exist in a vacuum. While I learned many skills and tips on becoming an efficient leader, none of it matters until I actually put it to use in everyday life."

"Program 1 helped me learn that my voice matters. Even if I'm not the 'leader' of a group, I can still adopt a leadership role." This student used her voice to encourage her sorority to be more involved in community service.

The educator responsible for Program 2, which started recently, learned many lessons as well.

For Program 2, we conducted an extensive background research in 2016-17 that consisted of a campus wide survey of 950 juniors and seniors, a survey of over 400 alumni, research of similar

professional preparation programs at other colleges and universities, and research of similar leadership programs offered on our campus. In addition, we received valuable feedback about students' professional and leadership needs through focus groups with students, faculty and staff. We found that 47% of seniors didn't have a job for after graduation,45% felt somewhat prepared, and 17% felt unprepared for life after graduation. For juniors the numbers were: 89% don't have a job, 57% felt somewhat prepared, and 32% said they felt unprepared. Our findings showed that students felt overwhelmed and stressed during their senior year. This indicated the need for the creation of a professional preparation program that would help students identify their life and career path, and provide resources and training to build the necessary leadership and professional skills to become successful after graduation.

Our marketing campaign included campus-wide emails, individually targeted emails to juniors and seniors, information sessions conducted by student program assistants at their living and learning communities and paper posters distributed throughout campus.

This program was implemented in the spring of 2017. We had 30 applications and 16 constant participants in the program. Its flexible structure offered two tracks: 1) for students who already had a job; and 2) for students who were applying for jobs. The program offerings included mandatory and optional sessions. Although the program was cohort based for mandatory sessions, it also welcomed students from around campus for the optional sessions. In total, the program offered 7 sessions, and provided 14 hours of instruction for 56 unique students with the expertise of 9 instructors. The session topics included:

1. Negotiation Skills in the Job Search Process 2. MBTI Assessment and Self-Discovery 3. Resume and Cover Letter Writing Tips" Coaching Session 4. Professionalism and Challenges in a Workplace 5. Emotional Intelligence and Mindfulness 6. Navigating Intercultural Differences in the Workplace 7. Financial Literacy

We consistently used the Session Proposal Form to design and plan individual sessions with speakers, to evaluate individual sessions, and to conduct assessment on a larger scale at the end of the program.

In order to evaluate Program 2, we conducted surveys at the end of each session and created the final program report to analyze the program's strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and challenges. The program proved to be successful in many ways, which were reflected in the feedback that we received from students after their graduation. Several students reached out sharing their gratitude after getting a job and settling into a new workplace.

After analyzing the feedback from students both in survey form and in conversations, we have revised the lineup of the sessions. Many students felt that they did not have a clear understanding of what they wanted to do for their career, so we added the "Design Your Life" session at the beginning of the program. Participants really appreciated having the opportunity to get personalized feedback for their resumes and cover letters, but also emphasized that they would have liked to get more specific information about the interview process and preparation as well. That's why we also restructured the "Resume and Cover Letter Writing Tips" Coaching Session into two separate sessions: 1) "From Resume to Interviews: Reflecting Your Personal and Professional Skills" that covers tips for successful resume and cover letter writing; and 2) "Be the Magic in the Room: Developing Your Leadership Presence" which focuses on authenticity and integrity.

Having mandatory and optional sessions presented some logistical challenges. Optional sessions required campus-wide marketing to raise awareness about them. This spring 2018 we are mixing things up by having students select the sessions they want to attend in the application based on their self-identified needs. We discuss their commitment to the program and the sessions they sign up for during interviews and reiterate the importance of showing up as a leader and building a community.

We are extremely encouraged with the application numbers in the second round of this new program.

Workshop Plan & Implications

This workshop is intended to be interactive. By engaging in this session, participants will have the opportunity to examine the strategic framework of intentional program conceptualization, implementation, and assessment. Through experiential activities, participants will reflect critically on how intentional program development can be applied on their campuses. They will practice applying the strategic foundation and seven pillars using the handouts that provides them with an assessment of intentionality and next steps to take in their own program planning processes. We will also introduce a Session Proposal Form created and regularly used as an organizing principle. Participants will be invited to use this tool to plan a session within a program or a one-time event, and will be able to apply it in a wide variety of ways including working it into their own organizations assessment strategy.

Appendices

Session Proposal Form Handout

Handout A - Program Concept Checklist Handout B - Prog Imp and eval checklist

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Formatting changed to fit to page Organization Name Session Proposal Form

[Program Name] Session Proposal Session Title & Speaker Thank you for contributing to the success of our program. Please complete the following proposal form, which ensures consistency throughout our program and facilitates in the overall assessment of our program's learning objectives and competencies.

Program specific criteria:

• **Session duration is [tailored to specific agenda needs]**

• **Target level of complexity of session content is [introductory to intermediate | intermediate | intermediate to advanced]**

• **Audience is composed of [number and year of students]**

• **Primary point-of-contact for [program] is [Educator's name, email, & phone.]**

• For more information about [program], please visit: [webpage link]

Co-curricular programs at our organization follow the Kolb cycle of learning: theory-based knowledge, experiential learning, reflection, and concrete application.

Part 1. Speaker Information and Session Administration & Logistics Your Name: Your Title: Your Institution or Affiliation: Brief Bio: Please provide a brief bio of 200 words or less. Photo:

Part 2. Session Proposal Session Title: Maximum 10 words Session Description: Please provide a brief description of the session, maximum 150 words. Learning Objectives: Objectives should be SMART: (Specific, Measurable, Appropriate,Realistic, and Time-bound.) Please limit to 3 objectives. Key Concepts and Definitions: Please list up to 3 key concepts that your session will focus on and how you define those concepts. Examples of key concepts may include authenticity, integrity, empowerment, creativity, risk taking, results, autonomy/independence, accuracy, growth, excellence/mastery. Reflection Questions: What questions should our students be asking themselves when the session is over? Please limit to 3 questions.

Session Outline or Lesson Plan: Please provide an outline of how you will use the time to present your material. What types of activities will you utilize, and in what order will you use them? Total programming should not exceed the session duration listed on page 1.

Time Required (mins) Description

Required Readings –(optional): Please limit required reading to a total of 20 pages. Additional Resources: What resources would you recommend on this topic? Please feel free to include books, articles, websites, multimedia, TedTalks, etc.

Leadership Competencies Addressed:

Please indicate which of the following leadership competencies your session focuses on and seeks to develop within students. Collaboration ❑ Builds and maintains partnerships based on shared purpose ❑ Acknowledges and listens to different voices when making decisions and taking action ❑ Facilitates collective action toward common goals ❑ Encourages, supports and recognizes the contributions of others ❑ Fosters a welcoming and inclusive environment

Effective Communication ❑ Writes and speaks after reflection ❑ Clearly articulates ideas in a written and spoken form ❑ Exhibits effective listening skills ❑ Influences others through writing, speaking, or artistic expression ❑ Acknowledges and appropriately communicates in situations with divergent opinions and values

Effective Reasoning ❑ Employs critical thinking in problem solving ❑ Employs creative thinking in problem solving ❑ Develops personal reflective practice ❑ Engages in inquiry, analysis, and follow-through ❑ Integrates multiple types of information to effectively solve problems or address issues

Management ❑ Develops and implements a plan for goal attainment ❑ Develops appropriate strategies for capitalizing on human talent ❑ Stewards and maximizes all resources ❑ Manages multiple priorities ❑ Prepares for leadership transition ❑ Develops appropriate strategies for effective team work ❑ Evaluates efficacy of current course(s) of action ❑ Identifies structure and culture of organization ❑ Demonstrates effective and appropriate use of technology ❑ Demonstrates financial, task, and resource management skills

Self-knowledge ❑ Continually explores and examines values and views ❑ Understands social identities of self and others ❑ Demonstrates realistic understanding of one's abilities ❑ Seeks opportunities for continued growth ❑ Takes appropriate action towards potential benefits despite possible failure ❑ Shows self-respect and respect for others ❑ Moves beyond self-imposed limitations ❑ Practices self-compassion, friendliness, ease with self, and vulnerability

Principled Action ❑ Identifies and commits to appropriate ethical framework ❑ Demonstrates congruence between actions and values ❑ Demonstrates personal responsibility ❑ Appropriately challenges the unethical behavior of individuals or groups ❑ Bases actions on thoughtful consideration of their impact and consequences ❑ Seeks appropriate and mutually beneficial solutions when conflict or controversy arises

Inter-Cultural Mindset ❑ Contextualizes social identities and experiences ❑ Understands, communicates with, and respectfully interacts with people across identities ❑ Actively engages in opportunities to expand worldview ❑ Applies inter-cultural knowledge and skills in local, national and/or global contexts

Handout A: Program Conceptualization Checklist

The Foundation

Target Population: Who are they? What are their Needs?

Resources: Financial and Human?

Who Should be on the Development team

What Research and Benchmarking has been done?

What are the Program Goals and Learning Outcomes?

The Seven Pillars Rating Sheet Rate your program using following scale:1 for not considered at all in program conceptualization; 3 for partly considered; and 5 for considered heavily in program conceptualization

Pillar Rating Reflections and Next Steps

Intentionality of Programs

Theoretical Grounding

Rigor

Structure

Reflection

Community

Assessment and Evaluation

Handout B: Program Implementation and Evaluation Checklist

Planning and Implementation:

Create Schedule

Identify Speakers/ Partners

Topics and Learning Outcomes

Venue

Advertisement/ marketing/ outreach

Supplies (handouts, food, etc.)

Assessment (end of session surveys)

Evaluation: How are you measuring success? What are tools you used to evaluate your programs?

Levels of Evaluation Tools

Student Satisfaction and Learning Level

Program Level

Organizational Level

Institutional Level

Seeing things as we are: Exploring assumptions and perspective taking in leadership education

Abstract

An essential skill for today's leaders is the ongoing testing and critical reflection of one's assumptions in order to effectively collaborate with the diverse make-up of our organizations. This Educator Workshop engages participants in an experiential exercise that allows for critical self-reflection of perspective and its shift depending on context, group dynamics, and assumed roles. Presenters debrief on further application and conclude by providing additional tools, resources, and activities for exploring assumptions and perspective taking to enhance leadership educator instructional strategies.

Introduction

In order to most appropriately address today's global crises, we must adopt new paradigms of thinking and innovative action (Gill, 2012). A new type of leadership is needed, where the ongoing testing of assumptions and thought processes is essential (Kegan & Lahey, 2001). Global and intercultural leaders will need to be able to address, shift, and develop new paradigms in order to best address the diversity among their followers and within their institutions (Chin, 2010). Acknowledging one's worldview and the many differing worldviews that exist provides significant insight into the challenges that leaders face in this new and changing context (Sowell, 1994).

The opportunity and safe space to question these underlying assumptions should start in the classroom. The ability to address and shift paradigms will allow students to address issues of equity, social justice, and diversity, promoting a more inclusive environment, and removal of barriers (Chin, 2010). Interventions that allow students to explore their assumptions, take differing perspectives, and enhance their level of self-awareness will help promote more effective leaders to address these global problems.

"Leadership development is less directly concerned with developing a set of discrete skills and is increasingly concerned with participants' underlying assumptions and how these shape possibilities for the future" (Kennedy, Carroll, & Francoeur, 2013, p. 10). This shift of scholarly research among leadership studies outlines the difference between skillset and mindset (Kennedy, et al., 2013). Due to the complexity of today's global uncertainty, ambiguity, and need for collaboration within our organizations and industries, a shift in leadership calls for a need to address underlying assumptions and paradigms about the nature of the social world.

This Educator Workshop provides the content, pedagogy, and delivery for how to effectively and experientially introduce the concepts of underlying assumptions and perspective taking in

leadership classrooms. Upon completion of this Educator Workshop, participants will meet the following learner objectives:

1. Develop a scholarly, theoretical, and practical understanding of perspective taking and paradigms;
2. Learn strategies to aid students/participants in becoming more self-aware of their assumptions and engaging in perspective taking for their leadership and/or communication courses and work with teams; and
3. Engage in discussion for addressing assumptions and perspectives today's organizations and communities.

Review of Related Scholarship

Paradigms and Assumptions in Leadership

A paradigm is a "set of basic beliefs (or metaphysics) that deals with first principles," representative of "worldviews that define, for its holder, the nature of the 'world,' the individual's place in it, and the range of possible relationships to the world and its parts" (Guba & Lincoln, 1994, p. 107). These underlying values shape our conceptions of ethics, progress, science, and development (Gill, 2012) and are embedded in our socialization, showing what is important, legitimate, and reasonable (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

One's mindset and beliefs can hinder the ability to adopt new leadership paradigms. The challenge with identifying and fostering leadership is due to the assumptions related to the individual's idea of leadership that they carry with them into experiences (Drath, 2001). Because of this, individuals may be resistant when introduced to new concepts of leadership, simply due to the clash with deeply held beliefs (Avery, 2004). In addition, resistance to new paradigms can also come from individuals who find giving up control challenging (Avery, 2004). One's place in a system, structure, or culture will also inhibit the adoption of new paradigms. New paradigm shifts are complex and could take a significant amount of time for adoption or shifting of perspective (Avery, 2004).

As beliefs that guide actions, our paradigms provide both benefits and inhibitors (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994). While they allow leaders to make action possible, they also may hide the reason behind our actions when assumptions of the paradigm are unquestioned (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). This construction of reality informs leaders of what they know and identify as 'truth' (Gostnell, 1996) and often even if we think we are open minded, we make decisions or take actions with little data to support them (Gladwell, 2005). Therefore, it becomes essential for leadership educators to instill an understanding of why the questioning of assumptions is important as well as to develop skills to identify and critically question those underlying assumptions that directly impact our behavior.

The examination of ones' paradigms and mindsets within leadership development is not new; many scholars have previously explored assumptions and patterns of thinking with contemporary societal shifts (Anderson & Anderson, 2001). Avery (2004) introduced four leadership paradigms, representative of four broad sets of ideas along a continuum: classical, transactional, visionary, and organic leadership. These varying perspectives of leadership highlight the differences in behavior, beliefs, power, processes, and applications of leadership based on one's underlying assumptions. By understanding these, paradigms can become

flexible to adapt to different situations and contexts, where leadership may be developed and understood differently among varying groups of people (Avery, 2004). Despite the fact that leaders are likely to demonstrate particular preferences for these paradigms, effective leadership exhibits an understanding and use of several paradigms, depending on the situation or leaders' personal preferences.

Research on opening new paradigms in leadership has been situated in various contexts such as Rohan's (2010) study wherein the introduction of leadership paradigms with high school students was introduced via the concept of transformational leadership through both curriculum and pedagogy, as well as leadership style of the teacher. Results of the study concluded that a paradigm shift from transaction to transformational leadership emerged as a common factor in the role-models of the students. Additionally, Gostnell (1996) explored a beginning theory of
Black women's leadership paradigm, through a multitude of interviews, which embraced a set of behaviors and assumptions built upon connectedness with, and responsibility for others. This paradigm of connected leadership challenged traditional leadership paradigms, providing a more contextual, holistic view that explored the social, environmental, and personal conditions of leadership.

Self-awareness and Leadership

The characteristic of self-awareness is most commonly associated with authenticity. A leader's self-awareness of their values, cognitions, and emotions is a significant component of authentic leadership development theory. Authenticity requires heightened levels of self-awareness and the development of this type of leadership requires ongoing self-reflection and the establishment of open, transparent, trusting, and genuine relationships between leaders and followers (Avolio & Gardner, 2005). Such development can be enhanced by interventions and training on self- awareness (Avolio, 2005).

Self-awareness occurs when an individual is aware of his or her own existence and what constitutes that existence within the context that they continue to operate and lead over time (Silvia & Duval, 2001). Through this definition, self-awareness is not necessarily an end-goal, but an ongoing process of deeper understanding of one's own strengths, purpose, values, beliefs, and desires (Avolio & Gardner, 2005).

A significant amount of research has demonstrated the benefits of self-awareness among leaders (Eriksen, 2009). High levels of self-awareness have been associated with high levels of leadership competence (Fletcher, 1997), individual and organizational performance (Moshavi, Brown, & Good, 2003), follower attitudes, behaviors, and performance (Avolio & Gardner, 2005), and emotional intelligence (Higgs & Dulewicz, 2002).

Through their study related to leaders and organizational change, Higgs and Rowland (2010) identified significant benefits of enhancing the self-awareness of an organization's leadership. Leaders with significantly higher self-awareness had a heightened consciousness of how to use their presence in a change process, were able to work in the moment, stay attentive and expectant to what arose, and were able to stay in tune with the bigger picture, further

encouraging their organization to see and lead for the whole. In order for organizations to move forward, leaders must be able to step back with a detached level of self-awareness. In order to support leaders of change, the researchers suggest that interventions and programming designed to enhance self- awareness should be implemented in order to enhance this capacity (Higgs & Rowland, 2010). Although these recommendations are intended to be implemented at the organizational level, higher education also has a stake in establishing a foundation for the development of self- awareness in our students. Thus, for both educators of professionals and pre-professionals, focusing on this aspect of leadership is an essential piece of holistic development.

Lesson Plan Description Floating

Stick Exercise (25 minutes)

Conference participants will first engage in the 'floating stick' activity before any introductions to the topic are made. The 'floating stick' activity has been implemented in various contexts and disciplines for teambuilding. For the purpose of this workshop, it will be facilitated with a twist; the objective of the activity is for a team of people to stand on either side of a tent pole and work to collectively lower the pole from the participants' chests down to the ground, while balanced on their index fingers. There are two rules that must be followed while attempted to achieve this purpose:

1) The pole must remain in contact with all fingers the entire time.
2) If someone loses contact with the pole, the group must begin at the starting position again.

Although this appears to be an easy task, the lightness of the pole makes lowering it together while maintaining contact with all index finger, makes this task deceptively challenging. The caveat to this exercise will be how team members on either side of the tent pole are primed. The team will be divided into two equal groups and meet with one of the workshop facilitators. Both groups will be told that they "are the most hardworking employees in the organization, who always try their very best to get the task accomplished." Thus, as they approach the task, they will assume the other side has been primed with different instructions. The team will then attempt to lowering the 'floating stick' with only 20 minutes. The facilitators will observe the exercise to ensure that the participants' index fingers stay in contact with the stick, as well as reiterate the goal of the activity: "to lower to the ground together while everyone maintains contact with the stick."

Assumptions and Mindset Discussion (20 minutes)

At the conclusion of the above exercise, the following discussion questions will be proposed:

How did you feel as you began the activity?

This discussion should explore emotions that arose as participants were starting the activity and can reveal how they react when faced with the uncertainty of others' motives. How did these emotions impact the goal or objective of the exercise? Which specific emotions arose for participants and why? What specifically (i.e., what participant behaviors) triggered these emotions and how did they impact your own performance/behavior?

Additionally, although both teams were given the same instructions as to what do to with the stick, they may have assumed that the participants on the other side were working against their

end goal. Identifying these emotions aids in revealing how flexible or inflexible our mindset is when working on a task with others who we assume may not be on the same page. In addition, this discussion can explore why the participants did or did not seek to learn more information about their teammates. Why might there be barriers to seeking additional information?

What assumptions did you have when you started this exercise, and how did that play a role in the process?

If the group did not reveal how the facilitators prompted them during the activity, this is where it is revealed. Participants may have been leery of trusting those on the other side of the stick as they suggested ideas for completing the task or have become frustrated when their suggestions were not taken. This can be a valuable lesson on the assumptions we hold about the roles that we take on in groups and organizations, the roles that others should or should not take on, as well as how we approach working with others.

How well did the group cope with the challenge?

Participants will reflect on the group dynamics and how the activity unfolded. Guide the group to identify the roles that each person played in working toward the common goal. Discussing how adaptable the group was to different ideas on how to complete the task illuminates the mindset of the group as well as how we work with others we may not know very well. This discussion can also be linked to how people's emotions changed over time as they worked on the task. Were they able to focus after the initial confusion or did their mindset hinder their full participation?

What other situations are like the 'floating stick?'

Participants can share either hypothetical situations, where assumptions play a role in the effectiveness of a group or organization, or examples that they have personally experienced. This helps to reveal ways in which participants have dealt with challenging situations as well as how our judgments and underlying assumptions can influence the culture of an organization. The discussion can lead to how we approach situations differently depending on how we positively or negatively view a person or situation as well as when circumstances demand seeking of more information. What are some areas that you are currently involved professionally where your own perspective influences your behaviors or others' behaviors in the organization? How were those perspectives formed or originally influenced?

Assumptions and Self-Awareness Information (20 minutes)

At the conclusion of the activity and debrief, workshop facilitators will provide the theoretical background of paradigms and self-awareness and how it connects to leadership and communication. Participants will not only gain an understanding of the roles our paradigms play in U.S. contexts, but also how these work in intercultural contexts. As an extension of this topic, reflection as the process of critically thinking about behaviors, attitudes, beliefs and values (Roberts, 2008) will be discussed as a means to incorporate self-awareness and

paradigm shift work into a course, workshop, programming, or consulting work with teams. Scholarly research as well as case study examples will be presented in order to provide a broad range of resources.

Imbedding Activities that Support Paradigm Shifts (25 minutes)

Following the presentation of the theoretical background and case studies, additional activities that support students' development of perspective taking will be introduced. Included in this segment of the workshop will be a discussion of how building a foundation of self-awareness and perspective taking can be reinforced throughout a course or project. The goal is to continuously embed the practice of self-reflection and perspective taking into a course or program so that this becomes more habitual. Critical reflection necessitates questioning the assumptions that are encompassed in both theory and professional practice (Reynolds, 1999); thus, critical reflection is a key tool for facilitating paradigm shifts. A myriad of topics covered in leadership studies, such as cultural norms, diversity, and empathy as well as critical, transformational, and authentic leadership theories, lend themselves to students being able to see a need or issue from a different perspective. However, digging deeper into these topics to avoid superficiality requires the attention and engagement by the students. The presenters will go through a variety of activities that include videos, drawing, exercises, and discussion to add to the conference attendees' instructional toolbox.

Discussion of Outcomes/Results

The 'floating stick' activity was first experienced by the workshop presenters at an international academic conference; therefore, their experience influenced how it has been adapted to fit the needs of an undergraduate leadership course as well as teambuilding for university staff. For undergraduate students, it was important to use it as a jumping off point for further discussion of paradigms and assumptions that occurred throughout the semester. The students naturally enjoyed the activity as it got them out of their seats and interacting in a different way; however, being purposeful in the debrief is important in order to build upon these concepts and engage them in reflection. The activities presented in the final portion of the final section of this workshop's lesson plan can be implemented at different points in the semester and the presenters have discovered is that the framing of the activity can be changed dependent on the needs of the students and the topics being covered. Incorporating self-awareness and paradigm activities at different points aids in testing and re-testing how students approach situations to further develop their self-awareness. Students in this leadership development course are also required to write a weekly journal to reflect on topics that resonated with them. For many, "thinking outside the box" and "being out of their comfort zone" were comments that were made throughout the semester related to the activities in class.

For university staff, this initial exercise became a very engaging and participatory starting point for an ongoing conversation about effective communication among differing perspectives and personality types. Throughout the multi-day workshop, participants drew from this initial exercise to further reflect on their own natural 'come from,' allowing opportunity to explore their natural, instinctual reactions towards their teammates. This critical reflection allowed for them to continue to see how these reactions might require intentional

opportunities to pause in order to respond most appropriately with their colleagues coming from alternative perspectives.

Workshop Implications

Workshop participants will gain a deeper sense of how assumptions play a role in how they approach working with others. As leadership educators, we most likely have been taught the strategies and significance of self-reflection, yet we can still find ourselves making judgements when entering new situations. By continuing to delve into how critically questioning our assumptions and withholding judgment can mitigate conflict and promote more positive organizational cultures, we can begin to sharpen our self-awareness skills. When taking on the role of leadership educator, we must also avoid assumptions about how students have been taught to do perspective taking and self-reflection of their own experiences and how this has influenced their paradigm. Leadership topics such as conflict management, working in effective teams, and well-accepted theory includes self-awareness; thus it should be imbedded in the personal and holistic development of students. By introducing students to the pitfalls of assumptions, fixed mindsets, and snap judgments, the foundation can be set for continuous self- reflection throughout a course. Having various experiential activities related to these complex concepts can support the educator's ability to engage students in this process.

Additionally, when working with teams, addressing the role that assumptions play in managing conflict and influencing productivity can also be breached through experiential activities. By collectively exploring and self-reflecting on the multitude of assumptions that one holds towards the group, the more effectively a group may function with authenticity. This reflection allows for further understanding of a team's diverse make-up, including roles (identified or prescribed), behaviors, and communication.

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Implementing a Dialogic Process for Social Change: Dialogue for Uncertain Times

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Abstract

We are losing confidence in our political institutions and in each other. With society increasingly facing complex challenges, the future of universities and communities are intertwined. Colleges and universities can play an integral role in involving a broad range of people and perspectives in ways that lead to positive social change. This workshop utilizes the *Public Conversations Project* process as it applies to the Social Change Model for community engagement and change. A dialogic process was implemented in conjunction with the Mayor's office for over 1000 citizens in Middle Tennessee on "Race, Equity and Leadership." This workshop will lead participants in a simulation applying this method to a real world issue and discuss the outcomes of the dialogue and implications for students of leadership.

Introduction

The primary mission of colleges and universities is to educate and prepare students to become leaders within their communities for the betterment of society (Astin and Astin, 2000). This work is happening in the classroom as well as through the service learning opportunities that many universities across the country offer. However, the literature specifically related to the influence of higher education on college students capacity for leadership is relatively sparse (Dugan & Komives, 2010). University administrators and professors must go deeper to develop the leadership skills of students by teaching them to collaborate for sustainable change in the communities in which they live, work, play and ultimately serve. Often lacking in this effort are well structured methods for universities to engage with communities around the most challenging issues facing them.

At a small private liberal arts college in Tennessee, a graduate degree in Civic Leadership is designed to increase focused attention on civic challenges and to prepare students to meet them. One of the possible models to develop students' leadership skills that is taught in the Civic Leadership program is the Social Change Model (SCM) of Leadership. The model promotes the values of social justice, equality, self-knowledge, empowerment, collaboration, citizenship and service to the community (HERI, 1996). This curriculum, when fused with intentional theoretical and application-based activities, creates a well-rounded experience (Buschlen and Dvorak, 2011).

As much as leadership educators attempt to impart these values, they also must be tested in the community in which a university is embedded. Sometimes, public will needs university skill to catalyze social change. The aforementioned University aspires to help shape and practice a different approach to leadership and public service, built on a model of civil discourse, innovation and bold action. Students are learning to ask the right questions, listen to understand, collaborate to serve, and to use collective impact to create. The way this happens is through cross-sector collaboration around issues of mutual concern.

In the summer of 2016, students in the graduate program in Civic Leadership asked the right question of a representative of the Mayors' Office. The representative and several members of the Metropolitan Council joined the class for a discussion on "Participating in State and Local Politics as a Civic Leader." The conversation was timely. One of the students asked, "what is the Mayor's response to all that is happening in this country and how do we ensure we don't become a Baton Rouge, Louisiana; Falcon Heights, Minnesota; or Dallas Texas?" Earlier in the week, there were three shootings by Police of unarmed black men and the deadly shooting rampage by a citizen killing five police officers in Dallas, TX. The response from the Mayor's Office was thoughtful and communicated the heart of the Mayor. The Mayor wanted to have conversations in the community. To listen to the constituency and to learn from them. However, the conversation was to be held "within the next two weeks" with 1000 people, in a town hall format. This format went directly against the type of inclusive dialogue we were teaching. The researcher/presenter offered a different way to dialogue to the Mayor's Office representative, the dialogic process as designed by the *Public Conversations Project* (Herzig & Chasin, 2006). The representative took the information back to the Mayor. The University was chosen as the convener for the Mayors Conversations on *Race and Social Equity* with 150 leaders and ultimately for the larger dialogue on *Race, Equity and Leadership* with nearly 1000 citizens.

The purpose of the dialogue was for participants to provide an honest assessment about life in their city and how they could improve as a community as it related to race and inequality. Conducting the dialogue as opposed to a town hall meeting secures an expanded and diverse group of leaders. Through this process students from the College, as well as faculty and staff of the University engaged in the dialogic process with over 1000 people participating bringing together the public, Metro Government representatives, and community organizations from across the city. The process resulted in the identification of 10 issue areas (e.g. community empowerment, criminal justice, health disparities and public education/youth) for participants to critically respond and ultimately for the Metropolitan Government to develop a plan to implement to address the aforementioned issues.

The purpose of this workshop will be to apply the Social Change Model for adult student leadership development utilizing the dialogic process and ways it can be applied to community engagement and change. The Social Change Model for leadership development is a model primarily used and studied in undergraduate education. The workshop will give evidence of its successful use for adult learners showing participants of the workshop how they might implement a dialogic process in their own communities.

Learning objectives include

1. The Social Change Method as a means for developing leadership in students
2. The dialogic process as a way to engage the community in social change
3. The dialogic process as a technique and structure for talking about and moving through serious issues
4. The use of the dialogic process as a way to develop relationships, mitigate power differentials, heal and restore, identify issues and clarify them, and/or move to action on issues

Review of Related Scholarship

Many citizens have lost faith in our democracy and young people are showing apathy to getting involved in political systems through voting and/or influencing the political process. Acknowledging this need, colleges and universities should undertake the development of a new generation of leaders. As Alexis de Toqueville (1969) pointed out, each new generation is a new people that must acquire the knowledge, learn the skills, and develop the dispositions or traits of private and public character that undergirds a constitutional democracy. In general, researchers agree that it is important for individuals to develop a civic identity based on a sense of connection to their community and an understanding that the connection entails responsibilities to engage in activities that benefit both them and the communities in which they live (Atkins & Hart, 2003). Additionally, active citizenship confers benefits to include the development of social connections and networks that promote both personal and community development (Balsano, 2010). Universities can enhance their overall mission of teaching, research and service by working to improve the quality of life in their local communities through the leadership development of its students. These institutions already serve as living laboratories of social innovation. Therefore, the wealth of knowledge existing there can provide rich opportunities for students based on collaborative projects that serve both the institution and the community (Astin, 1996).

The Social Change Model (SCM) of Leadership was developed in response to this growing need specifically for undergraduate college students. Astin (1996) stated that she and colleagues designed this "college-based program of leadership development to be used in training and developing leaders who will effect positive change in the many areas of national and international affairs" (p. 4). The principles of the model are that values demand a conscious focus, leadership ought to bring about desirable change, leadership is a process and not a position, all students are potential leaders, and service is a powerful vehicle for developing leaders (Astin, 1996). Leadership development has been linked to several additional developmental outcomes among college students, including multicultural awareness, personal and societal awareness, and civic responsibility (Cress, Astin, Zimmerman-Oster & Burkhardt, 2001). Thus, student leadership development begins with the individual self, and moves outward toward the level of community (as defined by the student), and ultimately toward the greater society.

Examples abound when considering the many ways in which student's community experiences can foster their development of socially responsible leadership (Soria, Nobbe & Fink, 2013). In working with community organizations, students can learn to collaborate and work effectively on a team. Students may also become inspired to engage in promoting social justice by directly witnessing the results of social injustice (Sorria, Nobbe & Fink, 2013), e.g racial discrimination, gender discrimination, public school inequality in poor income areas, etc. More specifically, they begin to understand the values of a community as it relates to injustice, the values of opportunity, community (working together) and equity. Shared values encourage aspirational, hopeful thinking as well as the development of relationships, which is a better place to start when

entering dialogue than fear and anxiety ("The Opportunity Agenda" 2017). Opening conversations with values provides a bridge from shared values to the roles of racial equity and inclusion in fulfilling those values for all. Doing so can move audiences into a frame of mind that is more solution- oriented and less mired in skepticism. How we talk is important. Dialogue must address the issues of equity before it can be successful (Romney, 2005).

The dialogic process provides a conceptual framework for applying the SCM model to working in groups to achieve sustainable community change. This is a process in which people from as many parts of the community as possible, involved in serious conflict, exchange information, face-to-face, in an effort to create better understanding (Herzig & Chasin 2006). Dialogue is a moment where humans meet to reflect on their reality as they make it and remake it…through dialogue, reflecting together on what we know and don't know, we can then act critically to transform reality (Friere, 1970). It creates a "holding environment" for productive conflict and challenge which is often at the heart of leadership (Heifetz, 1994).

The specific dialogic process utilized for the purpose of this proposal is a relationship-centered approach authored by the *Public Conversations Project* (Herzig & Chasin, 2006). This method is based on:

- Preparing people for new conversations
- Reflecting on one's own and others' perspectives
- Using shared agreements that guide the conversation
- Encouraging curiosity and honest questions
- Structured conversation that prevents old, unproductive patterns and enhances listening and speaking respectfully

Leadership educators need a deeper understanding of how innovative practices, such as the dialogic process, can be used within the SCM of leadership to equip students to lead in these uncertain times. The process also serves as a good lesson for universities staying in close dialogue with the cities in which they serve and challenging their current methods of approaching tough issues. The challenges that communities face as they position themselves for long-term success are not technical problems with engineered fixes (Heifetz & Linsky, 2002). They are adaptive challenges stemming from the interaction of many interrelated trends. Understanding this complex environment, again, requires contributions from many people operating from a variety of perspectives (Heifetz and Linsky, 2002). It should be noted, though that engaging in dialogue with many actors can also stymie a group in moving to concrete action that ultimately will make a difference on the issue at hand (Easterling & Millesen, 2012). Building individual capacity as taught in the SCM, to discuss issues of social justice is one very important step in the process, which is the personal value portion of the model. However, effective problem solving on the community level is desired and can be attained when expressed and practiced in the group work of the dialogue. Collaboration within the group values component of SCM teaches students to recognize that working with others with multiple talents and perspectives increases effectiveness of the group by harnessing the power of diversity to generate creative solutions, actions (Astin, 1996) and social change. Civility in the dialogue on controversial viewpoints is achieved when there is open and honest dialogue backed by the groups commitment to understand the sources of the disagreement and to work cooperatively toward common solutions. Having dialogue in this way can ameliorate many of the issues of inequity plaguing our society today.

Lesson Plan Description

Title: Implementing a Dialogic Process for Social Change: Dialogue for Uncertain Times
Time: 90 minutes

Purpose: The purpose of this workshop will be to share the methodology of the Social Change Model (SCM) for Leadership Development and how to apply it utilizing the framework of the dialogic process. Participants will leave the educator workshop with the resources to implement these models at their Institution and in their communities.

Learning objectives include:

1. The Social Change Model as a means for developing leadership in students
2. The dialogic process as a way to engage the community
3. The dialogic process as a technique and structure for talking about and moving through serious issues
4. The use of the dialogic process as a way to develop relationships, mitigate power differentials, heal and restore, identify issues and clarify them, and/or move to action on issues

Teaching Methods:

1. Upon entering the room, participants will be asked to sit at round tables that mirror the dialogic process.

2. Introduction (5 minutes)
    a. Brief introduction of the facilitator
    b. State objectives of the workshop

3. Pre-assessment. Activate prior knowledge (5 minutes)
    a. Facilitator will ask the participants to introduce themselves to one another and dialogue at their tables about how they have seen the dialogic process play out.
    b. Facilitator will walk around the room and listen to dialogic process to gauge participants' background knowledge and interest

4. Discuss and give examples of how universities can impact communities for social change (10 minutes)
    a. Utilize PowerPoint to review relevant literature around universities impact on community
    b. Share excerpts of the curriculum design of the graduate degree in Civic Leadership, its relationship to SCM for development of students for leadership in community and the dialogic process as a valuable tool for making the relationship between the values of common purpose, controversy with civility and citizenship work

5. Dialogic Process Overview (20 minutes)

a. Utilize PowerPoint to define and train workshop participants on the process to include process goals, an overview of the communication agreements and sample dialogue questions
b. Discuss the possible uses for the process
c. Show video clip of Nashville's Dialogue on *REAL Talk: a Forum on Race, Equity and Leadership*
d. Discuss the use of the process in this proposal as it relates to social injustice, particularly race in America, and gaps between what we know and what we see happen with local government actions in a community around key issues.
    i. Introduce key components utilized in the training (handouts already on the table)

6. Simulation: At the round tables, participants will go through a shortened dialogic process answering pre-assigned questions (30 minutes)
    i. Complete this sentence: "The word I bring to this table is ____: the word I hope to take away is _____.
    ii. Based on what you have learned heretofore, what are two questions you would like to have the facilitator answer?
    iii. As a contributing member of your institution, what keeps you up at night regarding what you see/hear happening in the community?
    b. A facilitator and scribe will be assigned for each table
    c. Each table will report out the highlights of their discussion and how they might move from discussion to action

7. Debrief the process (10 minutes)
    a. Results and impact of the discussions in Nashville, lessons learned and where the researcher sees next steps
    b. Participants share out one take away: "I used to think __, but now I know ___."

8. Conclusion – (5 minutes)
    a. Question and Answers
    b. Facilitator contact information

Discussion of Outcomes Results

The dialogic process as designed by the *Public Conversations Project* (Herzig & Chasin, 2006) was presented as an option for dialogue to a southern Metropolitan Government to convene the Mayors Conversations on "Race and Social Equity" with an estimated 150 leaders and ultimately for the larger dialogue on *'"REAL" Talk: A Forum on Race Equity and Leadership"* with nearly 1000 citizens. The researcher/presenter was tapped to co-facilitate the discussions. The purpose of the dialogues was for participants to provide an honest assessment about life in their city and how they could improve as a community as it related to race and inequality. Conducting the dialogue as opposed to a town hall meeting secured an expanded and diverse group of leaders as well as faculty, staff and students from the University.

The first dialogue on "Race and Social Equity" was held in July of 2016. An estimated 150 leaders from organizations across the city were invited to participate in the process to include

university presidents, the chief of police, the DA's office, non-profit, government and business leaders, educators and citizens. Evaluations were distributed at the end of the dialogue and later analyzed by the Metro Human Relations Commission ("MHRC Community Dialogue Report," 2016). Eighty-seven (87) total participants submitted evaluations. Approximately 55% of them identified as either male or man, while 45% identified as female or woman. In terms of racial/ethnic identity, nearly 63% of respondents were black, 26% were white, 6% were Latino, and another 5% checked more than one race/ethnicity category. As it pertains to age, less than 10% of respondents were under the age of 30, 27% were between 30-39, 26% were between 40-49, nearly 22% were 50-59, and 15% were 60 and older. Average age for respondents who indicated their exact age (n=70) was 44 ("MHRC Community Dialogue Report," 2016).

Respondents were asked a series of questions about the process (Appendix 4) to include questions leading up to the dialogue and during. They indicated their level of agreement with each statement on a 5-point scale from Strongly Agree to Strongly Disagree. Data gathered from leaders indicate the majority of respondents were largely in agreement ("strongly agree" or "agree") that the communication from the Mayor's Office and the materials sent to them prior to the dialogue were helpful. More respondents strongly agreed that they came into the dialogue feeling prepared for the discussion (23%) than they did for any other statement. In terms of their expectations for the dialogue, the largest shares of respondents indicated that they had high (42%) or neutral (33%) expectations ("MHRC Community Dialogue Report," 2016).

Regarding the dialogue itself, respondents were asked about different parts of the process and about their feelings toward the dialogue, again, on a 5-point scale. For all statements but one, 80% or more of respondents "strongly agreed" or "agreed." The statements for which agreement was especially strong (the share of those who "strongly agreed" was larger than the share that "agreed"), included "The facilitator at my table adhered to the communication agreements," "I felt comfortable speaking honestly," "the climate during the conversation was positive," and "I would participate in a conversation like this again." The statement with the most varied distribution of agreement was "the dialogue gave me new insights into how to work toward racial and social justice." While nearly 70% of respondents strongly agreed or agreed with this statement, another 20% neither agreed nor disagreed and nearly 13% disagreed or strongly disagreed. For the most part, disagreement ("disagree" or "strongly disagree") was minimal and stayed under 10% of respondents. The exceptions to this were the statements, "the expectations for the conversation were clearly stated" (10.6% disagreement), "the time given to respond to each question was sufficient" (10.4% disagreement), and "the dialogue gave me new insights into how to work toward racial and social justice" (12.7% disagreement) ("MHRC Community Dialogue Report," 2016).

The dialogic process of July 2016, informed the creation of "REAL Talk" that brought together nearly 1000 citizens from across the city. "REAL" was an initiative of the National League of Cities where in partnership with President Obama's administration and the US Conference of Mayors, cities were encouraged to convene community conversations on race relations, justice, policing and equality. During Nashville's "REAL Talk," citizens joined together to discuss several important identified topic areas from the process that happened in July 2016; community empowerment, criminal justice system, data/information, diversity/inclusion, health disparities, housing/gentrification, immigrant and refugee/New American communities, public

education/youth, public safety/policing, and workforce/jobs. Below are highlights of the dialogue and the city's response showing how dialogue can lead to social change for a City Government. (Metropolitan Nashville Government of Nashville & Davidson County, 2017):

- Community empowerment: participants desired a greater level of input into Metro decision-making. In response, the Mayor's Office initiated several opportunities to include a meeting with University Presidents/representatives to talk about and encourage them to utilize their faculty, staff and students conduct their own REAL dialogues throughout the city to come together, coordinate and collaborate on issues facing the city.

- Criminal Justice: with all of the reform efforts occurring nationwide, it is clear that issues exist within the criminal justice system. The Metropolitan Government reported it had had taken steps to reduce the number of beds in Metro's new Criminal Justice Center, adding Mental Health diversion, continuing support of the Drug Court diversion program, creating a program to address driver's license revocation and working to start Restorative Youth Diversion in Juvenile Court

- Public Education/Youth: residents requested that an accountability pipeline be created for families, teachers, school, board, central office and the state. In response, the Mayor formulated a teachers cabinet and a parent cabinet that both provide feedback to the Mayor's Office and Nashville Public Education Foundation on various initiatives and strategies, elevating both voices in education

- Public Safety: The Metro Human Relations Commission collaborated with the Police Department to host a *Diversity Bus Tour* for cadets at the academy. Additionally, the community was very integral in creating the policies for the Police Department's body-worn cameras (BWC) as the Mayor appointed a Public Safety Community Advisory Group to come up with the best policy for the program

Workshop Plan & Implications

The workshop will benefit administrators and educators interested in applying the mission of universities and colleges to help shape a different approach to the challenges facing society. The model and framework taught during the workshop will provide new tools for bringing practice in to the classroom/university (theory to practice).

The researcher/presenter will discuss the approach of the Social Change Model for leadership development and how to apply it utilizing the framework of the dialogic process. The participants will understand the dialogic process as a way to engage the community. Participants will know the dialogic process as a technique and structure for talking about and moving through serious issues. Participants will go through their own dialogic process simulation utilizing the skills learned during the session. The simulation will allow participants to become more skilled at the uses of a dialogic process, leading the process, and ways in which to move from discussion to action. Participants will be provided with reference material and will ask questions for clarity. The information provided will serve as a starting point for participants who wish to realize a dialogic process for their community.

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Appendix

Emailed letter to participants.

On behalf of Mayor Megan Barry, we are glad that you can participate in her Race, Equity and Leadership Dialogue this Saturday, July 23.

This is the first step in a process of community dialogues and we appreciate all the representatives of close to 100 community organizations who are giving their time to provide input into a variety of issues that can only strengthen our community. We also want to thank Lipscomb University's College of Public Service and Leadership who is designing and leading this process, Metro Public Schools for providing the location, as well as representatives from the Metro Human Relations Commissions and our criminal justice system and departments who will also be present.

Logistical Details

- Location: Pearl –Cohn Comprehensive School, 904 26th Avenue North, Nashville, TN 37208
- Parking: surface parking lots at the School
- Time of event: Check in for confirmed registrants from 12:30 – 1 p.m.; Program starts at 1 p.m.; the event should conclude by 4 p.m. DPTs meets at 11am for training, followed by working lunch at noon.
- Set-up for the event in the Pearl-Cohn gymnasium: Tables of 10 for facilitated dialogue circles. Each table will have a one DPT consisting of a table host (facilitator), a scribe, and a timekeeper.

Process Details

- Upon check-in, each organization rep (one per organization) will receive name tag with table assignment, table tent, and event information
- Dialogue circles at each table:
  - Facilitated process: A facilitator (table host) trained by Lipscomb University will lead dialogue that will be divided into two rounds with 3 questions each (the first round: Telling our Stories; the second round: Tools toward Action and Accountability) – there will be a break between the rounds
  - Time limits for question response will be shared and followed
  - Dialogue circles will be operated according to the below Communication Agreement (Source: Fostering Dialogue across Divides: A Nuts and Bolts Guide from the Public Conversations Project (2006).

- We will speak for ourselves and allow others to speak for themselves, with no pressure to represent or explain a whole group.
- We will not criticize the views of others or attempt to persuade them.
- We will listen with resilience, "hanging in "when something is hard to hear.
- We will share airtime and participate within the suggested timeframes.
- We will not interrupt except to indicate that we cannon or did not hear a speaker.
- We will "pass" or "pass for now" if we are not ready or willing to respond to a question.
- We will hold in confidence what we hear in this circle. We will not confront one another about circle comments after we leave here.
- We may go hard against ideas, ideologies, and institutions. We will not, however, harm or attack individuals within or beyond this circle.

➢ Please come prepared to answer this question as part of the process:
What does your membership/constituency want the Mayor and other city leaders to understand about the impact of issues of racial injustice on their lives? Can you give a brief specific example?

➢ Report outs after each round will be shared with the full group

If you have any questions or comments about the event details, please let us know. The day of the event, if needed, I can be reached at (#) .

Again, the Mayor and our team look forward to seeing you on Saturday.

Respectfully,

Director, Mayor's Office of Neighborhoods and Community Engagement

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Agenda
1:00 – 1:15 Greetings from Metro Government
1:15-1:20 Michelle Steele, Institute for Civic Engagement
1:20 – 1:30 Phyllis Hildreth, Institute for Conflict Management. Process description, task introduction, Communication Agreement.
1:30 – 1:45 Table Introductions (30 seconds)
1:45 – 2:05 Round One, Question One (2 minutes)
2:05 – 2:40 Round One, Question Two (4 minutes)
2:40 – 3:00 Round One, Question Three (2 minutes)
3:00 – 3:05 Silent Reflection
3:05 – 3:15 Break
3:15 – 3:25 Round Two, Question One (1 minute)
3:25 – 3:40 Round Two, Question Two (2 minutes)

3:40 – 3:55 Round Two, Question Three (2 minutes)
3:55 – 4:15 Debrief
4:15 – 4:25 Next Steps and Action Commitments
4:25 – 4:30 Evaluate and Adjourn
Participant Handout:
Dialogue Processes—Seeking Understanding

Appendix

The Process

Dialogue Processes—Seeking Understanding

Dialogue is a process in which people or groups involved in serious (often intractable and identity-based) conflict share information in order to create better understanding. Key objectives include slowing our reflexive leaps to stereotypes and building towards relationships of trust and respect. In dialogue participants may not change opinions, but may undergo a profound shift in how they view self, other, and the relationship. This is a space to attend to the wishes, hopes and concerns of each speaker. Today you are invited to participate in a dialogue circle on race, equity and social justice in our community.

Process

At each conversation table, eight participants will gather to work through the following questions. A table host will ensure the safety and fairness of the process by a) posing each question, b) managing time limits for responses, and c) holding respondents accountable to the ***Communications Agreement*** adopted here today.

We will consider two sets of three questions each. We will consider and collect new questions generated by our conversation. We will exchange commitments for next steps towards the community-wide conversation scheduled for September 10th. We will evaluate our work.

We will depart with gratitude for each speaker's courage and generosity of spirit; for new understanding, and cautious hope.

Table Introductions (30 seconds each person)

What is your name? What organization do you represent? What did you give up to be here today? Complete this sentence: "The word I bring to this table is _____; the word I hope to take away is _____.

Leadership Dialog Round One – Telling Our Stories

Question One (2 minutes)

What are the two most pressing issues of racial injustice affecting your membership/constituency? Are these urgent or systemic issues?

Question Two (4 minutes)

What does your membership/constituency want the Mayor and other city leaders to understand about the impact of those issues on their lives? Can you provide a brief example (Question should be written out in advance, per word limit, to ensure our ability to hear the whole story within time limits).

Question Three (2 minutes)

As their leader, what keeps you up at night; what is your biggest fear for the well-being of your members/constituents if these issues are not addressed?

Leadership Dialogue Round Two – Tools Towards Action and Accountability

Question One (one minute)

What terms or concepts need to be clearly defined in order to effectively address issues identified in Round One?

Question Two (two minutes)

What data do you and your members/constituents need to better understand and place into context issues of primary concern? What data do you need to assess progress and accountability? What are barriers to accessing that data?

Question Three (two minutes)

What change do you need to see in the next 30 days? Three months? Next year?

Communication Agreements

1. We will speak for ourselves and allow others to speak for themselves, with no pressure to represent or explain a whole group.
2. We will not criticize the views of others or attempt to persuade them.
3. We will listen with resilience, "hanging in "when something is hard to hear.
4. We will share airtime and participate within the suggested timeframes.
5. We will not interrupt except to indicate that we cannon or did not hear a speaker.
6. We will "pass" or "pass for now" if we are not ready or willing to respond to a question.
7. We will hold in confidence what we hear in this circle. We will not confront one another about circle comments after we leave here.
8. We may go hard against ideas, ideologies, and institutions. We will not, however, harm or attack individuals within or beyond this circle.

Source: *Fostering Dialogue Across Divides: A Nuts and Bolts Guide from the Public Conversations Project* (2006). www.publicconversations.org

Developing Leadership Capacity through Structured Peer Consultation

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Abstract

This educator workshop is designed to introduce participants to a structured process of peer consultation. Through explanation and demonstration of the Cambridge Leadership Associates Peer Consulting Methodology (CLA Peer Consulting Methodology, 2017), it is expected that participants will develop an understanding of and skill in implementing the peer consultation process. This process, designed specifically to help participants make progress on tough challenges, could then be replicated and implemented as a tool used by leadership educators to aid in leadership development with students as well as peers.

Introduction

Leadership educators must continually find new and innovative ways to help students reflect on and overcome obstacles. When looking for best practices in leadership development, educators should consider the use of peer consultation. This process, developed by the Cambridge Leadership Associates, is a structured process that is designed to provide peer analysis from multiple perspectives for the purposes of making progress on tough challenges. (CLA Peer Consulting Methodology, 2017). The purpose of this educator workshop is to

- teach the peer consultation process,
- explore applications of the process, and
- develop skill in recreating the process.

Review of Related Scholarship

There are many ways in which leadership can be taught; the challenge is to figure out the most effective way (Doh, 2003; Riggio, 2013). Making progress on this challenge requires experimentation on the part of leadership practitioners and, while there are many different avenues from which to approach leadership development, there is not "one right way" to teach leadership. Conger (1992) suggested four primary approaches to leadership development including personal growth, conceptual understanding, feedback, and skill building. Unfortunately there is little direction as to how to bring these ideas together and there has been limited attempts to explore leadership development programming (Allen & Hartman, 2009; Bass, 1990; Eich, 2008).

There has been some research conducted on pedagogies used by leadership educators to teach in the classroom. For example, Odom (2015) suggested that group discussion aided students in being more critical/open minded while contributing to overall effectiveness and learning from others. The importance of reflection, specifically the action-reflection cycle, has also been examined as a critical component of leadership pedagogy (Roberts, 2008). However, group discussion alone is insufficient in helping students achieve deep-learning. There is a need for a more intentional guided reflection. The development of these "soft skills" are not facilitated

using traditional teaching techniques, and teaching these skills requires educators to find new strategies (Roubles, 2012).

The process of peer consultation combines the structure of traditional class discussion approaches with the strategies leadership educators use to aid in leadership development. Some elements of the peer consultation process would likely not be foreign to leadership educators. Jenkins (2012) examined 24 instructional strategies ranging from case studies to simulations looking for signature pedagogies used in leadership education and found that "discussion pedagogy" along with small group discussion, reflective journaling, and group projects are often used by leadership educators. These findings make the adoption of the peer consultation process less risky/uncomfortable as the skill set required to facilitate peer consultation are similar to those required in the pedagogies in which leadership educators are already engaging.

Lesson Plan Description

Participants in this educator workshop will have the opportunity to learn/participate in the structured peer consultation process. This process requires 50 minutes to complete and works best with group of 4-7 individuals. Prior to beginning the peer consultation, the group must decide on a case presenter. This individual will be asked to share details about a specific leadership challenge they are facing. In addition to the case presenter, participants will select three additional individuals to keep time, take notes, and facilitate the process.

The peer consultation process takes place in six phases.

1. The case presenter has 5 minutes to present their challenge to the peer group.
2. The peer group has 10 minutes to ask questions and gather data regarding the challenge.
3. The case presenter turns away from the peer group, and the peer group engages in diagnostic brainstorming for 15 minutes.
4. The case presenter remains facing away while the peer group brainstorms action steps for 10 minutes.
5. The case presenter rejoins the group and reflects on what they heard for 5 minutes.
6. The group debriefs the consultation process for 5 minutes.

The presenters will walk the participants through this process and debrief with them at the conclusion.

Discussion of Outcomes/Results

To date, this process has been implemented numerous times by the workshop facilitators in both the academic classroom setting as well as workshops inclusive of leadership practitioners from various sectors of society including, but not limited to, corporate, civic, political, and religious sectors. Qualitative assessments (e.g. focus groups) have indicated that participants found value in this process as a way to learn about themselves, make progress on their challenge, gain insights and ideas about the challenges they face, and think differently/innovatively about experiments they might try to make progress on their challenges. One participant was quoted as saying,

> I got a lot from…the peer consultation because I think it was it helped me to learn from

> others and what they were doing and what they were struggling with but it also really helped me hear four other opinions on different ways to handle the situations or different things to do, and I really value [those opinions].

Workshop Plan & Implications

In planning for the workshop, the facilitators intend to model the activity for participants while pointing out several important considerations learned from the process over time. For example, in the first phase of the process, only the case presenter can talk and the time keeper ensures that the full 5 minutes are used even if the case presenter is not able to speak for the whole time. In the second phase, the facilitators will work with participants to help them keep their questions and responses short and to the point to make good use of time and allow deeper understanding of the challenge.

The third phase is often the most difficult for participants as many find it hard to spend 15 minutes interpreting the problem instead of looking for solutions. The authors of the process did this intentionally to force individuals to look at different angles prior to seeking action steps. When the presenter turns away from the group, the facilitators will work to help the groups stay away from offering solutions and only offering interpretations. The goal in this phase for the presenter is to simply listen and reflect on what is being said. It is also the time when the note taking begins. Only after the group has spent the full 15 minutes in diagnosis will they be allowed to move on the fourth phase where they will be able to offer solutions. These solutions are meant to be ideas the presenter might consider implementing.

In the last two phases of the process, the presenter rejoins the group. At this time the presenter is given 5 minutes to reflect on what they heard. The purpose of this time is not to confirm or disconfirm statements that were made, but rather to share initial thoughts and ideas that they may be willing to try out. Finally, the last 5 minutes is no longer focused on the case presenter and their challenge, but on the facilitation of the peer consultation process. The group will spend time reflecting on what they did well and what they could improve from a process perspective so that they can continually improve their shared work for the next peer consultation.

Working through the process in this way has many potential benefits for the participants. Simply reading about this process is quite different from actually having the experience. There are many pitfalls (e.g. not holding to time or jumping to action step brainstorming) that are easy to fall into and can derail the process. Giving participants an opportunity to engage in the activity allows the facilitators to point out these obstacles and also helps the participants gain confidence in facilitating the process themselves. The expected outcome is that, with the development of confidence in this new skill, participants will feel comfortable replicating this process in their personal and professional lives.

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Leadership Discourses: Exploring Students' Definitions of Leadership

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Abstract

Ever wonder how our emerging leaders frame and think about leadership? That insight could help us understand the future of leadership while revealing key priorities for leadership education, development, and research. This workshop will uncover the leadership discourses among college students through the collective wisdom of the workshop participants. The facilitators will engage the leadership educators and scholars in the room in a collaborative card-sort process of college students' definitions of leadership, as captured through the Multi-institutional Study of Leadership (MSL). Options for closed sort categories will be based on prior research, but open sorting will also be encouraged.

Introduction

Bernard Bass (1990) famously observed that there are as many definitions of leadership as there are persons who have attempted to define it. Leadership educators, in particular, know this to be true. Oftentimes, the first assignment of a leadership course asks students to write their own definition of leadership. These definitions serve to solidify students' often nebulous conceptualization of leadership. However, students' definitions of leadership are also valuable to educators. Definitions give us insight into a student's conceptualization of what leadership is, and what a leader should be (Kaufman, Thornton, & Courtney, 2017). Definitions help us gauge where students are in their development and inform our coursework (Komives, et al., 2005). Definitions may reveal a student's discourse of leadership, which gives rich insight into their experience with leadership (Western, 2013). Definitions can also be used to help us plot the development of students' leadership development across time (Keating, Rosch, & Burgoon, 2014).

This workshop will tackle the process of parsing students' definitions of leadership through the collective wisdom of the workshop participants. The specific strategy applied will be card sorting, a technique for revealing mental models for how information is organized (Hinkle, 2008). Rugg and McGeorge (2005) note that sorts are appropriate as an exploratory technique for identifying categories of significance, yet they may also be appropriate for piloting the usefulness of a predefined set of categories. When identifying new categories, the process is called open card sorting; when validating an existing set of categories, the process is called closed card sorting (Hinkle, 2008). Research suggests the card sort technique can be a qualitative substitute for a quantitative factor analysis (Santos, 2006). The basic idea is that card sorting invites participants to group items in a way that makes sense to them. For this workshop, the facilitators will engage the leadership educators and scholars in the room in a collaborative card sort process to reveal themes and leadership discourses embedded in the leadership definitions of college students.

The definitions provided in this workshop will draw on the work of the Multi-institutional Study of Leadership (MSL). For more than 15 years, the MSL has been collecting students' definitions of leadership. This international research program focuses 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 workshop will utilize three well-known classifications of leadership: (a) Komives et al.'s (2005) Leadership Identity Development Model; (b) Grint's (2010) taxonomy of leadership; and (c) Western's (2013) four discourses of leadership. In addition, participants will be asked to derive their own classification system. A facilitator-guided debrief will allow further dialogue and advance the collective understanding of leadership discourses among emerging leaders.

At the conclusion of this workshop, participants will be able to:

- Identify prominent leadership discourses and related frameworks;
- Recognize the potential of card sorting for group facilitation and qualitative research;
- Highlight specific examples of leadership discourses, as expressed through college students' definitions of leadership.

Review of Related Scholarship

Research suggests leadership definitions or conceptualization from childhood to adulthood may have an effect on leader emergence and motivation to lead. Findings from Gottfried et al. (2011) found adults who were intrinsically motivated to lead had more motivation to lead from childhood than others. Moreover, Guillén, Mayo, and Korotov (2015) found the ability to compare oneself with an 'influential' leader from one's past has a positive relationship on one's motivation to lead. Knowing one's conceptualization of leadership might help to move people from where they currently are to where they should be. According to Komives and Colleagues (2005), students typically enter college with a hierarchical and positional view of leadership, which limits their emergence as leaders. However, knowing their conceptualization of leadership could help inform a leadership program that is tailored to their needs and help move them from a hierarchical view of leadership to a collaborative and distributed view, thereby aiding their emergence as leaders. Moreover, an individual's definition of leadership could help determine their developmental readiness. Avolio and Hannah (2008) recommend youth leadership development programs take into account the developmental readiness of youths in order to speed up the leadership development process.

Leader Identity Development

Contrary to popular belief that 'identity' is a personality trait that is inherently ingrained in individuals, identity is constantly changing, and might even be interrupted (Burke, 1991). Leaders' identity development over time influences their leadership definition. While there is a plethora of research in extant literature that focus on leader identity development in adulthood, little attention has been paid to leader identity development in childhood (Oliver et al., 2011). However, a more robust way to study leadership development would be to take a 'long-lens' approach that studies the trajectory of leader identity development from childhood to adulthood (Murphy & Johnson, 2011). Adolescents' conceptualization of leadership is limited, and mostly based off of the experiences of childhood (Van Linden & Fertman, 1998). Many adolescents conceptualize a leader as someone who has certain superior characteristics (e.g,. tallness) which they may not possess (Van Linden & Fertman, 1998). However, this leader identity continues to change as they go through multi-faceted experiences of life.

The family forms the foundation upon which other leadership experiences are built and might go a long way in shaping perceptions of leadership. Oliver and colleagues (2011) found children who were given more responsibility and opportunity to participate in decision making at a young age would be more likely to perceive themselves as leaders. The research reveals a significant relationship between the type of family environment in childhood and transformational leadership development in adulthood, when mediated by self-concept (Oliver et al., 2011).

Research has also shown that interventions such as youth development programs have helped to shape leader identity in youth. Miscenko, Guenter, and Day (2017) found a significant change in the leader identity of youths who participated in a seven-week leadership development program. However, many youth leadership development organizations have focused on the impact of their programs, while failing to take into account the impact of leader identity on the outcomes of their programs. Day and Harrison (2007) suggest the type of leader identity development initiative (i.e., individual, relational, or collective) should depend upon an individual's level within the organization. For example, if an individual is at lower levels of an organization, leadership developmental efforts should be geared towards developing the personal and relational leader identities; yet leadership development efforts should be focused on collective leader identities for individuals at higher levels of management.

Leadership Definitions and Discourses

Many different definitions of and approaches to leadership exist extant in literatures, and this might be indicative of its many forms and ever evolving nature (Bass, 1990; Day & Harrison, 2007). Grint (2010) resists the idea of a universally accepted definition of leadership and contends that our continued quest in trying to define leadership might help us to elucidate its constituents' parts. Day and Harrison (2007) summarized leadership definitions based on their level of complexity and inclusiveness:

- Most basic: Leadership as a position. Many traits and behavior theories fall in this category (see Bass 1990; Zaccaro, 2007).
- Mid-level: Leadership as influence. For example, the Leader-Member exchange theory (LMX) (see Grean & Uhl-Bien, 1995).
- Most advanced: Leadership as shared between individuals. Distributed approaches to leadership fall in this category (see Western, 2013).

Western's (2013) four discourses of leadership offer an alternative means of categorizing a student's understanding of leadership. Based on a meta-analysis of leadership from historical, socio-political, and economic perspectives, Simon Western (2013) identified four discourses of leadership during the past century: (a) controller, (b) therapist, (c) messiah, and (d) eco-leader. The discourses name the major shifts in our collective understanding of what leadership is, and what a leader should be, during the past 100 years. The strength of the four discourses is that they offer historical and social context for the various conceptualizations of leadership a student may have.

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). 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.

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).

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). 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. The archetypical messiah leader uses charisma and passion to inspire devotion and loyalty from their followers.

Eco-Leader Discourse. In the beginning of the 21st century we find ourselves facing numerous complex and interconnected challenges. 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). 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.

Lesson Plan Description

The general structure and flow of the workshop will be as follows:

- Introduction to the MSL and the concept of leadership discourses (10 minutes).
- Small-group brainstorming of frameworks and models for sorting leadership definitions (10 minutes).
- Large-group sharing of proposed frameworks and models for sorting leadership definitions (10 minutes).

- Overview of the card sort technique of facilitation and qualitative research (5 minutes).
- Small group card sorts of leadership definitions collected through the MSL (30 minutes).
- Discussion and debrief of prominent themes and discourses emerging from the card sort process (15 minutes).
- Dialogue about opportunities for future application (10 minutes).

Depending on group size and readiness, we may share copies of the sample categorization of leadership definitions (Appendix A), as well as framework overview pages: Grint's taxonomy (Appendix B), the LID model (Appendix C), and Western's discourses (Appendix D).

Discussion of Outcomes/Results

The idea for this workshop emerged as a result of discussion during the poster session at the 2017 annual conference of the Association of Leadership Educators. There seemed to be a variety of useful perspectives on how to classify students' definitions of leadership and the extent to which the findings illuminate information about our leadership education programs. This workshop will be an opportunity to build upon those earlier discussions and inform the research that is continuing with the 2018 Multi-institutional Study of Leadership.

Workshop Implications

Some preliminary research with the MSL applied both Grint's taxonomy and the LID model, for categorizing students' definitions of leadership. While these were a useful starting point, some leadership educators challenged the classifications and overall fit. The participants in this workshop will have the opportunity to further the dialogue and advance the collective understanding of leadership discourses among emerging leaders.

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Appendix A: Sample Categorization of Leadership Definitions

The following example is excerpted from Kaufman, Thornton, and Coartney (2017).

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
"A person who inspires others through either direct or indirect contact and sets an example for others to follow."		X			4
"The position or function of a leader; a person who guides or directs a group."	X				4

Appendix B: Guidance for Categorization Using Grint's (2010) Taxonomy

When considering categories for definitions of leadership, one option for a closed card sort comes from Grint's (2010) taxonomy in *Leadership: A Very Short Introduction,* where he considers four perspectives: (1) leadership as position, (2) leadership as person, (3) leadership as result, and (4) leadership as process. While this taxonomy 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:

- 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.
- 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.
- Leadership as Result: With this definition of leadership we look at the results of leadership. Results-based leadership focuses on *what* leaders do.
- Leadership as Process: The process-based definition of leadership considers the relationship between leader and practice. It is what leaders *do* that matters.

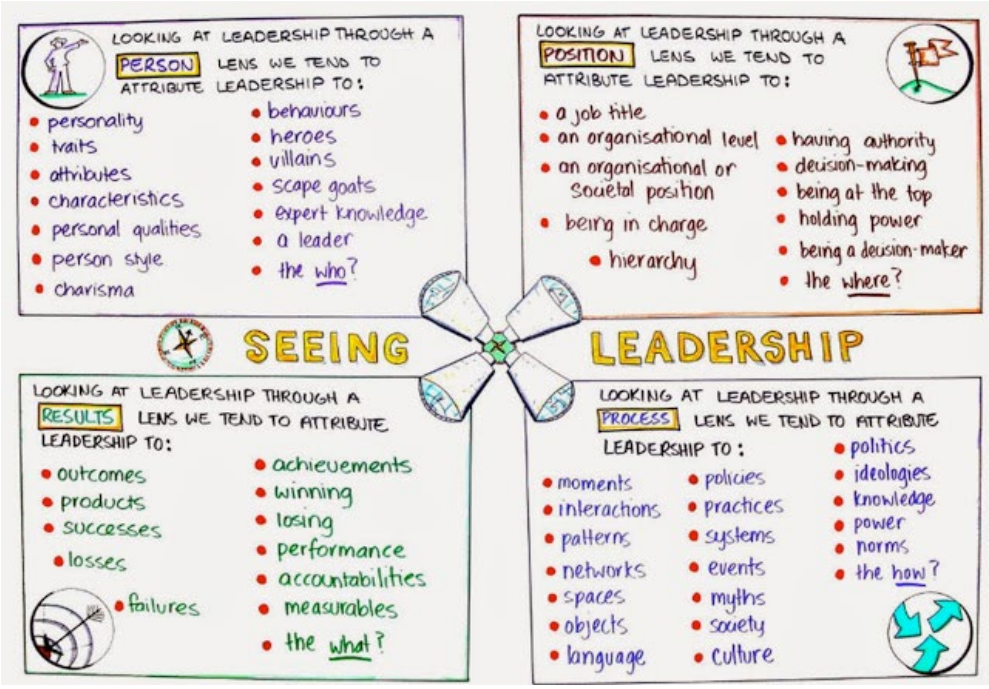
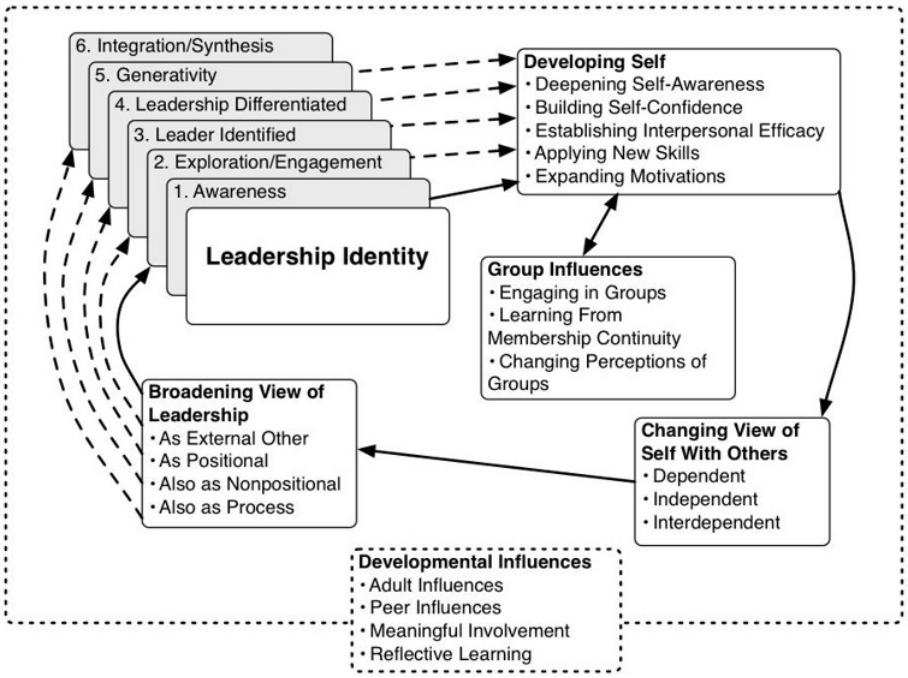


Image developed by Brad Jackson (2009) for "What's So Different (and Difficult) About Leading in New Zealand?"

Appendix C: Guidance for Categorization Using LID Model

When considering categories for definitions of leadership, one option for a closed card sort comes from the Leadership Identity Development (LID) model provided by Komives and colleagues (2005). A key advantage of the LID model is that it is an emergent grounded theory from research with college students. The five leadership identity stages include:

- Awareness (Stage One): becoming aware that there are leaders "out there" who are external to self, like the President of the United States, one's mother, or a teacher;
- Exploration/Engagement (Stage Two): a period of immersion in group experiences usually to make friends, a time of learning to engage with others (e.g., swim team, scouts, youth choir);
- Leader Identified (Stage Three): viewing leadership as the actions of the positional leader of a group, an awareness of the hierarchical nature of relationships in groups;
- Leadership Differentiated (Stage Four): viewing leadership also as non-positional and as a shared group process;
- Generativity (Stage Five): a commitment to developing leadership in others and having a passion for issues or group objectives that the person wants to influence; and,
- Integration/Synthesis (Stage Six): acknowledging the personal capacity for leadership in diverse contexts and claiming the identity as a leader without having to hold a positional role (Komives, et al., 2005).



Appendix D: Guidance for Categorization Using Western's Discourses

When considering categories for definitions of leadership, one option for a closed card sort comes from Western (2013) leadership discourses, based on a meta-analysis of leadership from historical, socio-political, and economic perspectives. The four discourses of leadership during the past century include: (a) controller, (b) therapist, (c) messiah, and (d) eco-leader. The following table maps the four discourses (reprinted from Western, 2012).

Leadership Discourse	**Controller**	**Therapist**	**Messiah**	**Eco-Leadership**
Vision Aims	**Iron cage** Maximises production through transactional exchange, control and coercion.	**Motivate to Produce** Maximises production though increasing motivation, personal growth and team work	**Culture Control** Maximises production through identifying with the brands strong culture, and leader's values and vision.	**Holistic and Sustainable** Success is re-defined, value is measured not only in financial terms. Quality, sustainability and social responsibility are connected.
Source of Authority	**From Above** ***Science*** The leader passes authority down the hierarchy. Leaders gain authority from position power and scientific rationalism	**From Within** ***Humanism*** The power of therapeutic discourse is translated into management discourse and techniques (e.g. 360 feedback, psychological contracts)	**From Beyond** ***Charisma*** The charismatic leader embodies the company values and vision, utilizing a secularized form of transcendent authority (e.g. Steve Jobs)	**From the Eco-system** ***Inter-dependence*** Eco-leadership draws its authority from the laws of nature, and from the belief in inter-dependence and connectivity. It also gains authority from an ethical and spiritual conviction to save the planet and society.
Perceptions of Employee	**Robots** Employees are human assets, working as unthinking robotic machines 'cogs in the wheel'	**Clients** Employees are clients to be healed and made whole through reparation and creativity at work	**Disciples** Employees follow the leader and learn to be more like them. Identity is created by belonging within a community of believers.	**Actors in a Network** Employees are part of a network, with agency and with autonomy, yet also as part of an inter-dependent, connected greater whole
Leads What?	**Body** Focus on the body to maximise efficient production, via incentives and coercion.	**Psyche** Therapist focuses on the psyche, on motivation, designing job enrichment that enables autonomy, and self-actualising behaviours	**Soul** Followers align themselves to the vision, a cause greater than the self (the company). The *Messiah* leader is a role model, linking success with personal salvation.	**Network** Eco-leaders lead through paradox, by distributing leadership throughout the network, making spaces for leadership to flourish
Organisational Metaphor	**Machine** Takes a technical and rational view of world, thinks in closed systems. Controls internal environment to maximise efficiency	**Human Organism** Creates the conditions for personal and team growth, linking this to organizational growth and success.	**Community** The *Messiah* leads a community (at its extreme this can mimic a cult). The emphasis is on strong cultures, the brand before the individual.	**Eco-System** Leads through connections in a network. Organisations are inter-connected networks; eco-systems connected to the wider eco-systems that affect the social context and the environment.

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Abstract

Participants in this workshop will compare and contrast pedagogical strategies for teaching transformative leader identities, rehearse techniques for using these strategies, and adapt learning activities to suit their courses or programs. They will examine activities in use for developing advocate and activist identities in a program for the intersection of leadership and social justice and discuss the intended outcomes and implications of these activities.

Introduction

As a result of this workshop, participants will be able to:

- Define ally, advocate, and activist behaviors,
- Compare and contrast pedagogical strategies for teaching for transformative leader identity development,
- Revise provided activities to suit the purposes of their educational environments

Review of Related Scholarship

Transformative Leadership

Astin and Astin (2000), describe transformative leadership 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). Transformative leaders are committed to values and outcomes that serve the long-term interests of society (Caldwell, Dixon, Floyd, Chaudoin, Post, Cheokas, 2012). In order to make and uphold these commitments, transformative leaders must re-frame their world view and their sense of self in order to re-think assumptions and develop new solutions and systems (Christensen and Raynor, 2003; Pava, 2003; Quinn 1996). The Oaks Leadership Scholars curriculum is rooted in the premise that the transformation of self required to become a transformative leader can be supported through the facilitation of access to advocate and activist identities for those who already identify as learners and allies to social justice causes.

Ally, Advocate, Activist Identities

Students are selected for The Oaks Leadership Scholars program based on their enactment of learner and ally identities. A learner identity is defined as awareness of self and acknowledgement of others, willingness to uncover 'records' related to oppression and engage in critical reflection, an understanding of control and cultural domination, and a budding ability to expose their own thinking (Brown, 2006; Dunn, 1987; Senge, 1990). An ally is a person from a majority group who personally supports those who are in an oppressed population with the goal of ending the oppression (Washing & Evans, 1991). Once they are accepted into the program based on these criteria, they are asked to set personal goals in the context of becoming advocates or activists for specific communities or social justice issues. These identities are rooted in the public enactment of one's beliefs and position oneself as an agent for change (Trueba, 1999). An

advocate is someone who communicates the urgency of a call to action that is rooted in shared values (Ganz, 2009). Activists develop the strategies to mobilize and deploy resources to support that call to action in order to engage others in work that removes forms of injustice (Ganz, 2008; Trueba, 1999).

The development of ally, advocate and activist identities requires the willingness to engage in "critical and constructive inquiry" (Sirontnik & Kimball, 1996, p. 187). While the curriculum for The Oaks Leadership Scholars is framed as Project Based Learning, specific activities within the project stimulate the necessary inquiry for identity development: provocative class discussions, critical incidents and reflection on them, controversial readings, dialogic teaching, Discourse communities, a pedagogy of hope, and action plans (Brown, 2004; Brown, 2006; Trueba, 1999). The specific application of these activities within The Oaks Scholars will be a substantial component of the workshop.

Project Based Learning

Project Based Learning employs a driving question to position students to solve a real-world problem with guidance from faculty and experts but through their own initiative (Adderley, 1975). The curriculum for The Oaks Leadership Scholars employs Morgan's (1983) project component approach in which the project is interdisciplinary and addresses real world issues that require independent work and problem-solving abilities while the course addresses parallel content. The intent is to develop a three-way partnership between the student, the faculty, and the people impacted by the issue (Guile and Griffiths, 2001). Project Based Learning has been found to facilitate the development of critical thinking and understanding of subject matter (Heitman, 1996). Further, by positioning students to address real-world problems, Project Based Learning can facilitate the development of identities in line with those issues.

Students in The Oaks are tasked with identifying an issue of social justice that interests them within the context of agriculture. They then define a potential identity for themselves relative to the issue – ally, advocate, activist – and work with their program mentor and issue experts to develop and enact a plan to address the issue. The development of an artefact as a result of their plan – a policy memo, a phone banking script, tweet-storm strategies and hashtags, an educational program, etc. – is an essential benchmark and prompt for discussion among participants and between participants and mentors (Star, 1989; Boland and Tenkasi, 1995); however, as Dewey (1938) cautioned, it is essential that educators emphasize the process of learning over the product. This workshop will explain how faculty facilitate the development and completion of each student's project.

Communities of Practice

In order to emphasize process and facilitate the engagement with experts necessary to understand these complex, real-world issues, and to access the possible identities within the practice, The Oaks build a Community of Practice as well. Communities of practice engage newcomers with near peers – those who are slightly further along in their journeys – and experts (Lave & Wenger, 1991). Participation in a community of practice allows one to develop skills and ways of being necessary to feel a sense of belonging and an identity in line with the practice (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Wenger 1998). To facilitate the development of a community of practice, The Oaks is structured so that students enter with a group of newcomers and have regular, intensive formal and informal interactions with each other, peer mentors who have completed the first year of the

program, faculty members who have engaged in social justice work, and members of the larger community who engage in the work professionally – experts. The community of practice supports the project based learning by providing access to authentic problems, roles, and practices (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998).

Lesson Plan Description

Introduction to the Concepts (10 minutes)
Facilitators will present a brief overview of the theoretical framework for the program.

1. Why transformative leadership?
    a. What is transformative leadership?
    b. Why is it necessary now?
    c. How do students benefit from becoming transformative leaders?

Small Group Work (50 minutes)
Prior to each numbered session below, the facilitators will provide a description of the foundation for the educational practice and how the practice takes shape in their program. Participants will then be encouraged to work in small groups at their table to brainstorm how these pedagogy pieces might work in their own settings. At the conclusion of each small group, participants will be asked to share their responses to the larger group.

2. Developing provocative class discussions
    a. Establishing community norms & expectations
    b. How do you select guest speakers?
    c. How do you prepare students for the topics?
3. Controversial readings
    a. How do you choose readings?
    b. What prevailing themes are prioritized
    c. How do students discuss? (Discourse communities)
4. Dialogic teaching
    a. How is the mentor/mentee relationship established?
    b. How much control do students have over the relationship?
    c. How do students choose other mentors? (Discourse communities)
5. Critical incidents
    a. How do students identify other experiences?
        i. How do students process these experiences?
    b. How do program mentors frame critical experiences for students?

Individual Reflective Work (15 minutes)
Facilitators will provide grounding and personal self-reflection exercises. Participants will be invited to take some time to reflect on the following questions, drawing on their own life experiences and practices. Those participants who feel comfortable will be invited to share their reflections and their practice with the larger group.

6. A pedagogy of hope
    a. How do program mentors model hope?

   b. How do we teach for hope?
   c. How do we help students see that progress can be made, and they can drive it?

Takeaways (15 minutes)
As is the case with our program, the final piece is the project and presentations. The facilitators will describe how our program promotes student projects and successes. We will work with participants to brainstorm how they might implement similar projects in their contexts.

7. Action Plans
   a. How do students develop their projects?
   b. How does the program support enacting their plans?
   c. How do students share their project success, set-backs, and artefacts?

Discussion of Outcomes

All of the students in the 2017-18 cohort completed projects that enact their advocate and activist identities:

1. A review of policies for non-discrimination in youth-serving agricultural organizations and recommendations for policy change and training,
2. A review of the inclusion of LGBTQ employees in family leave policies at agricultural corporations and recommendations for policy change and training, as well as a call to action for companies not yet on the HRC Equality Index,
3. A postcard party and social media campaign related to a state legislature bill on class size mandates and how they will impact rural communities,
4. A postcard party, social media campaign, and public comment campaign on proposed changes to USDA regulations on poultry line speeds and their impact on workers, and
5. The development of an educational program on the health and safety needs of female-identifying farm workers for small farm operators.

The workshop will include a summary of the results of the survey students complete at the end of their year in The Oaks Leadership Scholars. Summary data will include engagement in behaviors on the learner-ally-advocate-activist scale and their definition of these terms and the difference between these results and their pre-program survey.

Workshop Implications

Each section of the workshop will begin with some sample activities and student work from The Oaks Leadership Scholars. Participants will be asked to share work they have done and offer feedback to strengthen The Oaks program's work and each other's. The workshop will be discussion-based with the samples serving as prompts for the discussion.

The potential benefit is the increased ability for workshop presenters and participants to engage in pedagogy to support the development of advocate and activist identities for transformative leadership. Further, presenters and participants can work to refine the ways that these identities and transformative leadership are conceptualized so that we may all be intentional in facilitating development of our students.

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Developing Identities and Capacity to Engage in Leadership Education for Social Justice

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Abstract

Participants in this workshop will engage in personal storytelling, the development of a shared definition of leadership education for social justice, and some of the self-work necessary to engage in such leadership education through a critical perspective. This self-work will prepare educators to facilitate students capacity to examine systems of oppression and engage in learning and leading toward a more just society.

Introduction

Audre Lorde tells us that, "the true focus of revolutionary change is to see the piece of the oppressor inside us," (1984, p. 123). Educators in leadership and social justice have to stay conscious of our own positions and reflect on how we have been engaged in oppression or have resisted it and on our continued scholarship and activism (Adams, 2016; Bell, 2016). Further, Bell (2016) identifies developing a critical consciousness - critiquing normativity and our investments in it - as an essential practice for those who work for social justice.

Owen (2015) also points to the need for leadership educators to develop critical consciousness. Says Owen, "Leadership educators, usually unintentionally, are vulnerable to playing out their own privileges, preferences, and patterns on the students they encounter (2015, p. 14). A critically conscious leadership educator has interrogated their own beliefs, biases and practices – considering how their own "intersecting multiple identities, learning style and developmental experiences shape their work" (p. 14).

If we assume that one purpose of leadership education is to develop students' capacity to address complex societal problems in inclusive communities, then leadership educators must also develop their own capacity for this work. A first step is to make explicit the leadership lens(es) through which we can teach social justice and uncover our own interactions with systems of justice and oppression. This session will help educators articulate the connections between leadership and social justice paradigms, explore our social location and its impact on their teaching, and build skills for critical reflection. Through activities are intended to further educators' professional development in leadership education for social justice and to provide them with tools to continue to pursue development beyond this session.

This session addresses two of the priorities outlined by the Inter-association Leadership Education Collaborative (ILEC): 1) building inclusive communities, and 2) continued education and capacity-building for leadership educators through professional development opportunities (ILEC, 2016). We invite leadership educators to explore our own identities, mindsets, and beliefs as co-participants in the work of social justice. In this session, participants will:

1. Explore the connections between social justice education and leadership education,
2. Engage in activities to articulate one's own social location and identity in relation to leadership and social justice,
3. Engage in critical reflection and develop strategies for reflection, and
4. Examine a variety of leadership paradigms that provide lenses for social justice education.

Review of Related Scholarship

Connection of Leadership & Social Justice

To describe the inextricable connection between leadership and social justice, we must first define social justice. Goldfarb and Grinberg (2002) define the concept using words like equity, equality, and fairness. Thusly, if we believe that leadership is a process that engages people in working together, then inherently, leaders and the people who teach them, must be concerned with social justice. Leaders must examine the ways in which people come together; who has power, who does not, who has (access to) resources, and who does not. That understanding is foundational to creating environments where all can thrive, and all can become leaders.

Paradigms of Leadership for Social Justice Education

There are myriad paradigms that provide lenses through which to see social justice education as leadership education. While the facilitators of this workshop speculate that there could be as many ways to approach this as there are people doing it, they have rooted their work in transformative leadership, and social change leadership, and culturally relevant leadership learning.

Transformative leadership aims to build equity, social justice, and quality of life by expanding access and opportunity, respecting diversity, serving the long-term interests of society, strengthening democracy, and reframing worldviews to develop new solutions and systems transformative leaders must re-frame their world view and their sense of self in order to re-think assumptions and develop new solutions and systems (Astin & Astin, 2000; Caldwell, Dixon, Floyd, Chaudoin, Post, Cheokas, 2012; Christensen & Raynor, 2003; Pava, 2003; Quinn 1996). Thus, social justice is inherent to this leadership paradigm. Teaching transformative justice demands that educators facilitate students' ability and willingness to uncover oppression, engage in critical reflection, understand power relationships, and expose their own thinking (Brown, 2006; Dunn, 1987; Senge, 1990).

Leadership for social change is a multi-faceted paradigm emphasizing social responsibility, conceptualized here through the models Social Change Model (SCM) of Leadership

Development (Higher Education Research Institute, 1996; Komives, Wagner, & Assoc., 2017) as well as the Social Change Leadership framework (Ospina, Foldy, El Hadidy, Dode, Hoffman-Panila, Su, 2012). Studying social change organizations, Ospina et al. (2012) observed that systemic change 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 and practices such as reframing discourse, bridging differences, and unleashing human energies (2012). To engage in these practices requires the development of ever-more complex leadership values, skills, and mindsets. The Social Change Model of Leadership Development provides a framework for students to develop "purposeful, collaborative, values-based approaches that result in positive social change" (Cilente Skendall, 2017, p. 19).

Culturally Relevant Leadership Learning (CRLL) offers a framework for creating learning environments that are responsive to dimensions of campus contexts and environmental factors (Jones, Guthrie, & Osteen, 2016). "Specifically, the CRLL model considers the primacy of how racism, sexism, and religious oppression, as well as heterosexism/cisgenderism and classism, advantage and disadvantage all student lives in myriad ways and how failure to address these issues ensures complicity in perpetuating oppression" (2016, p. 10). Osteen, Guthrie, & Jones (2016) offer critical questions to guide leadership educators in the ongoing process of transforming leadership programs - challenging old paradigms in order to develop the capacity of leaders who desire to create social change. Essential to this task is the ability to challenge inequity. They urge leadership educators to accept this as a responsibility of our work, acknowledging it is difficult, and will require time, attention, and resources. Guthrie and Jenkins (2018) also suggest that CRLL can be a valuable resources to "honor and explore how multiple social identities influence our role as leadership educators" (2018, p. 23).

Critical Lens for Leadership Education

While critical perspectives have been explored in leadership studies for some time, the application of critical lenses on leadership *education* is still somewhat new. Owen (2015) applies Brookfield's (2005) learning tasks of critical theory to create questions that support the development of critically conscious leadership educators. For example, what is the role of leadership educators in challenging ideology? And, how can leadership educators seek to examine issues of power in their communities and/or leverage their own privilege to create more equitable conditions for students (Owen, 2015)? Satterwhite (2016) advanced the application of critical frames to leadership education practice through the International Leadership Association's PAUSE for Pedagogy feature. He demonstrated his own critical reflection around several of Owen's key questions. Dugan's (2017) recent text offers a comprehensive exploration of leadership theory from a critical perspective. The text helps readers with tools to deconstruct - and reconstruct - theories in more socially just ways. Most recently, Guthrie and Chunoo (in press) have announced a forthcoming edited volume entitled, *Changing the Narrative: Socially Just Leadership Education.* Additionally, numerous national conference presentations have highlighted critical perspectives and questions. Our workshop will surface multiple resources to support continued critical reflection and learning on this increasingly important topic.

Rhoades and Tierney (1992) describe necessary steps for educators to take before they can guide students through the process of recognizing and eradicating their own biases and engagement in systems of oppression. Such steps include a "discovery" layer in which educators must think critically about their own reactions to situations, media, and interactions, realize the influence of the individual self on the professional self, and seek opportunities to discuss oppression and oppressive systems (Rhoades & Tierney, 1992). Our workshop is designed to delve into this layer of the development of critical engagement of educators.

The Leadership Educator as a Social Justice Educator

Seemiller and Priest's (2015, 2017) exploration of leadership educator professional identity development (LEPID) heightens our understanding of our own developmental trajectory, and the influences, experiences, and emotions that shape our beliefs about ourselves, our students, our purpose and role. To engage in the work of social justice within leadership education requires us to do our own identity work. Narrative approaches, structured reflection, and discussion have been shown to be valuable tools for exploring professional identity development (Priest & Seemiller, 2017)

This is only a starting point. There is a movement within leadership education for more formal preparation and shared frameworks for developing in the role of leadership educator (e.g., Guthrie & Jenkins, 2018). In pursuit of professional development approaches, we can look to lessons from the field of educational leadership. Indeed, literature search for "leadership for social justice" or "social justice leadership" is likely to point to the field of educational leadership and the movement - over past 20 years - to prepare leaders within the field of education (e.g., school administrators or teacher-leaders) with a social justice lens and practice. Namely, for leaders in education to create just educational systems and help preservice teachers develop beliefs and pedagogical/androgogical approaches that support diversity, equity, and inclusion. We can also look to the body of work within student development/student affairs/student services literature that furthers our understanding of social justice allyship and advocacy as a professional and the role of communities committed to social justice work within professional associations.

Developing as a social justice leader and teaching social justice as leadership go hand in hand as we may never fully feel "prepared" or qualified. We are all co-learners in this process and we learn by doing, in community with others. We want to create a space within our community of practice for authentic reflection as well as skill building. Thus, we will combine reflection and dialogue with practical tools that can be used for both professional development and in our leadership education classrooms and training spaces.

Lesson Plan Description

I. Welcome & Introduction of Participants & Topic (Storytelling) (20 minutes)
We will create a learning community among participants using storytelling techniques.

- Who is here?
- Why are you here? What interests you in this topic? (Sharing individual stories)

- Situating self in relation to learner, ally, advocate, and activist behaviors (continuum)
- Reflecting on a collective story in the room

II. Mini-teach and discussion: Social Justice Education and Leadership Education (15 minutes)
We will explore conceptual frameworks through interactive discussion.

- What does social justice mean to you?
- The definitions we teach from
- What leadership paradigms do you apply to social justice work? (paradigm matching game)
- How can the framework of anti-racist - as opposed to non-racist - help us think about teaching leadership that addresses systems of oppression?

III. Self-Work for Social Justice Education
We will focus on engaging in individual self-reflection techniques, combined with small- and large-group discussion.

- Uncovering your own identity (20 minutes)
    - Who are you? What identities are central to you? Which are apparent to others?
    - How do your identities show up in the classroom?
    - What influence do they have on how you teach leadership? Social justice?
    - How might your students interpret them?
- Weekly reflection prompts - planning for and carrying out reflection on a regular basis (20 minutes)
    - Practice Prompt - Dig in with short writing, choose from a sample prompt (Appendix A)
    - Brainstorm prompts as a group
    - Strategies for holding ourselves responsible for reflection

IV. Debrief and Next Steps (15 minutes)
We will conclude by sharing ideas for continuing the conversation; specifically, how can we support each other as Leadership Educators for Social Justice?

- Debrief the workshop experience
- Identify resources and commit to sharing with each other
- Establish system for follow-up & connections

Discussion of Outcomes/Results

We have felt the impact of this work in our personal and professional lives and have documented these impacts in our reflection journals. Professionally, we see our work on Leadership for Social Justice percolating into the curricula for our other leadership courses. We are more intentional in choosing cases and examples of leaders engaged in social justice and of leaders who enact identities that are typically under-represented in formal curricula. Further, our intentional examination of systems of oppression and seeking of others engaged in this examination has led

to new professional networks and partnerships on our campuses and in our communities that include LGBT centers, Women's Centers, Voting Rights Advocates, Immigration Rights Advocates, the ACLU, and others who encourage further engagement, support the journey, and have served as guest speakers and mentors for classes as well.

On a personal level, one of us reflects:

> This has allowed me to forge personal connections with students who recognize our work in teaching leadership for social justice as a signal that we are also advocating for them and creating safe spaces for them. I believe that they are more open with me and to me and this has made my teaching more fulfilling as these relationships with students build. Further, it has allowed me to join a network of professionals who engage in social justice work and build friendships within this network. It's the first time I have felt that my professional self and personal self were aligned.

Another explains:

> Intentional self-reflection on my own (white) identity, power, privilege, and systems have helped me to recognize my own implicit biases, and hidden systems of injustice within our educational systems and structures. And while change is slow and I frequently mess up (or am complicit to the problem), I push myself and others towards practices of "critical hope" - addressing unjust systems through meaningful dialogue and empathic responses.

Workshop Implications

Participants will map their own social location and examine what it might mean in the classroom when teaching for leadership and social justice. This will aid in uncovering the systems of oppression each experiences and considering how that experience can facilitate examining other systems of oppression and empathizing with students. Further, acknowledging how one "shows up" in the classroom can help in understanding how students react to or engage with oneself over difficult topics.

It is often difficult to find time for all of the realms of faculty responsibility; thus, adding the expectation of regular reflection on one piece of that responsibility may seem impossible. Having a plan for reflection that includes a schedule and prompts can make it more likely to happen. As educators reflect on their own social location and practice, they will use the language of leadership for social justice. The increase in comfortability with the language and ways of being inspired by reflection may enable leadership educators to engage with educators in other fields who teach from a social justice lens and with experts engaging in social justice work in communities. This can create more densely connected learning spaces for students.

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Appendix A
Reflection Prompts

Choose one of the following prompts to being your reflection short writing. You will be invited, but not required, to share your reflection with the group.

- What are two news stories/current events that relate to social justice and connected with you this week? Why these events?
- What made you uncomfortable this week? How? What did you do to challenge yourself to overcome the discomfort?
- In what ways did you experience privilege this week? How could you use that privilege to challenge a system or process?
- What systems of oppression did you see or experience this week? In what ways do those systems interact with your teaching?
- We all make missteps in this journey. What is something you did or said that you would change now that you know more? How would you do/say it differently now? Why?

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Learning Abstract

Leadership educators often seek out meaningful ways to engage their students in the complex process of learning leadership. One such method to engage students in leadership learning is through the intrinsic motivation provided by games. This Educator Workshop will review the literature of serious games and escape games to highlight their ability to engage learners in content. Presenters will also discuss findings from their pilot study of undergraduate students' perceptions of leadership learning through their participation in leadership escape games. This session will also provide attendees the opportunity to experience a leadership escape room and begin designing their own escape room.

Introduction

In the last decade, escape rooms have expanded to become a worldwide phenomenon (Hagerty, 2017). Originally designed for entertainment purposes, some have shifted to be used for educational purposes in both corporate and educational settings (Nicholson, 2015; Boschi, 2016; Clarke et al., 2017; Eukel, Frenzel, & Cernusca, 2017; Humphrey, 2017). These escape rooms, as tools that integrate game mechanics with learning objectives, provide educators the ability to design an innovative pedagogical method to teach students content (Lameras et al., 2017). This opens the door for leadership educators to utilize escape rooms as a teaching practice to engage students in leadership learning.

To assist in the development of these leadership escape rooms, faculty at Coventry University developed a framework to design educational escape room experiences (Clarke et al., 2017). This framework details the design process from gathering data on participants, developing learning objectives, creating a theme for the experience, considering equipment needs, and testing and evaluating the participants' experience. The escapED framework has also been used in the creation of educational escape rooms for undergraduate students at other universities (Clarke et al., 2017; Humphrey, 2017).

The presenters, as leadership educators working in Student Affairs, have conducted over 40 leadership escape rooms for both undergraduate college students and professional organizations. In order to evaluate leadership learning through participation in escape rooms, a pilot study was conducted with students who participated in the leadership escape room at a leadership conference. These leadership escape rooms focused the leadership learning on Seemiller's (2014) leadership competencies of verbal communication, listening, advocating for a point of view, and resiliency. This pilot study provided evidence of leadership learning and revealed insights for the presenters' consideration in future development of leadership escape rooms.

The purpose of this presentation is to share the use of escape rooms as a pedagogy for leadership. The presenters will also describe their previous experiences in developing leadership escape rooms along with evidence gathered from students on perceived leadership learning from the pilot study. Participants will experience a leadership escape room, discover the value of escape

rooms as a leadership teaching strategy, and engage in the development of an escape room using the LEADescape framework (see Appendix A) for their own context.

Learning objectives include:
1) Examine the use of serious games and escape games in education.
2) Value escape games as a tool within leadership pedagogy.
3) Design an escape game purposed for a particular context to enhance learning objectives

Review of Related Scholarship

Jenkins (2013) surveyed leadership educators in an attempt to explore how frequently they engaged in particular pedagogical practices. Providing twenty-four possible teaching methods in the survey, the 303 respondents most frequently utilized the following practices: class discussion, interactive lecture and discussion, small group discussion, group projects, research projects, reflective journals, and self-assessments/instruments among others. Leadership educators less frequently engaged in skill building instructional strategies such as role play, simulation and games when compared to other teaching methods. This led Jenkins to ask, "are instructors avoiding them because they find them unimportant or are they simply afraid to use them (2013, a. 59)?" Instructors' perceptions on the importance of or fear of games has not been assessed; however, research does exist to mitigate potential fears and to articulate the importance of this instructional method.

The importance of games as a teaching strategy begins with student motivation as a learning principle that "influences the direction, intensity, persistence, and quality of the learning behaviors in which students engage" (Ambrose, Bridges, Lovett, DiPietro, & Norman, 2010, p. 69). Games provide intrinsic motivation through a variety of factors including challenges provided, fantasy, and learners' perceived control (Malone, 1981; Lepper, 1988). Other potential game elements of collaboration, team success, score-keeping, perceived potential for success and relevance to the learner also contribute to student motivation (Myers & Reigeluth, 2016). Games serve as a motivational tool, and this becomes particularly meaningful when games are appropriately aligned with learning objectives.

Serious games is a "relatively new discipline that couples learning design with game mechanics and logic" (Lameras et al., 2017, p. 972). Serious games allow educators to tailor the experience to content knowledge much like educators align any teaching activity with learning objectives. A recent review of serious games in higher education found 165 articles that included logical and empirical evidence on how instructors might arrange game mechanics within intentional learning plans (Lameras et al., 2017). Among other conclusions, the authors posited that considerable desire is present to provide assistance in the use of serious games within the higher education community (Lameras et al., 2017).

Evidence exists for the effectiveness of game-based learning in higher education. One such study, which involved 440 students in 18 sections of English, Math and Science courses at a community college in New York, had instructors design at least one game for a specific lesson (Crocco, Offenholley, & Hernandez, 2016). Each instructor taught a section using their traditional instructional method, and a section utilizing the serious game they developed. A

survey and a quiz assessing learning was given to both sections after the lesson. Higher levels of enjoyment were shown in every section with games when compared to a section of the same course that included more traditional instruction. The game and non-game sections were similar to each other in terms of post-lesson quiz scores; however, the authors were able to conclude that " more enjoyment of the lesson correlated with improvements in deep learning regardless of whether games were used or not, and games tended to increase enjoyment" (Crocco et al., 2016, p. 418).

There are also examples of instructional success with serious games in a leadership education context. In an exploratory study, Allen (2008) used a game called StarPower to cover ethics in leadership. Through trading chips, the game allows students to move up in society as either a square, triangle or circle, while challenging students' ethical decision making. An electronic survey was sent to fifty participants after participation. Of the twenty-five respondents, 96% believed the game was useful for teaching ethics, 100% believed it was educational, and 37.5% made decisions in the game they would like to change in hindsight (Allen, 2008).

Escape room games are a specific subset of non-digital serious games that deserve consideration from leadership educators. These action-packed games have increased in popularity, and educators have begun to recognize their potential as a serious game. In 2007, the first escape game emerged in Kyoto, Japan; today there are more than 2,800 escape rooms across the globe (Hagerty, 2017). "Escape rooms are live-action team-based games where players discover clues, solve puzzles, and accomplish tasks in one or more rooms in order to accomplish a specific goal in a limited amount of time" (Nicholson, 2015, p. 1). Nicholson (2015) conducted a study in which he received survey responses from 175 escape room facilities worldwide and found that 8% had been developed for an educational purpose. The learning objectives for these rooms typically surrounded teamwork, teambuilding, and communication.

Escape rooms have begun to appear for professional development purposes in the private sector. A mortgage company, United Short, used an escape room as a training tool to improve knowledge on mortgages and as a team building exercise (Boschi, 2016). The company built the escape room at their headquarters and focused learning objectives on four elements of team building: shared goals, defined roles, problem solving, and team-focused relationships. The company boasted improved collaboration and communication based on post-escape room evaluations, as well as an 8% increase in the mortgage basics exam.

Finally, escape rooms, as a non-digital serious game, are beginning to take root in higher education. Pharmacy professors at North Dakota State University developed an escape game with learning objectives focused on diabetes management in a skills laboratory course (Eukel et al., 2017). The goal in the escape room was to provide the correct injection to a child with type I diabetes, and four complex puzzles were included that reinforced learning on diabetes treatment. An example of a puzzle involved a locked lunch box that had dietary clues, a syringe, glucose log, and other items. A 23-item assessment testing knowledge of diabetes treatment was given to 74 third-year pharmacy students a week prior to the experience and immediately after the game. A statistically significant difference in scores was found with mean scores for post-test at 81% and the mean score for the pre-test was 56%, t (72) = -18.1, $p<.01$. A perception exit survey also revealed the following results (1=Strongly Disagree to 5=Strongly Agree): I learned from my

peers during the diabetes escape room, 4.4 (.6); the escape room was an effective way to learn new information related to diabetes, 4.3(.9); I learn better in a game format than in a didactic lecture, 4.0 (.9).

Professors at Coventry University in the United Kingdom developed a program called escapED, which involves non-digital, escape room experiences rooted in game-based learning (Clarke et al., 2017). "The philosophy and purpose of the escapED programme, is to conceptualize interactive experiences and aid other educational facilitators in creating their own, live-action games for the purposes of education and positive behavior change in higher/further education settings" (Clarke et al., 2017, p. 75). escapED's first pilot game, involving disarming a bomb, included learning objectives focused on communication, and teamwork. Participants included 13 University staff members who were observed to have remained engaged, implemented strategies for communication barriers, and delegated tasks during the escape room. Eight qualitative surveys revealed keywords such as fun, innovative, and engaging. Every participant stated they understood the educational values of the experience, and wanted to consider using the program in their classroom. From this pilot experience, escapED developed a framework to be used by education practitioners that included the following design steps: gather data on participants, develop learning objectives, create theme for experience, consider equipment needs, and test or evaluate experience.

Educators at Southampton University in the United Kingdom used the escapED framework to develop an escape room experience for an undergraduate research methods course (Clarke et al., 2017). The game was developed for first-year undergraduates in an effort to enhance basic research skills, and four main learning objectives corresponded with four activities within the game. The experience was completely enclosed within a single suitcase with pre-tasks and post-task elements added to bolster learning objectives. Another case study showed the efficacy of the escapED framework as a professor developed an escape game for students in an Advanced Applied Research Skills in Sport course using the model (Humphrey, 2017). The 12 participating students stated that the experience helped develop problem solving, communication, leadership, mathematical and observational skills. Common words used to describe the experience included engaging, enjoyable, and something different (Humphrey, 2017).

Games are an important instructional strategy that should be leveraged more often by leadership educators. Resources and frameworks to develop games aid the creation of games and help alleviate potential fears of those who wish to engage in this practice. The presenters have developed an escape room experience framed around specific leadership competencies of verbal communication, listening, advocating for a point of view, resiliency, and power dynamics to enable leadership learning (Seemiller, 2014). This escape experience has been successfully implemented with two groups of professional staff, and over 300 undergraduates at two separate leadership conferences. A survey of the literature reveals that this is perhaps the largest sample of undergraduates to attempt an escape room framed around intentional learning objectives.

Lesson Plan Description

Title: Escape Rooms: A Student-Centered Approach to Animating Leadership Learning

Time: 90 Minutes

Purpose: To amplify the importance of games as an instructional strategy and to prepare leadership educators in the usage of escape games. Participants will leave the educator workshop with the resources to develop an escape game unique to their specific context and learning objective needs.

Objectives:

1. Experience an escape game and debrief tied to specific learning objectives
2. Review literature surrounding serious games and escape games as a pedagogical practice
3. Describe experiences and outcomes from presenters' escape game evaluations
4. Develop an escape game focused on leadership learning objectives

Teaching Methods:

I. Introduction - 5 min
A. Presenter introductions
B. Review learning objectives of educator workshop

II. Literature Review: Serious Games and Escape Games in Education - 10 minutes
A. Utilize PowerPoint to review the literature surrounding serious game and escape games in education.

III. Escape Game Experience and Debrief - 35 minutes
A. Participants will experience an escape game in groups of eight to ten. Groups will have 25 minutes to solve multiple puzzles as a team.
1. Up to seven separate escape games will occur simultaneously in one room after a brief video sets the stage and rules are provided by the presenters.
2. Supplies for each game will be provided by presenters
3. An escape game timer is embedded with music in PowerPoint to enhance the experience.
B. Debrief escape room experience from the perspective of escape games as an educational tool in various contexts (classroom, program, conference, training, etc.)
C. Discuss student debrief to display clear connection to leadership competencies

IV. Presenters' Experience and Outcomes from Leadership Escape Rooms - 5 minutes
A. Utilize the PowerPoint to explain the results from the presenters pilot study and their experiences conducting leadership escape rooms

V. Building Your Own Escape Game - 30 minutes
A. Utilize the handout to utilize the presenters' LEADescape framework (see Appendix A) for developing escape games in a higher education context.

B.
C. Participants will fill out provided handout (see Appendix B) to begin the process of developing an escape game suitable for their context (learning objectives, theme, story line, etc.)
1. Presenters will guide participants through developing their own escape game.
2. Participants will leave with completed handouts that provide a foundation for developing their own escape game that meets their educational and contextual needs.

VI. Conclusion - 5 min
A. Facilitator contact information
B. Question and answer

Discussion of Outcomes/Results

At the time of this proposal, the presenters have conducted over 40 leadership escape rooms for both student and professional groups, with the majority of this number taking place at a collegiate student leadership conference. The focus for all of these leadership escape rooms has been on leadership learning enabled through the participants' engagement with the game elements and a concluding debrief with each group. In the second iteration of developing new escape games, the presenters examined existing frameworks for developing escape rooms and found them to contain unnecessary elements that stifled creativity. The presenters then developed the LEADescape framework (see Appendix A) to ease the process of creating escape games that enable leadership learning. The LEADescape framework can allow future escape game development to be implemented in a variety of contexts to teach leadership.

To determine if leadership learning was taking place through participation in the escape room, a pilot study was conducted at a collegiate student leadership conference that included over 300 students who all participated in a leadership escape room as part of the conference schedule. For this pilot study, Seemiller's (2014) leadership competencies of verbal communication, listening, advocating for a point of view, and resilience were specifically targeted through a concluding debrief conducted after the completion of the escape room. Participants in this pilot study (n=215) completed conference evaluations that included specific questions related to the leadership escape room. A thematic analysis of participants' responses to open-ended questions was conducted.

Leadership escape room participants described their leadership learning from completing the escape room as being strongly tied to communication, listening, team collaboration, valuing others' opinions, resiliency, and advocating for a point of view (Table 1). These perceived areas of leadership learning for participants of the escape rooms connect well to the leadership competencies of verbal communication and resiliency that were included in the concluding debriefs for each room. While advocating for a point of view was found in the thematic analysis, participants did not describe this theme with the same frequency as they did with the other previously mentioned aspects of their learning. Advocating for a point of view, however, was more frequently found in evaluation responses when participants were specifically asked to report what they learned about communication.

Table 1
Examples of Participants' Responses of Leadership Learning

Theme	Quotation
Communication & Resiliency	"I learned about the communication aspect of leadership as well as the ability to continue despite failing the first couple of tries."
Listening & Advocating Point of View	"You have to be a good listener to others as well as an advocate for your ideas."
Team Collaboration & Valuing Others Opinions	"To work together as a team, listen to everyone without talking over people."
Valuing Others Opinions	"It's important to listen to all points of view. Encourage others to speak up/contribute."
Resiliency	"There will conflict in groups of people trying to complete the task; the ability to persevere through conflicts is key to accomplishing a goal & successful leadership."

Lastly, when conference participants were asked their favorite aspect of the leadership conference, the leadership escape room was the most frequent response. One student stated, "The escape room was really fun. It pushed me out of my comfort zone and I contributed in ways I didn't think I could." Another explained that "The escape room was a great way to apply all of our leadership skills." Others described their reason for liking the escape room was because it was a "great hands-on experience". "Obviously the escape room!" was one student's response to their favorite part of the leadership conference. Therefore, not only are students engaging in

leadership escape rooms learning through their participation, they are enjoying the process of learning.

Taking these insights from the pilot study, the presenters are developing future escape rooms and revisiting which leadership competencies will be specifically targeted for leadership learning within the game. Puzzles within the game are also being designed to be more robust in their physical aspects as some previous participants failed to properly solve puzzles by exploiting weaknesses in their physical design. After the initial leadership escape rooms were conducted at the collegiate leadership escape room, the presenters received numerous requests to conduct these escape rooms for other student groups and professional organizations. Developing generalizable thematic elements for the escape rooms that can appropriately be utilized with multiple audiences while not sacrificing the leadership learning taking place is an important consideration. In future escape rooms, the presenters plan to expand on the pilot study in order to further examine the leadership learning taking place for future publication.

Workshop Implications

This workshop will benefit practitioners who wish to enhance learning in a variety of contexts through the use of escape games. Participants will gain foundational knowledge by participating in an escape game tied to leadership competency learning objectives. A group debrief of this experience will allow participants to explore the value of escape games as an educational tool or teaching strategy.

Presenters will briefly review the literature surrounding serious games, escape games in education, and the LEADescape framework for developing leadership escape games focused on learning. Participants will have the opportunity to be work through the LEADescape framework to develop their own leadership escape game suitable to their situational factors and learning needs. Using the handout (Appendix A), the presenters will work through each phase of the LEADescape framework, providing examples to allow participants to work on that phase of their escape game. The handout and workshop content will provide participants with the tools necessary to finish developing an escape game focused in leadership learning. Those in attendance will then be able to implement a leadership escape game that fits their educational and contextual needs.

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Appendix A

LEADescape Framework

- Taxonomy considerations
- Leadership Behaviors or Leadership Knowledge?

- What connects with participants?
  - What items belong?

- Connect to theme
- Convincing and logical within theme

  - Determine puzzles and connect to theme
  - Learning objective considerations
  - Build game map or flowchart
  - Develop supply list with budget

  - Connect game to learning objectives
  - Develop debrief questions for deeper learning

  - Observe and take notes during pilot
  - Enlist informal feedback
  - Modify based on feedback

- Include formal feedback process for participants
- Modify existing game
- Build new escape games!

Theme

What items belong?

What is the story?

Appendix B

Build Your Own Escape Game Handout

Learning Objectives 1)
2)
3)

What puzzles will you include?

Draw flow chart

What supplies do you need and what is your budget?

Who can you test this on? How will you solicit feedback?

What questions can you ask participants to draw out learning objectives?

How will you evaluate if learning objectives are met?

INNOVATIVE PRACTICE PAPERS

Anna Whitehall, Assistant Professor; Caitlin Bletscher, Assistant Professor, Washington State University

Enabling Healthy and Successful Relationships through Nonviolent Communication: A Foundation for Authentic Leadership Practice
Anthony A. Andenoro, Assistant Professor of Leadership Education; Nicholas C. Martinez, Research Associate, Challenge 2050 Project; Isabelle M. Oleck, Research Associate, Challenge 2050 Project; Cameron J. Outlaw, Research Associate, Challenge 2050 Project, University of Florida

Millennials and Organizational Leadership: Experiential Learning Lessons
Mariko Peshon, Postdoctoral Teaching Fellow; Derek Olson, Doctoral Student, University of San Diego

The Master Educator Course: An Accelerated, Collaborative Living-Learning Community Experience
Kristen Guthrie, Assistant Professor Organizational Leadership; John Baker, Associate Professor Organizational Leadership; Wren Mills, Adjunct Professor of Organization Leadership; Dennis George, Dean University College, Western Kentucky University

Teaching Leadership in a Management Course: Using Q Methodology to Engage Students in Theory Building
Brandy Walker, Public Service Faculty, Fanning Institute, University of Georgia; Keith Herdon, Professor of Practice, Grady College, University of Georgia

The Development of Neuroplasticity in Interdisciplinary Leadership Learners: The Physiology of Problem Solving

Anthony A. Andenoro, Assistant Professor of Leadership Education; Isabelle M. Oleck, Research Associate, Challenge 2050 Project; Nicholas C. Martinez, Research Associate, Challenge 2050 Project; Cameron J. Outlaw, Research Associate, Challenge 2050 Project, *University of Florida*

Abstract

The number of complex challenges facing of our global communities are accelerating at an alarming rate. This will require new paradigms for teaching and learning aimed at the development of problem solving capacity and agency. Through the understanding of brain-based learning grounded in neuroscience, leadership educators are afforded a framework for the development of the necessary problem-solving skills and capacities in their interdisciplinary leadership learners. This paper proposes a conceptual framework for engaging leadership learners in the development of neuroplasticity and complex adaptive solutions for mitigating complex global challenges.

Introduction

The diminishing ozone layer, water scarcity, food shortages, the declining success of vaccines, natural resource depletion, and countless other problems plague our global communities. The global population is exponentially increasing, with an estimated number of 9.725 billion people occupying our planet by the year 2050 (United Nations, 2015). This drastic influx of people calls for a change in the way society lives and a need for radical sustainability solutions to be put in place (Andenoro, et al., 2016). The urgency for problem-solving and leader development is at an all-time high. However higher education teaching and learning methods are often rooted in traditional educational ideas creating a context that painfully inadequate to develop the necessary capacities, skills, and disposition critical for addressing global challenges. Leadership education academic programs often model this antiquated approach to teaching and learning maintaining anti-Frierean "open-head-dump-in-knowledge" methodologies. Further, while the development of creativity for problem solving is often noted by leadership learning programs, in practice leadership educators rarely build off of neuronal networks to maximize learner development. Rather, they employ passive learning over more appropriate active learning methodologies (Zull, 2002). These educational practices do not align with how the brain has been naturally designed to learn and use knowledge.

The biological evolution of the brain is a subject that has only recently been studied. Educational neuroscience is an emergent field illuminating significant implications for successful leadership education. The terms learning and neuroplasticity are rarely associated, however they are indelibly linked. Learning can be defined as changes in behavior that result from experience or mechanistically as changes in the organism that result from experience (Houwer, Barnes-Holmes, & Moors, 2013). Neuroplasticity can be defined as the brain's ability to form new neural connections throughout life in response to new situations, injury, or changes in their environment (Draganski, 2004). Both of these terms imply and refer to changes in the brain, as when true leadership learning occurs, the brain changes its physiology. To teach is to bring about neuroplasticity, and therefore, teaching leadership is an applied science of the brain. Through the understanding brain research, leadership educators can create a deeper understanding of what is happening at the physiological level within regards to learning and problem solving. Leadership educators can leverage the power of brain-based research and learning to develop leadership learners capable of addressing complex problems and meeting the challenges of an ever-changing world. The following proposes a conceptual framework grounded in the theoretical foundations of neuroplasticity and active brain-based learning capable of engaging leadership learners to develop

critical problem-solving capacity and agency aimed at mitigating global challenges. For the practical purposes of this paper, problem-solving capacity can be defined as the effective engagement in the processes of problem construction and identification, information search and acquisition, idea generation, idea evaluation, and implementation (Mumford, Baughman, & Sager, 2003). 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). Agency is further contextualized for leadership educators by coupling the context of past, present, and future with the propensity to act (Andenoro, Dulikarvich, & Stedman, 2017; Andenoro, Sowcik, & Balser, 2017).

Theoretical Foundation

A leader is someone who serves to create new aims, adjust old ones, and create courses of action (Caroselli, 2000). Moreover, a leader is a problem solver. Leadership educators must be able to develop learners who can resolve issues and initiate sustainable solutions. To do this, leadership educators need to allow for autonomy and creativity in their learners. The future of education is changing students from receivers of knowledge, to creators of knowledge (Zull, 2002). This begins with giving control to the learner and allowing the student to think. Evolution proves that humans need control. Not only do we need control to survive, but we also need control to give us motivation to learn. This leads to believing that we are in control. Specifically, an internal locus of control (Lefcourt, 1991; Rotter 1990) is critical for the leadership learner's success. This is the belief that one's own ability, effort, and actions determine what happens (1990). The importance of an internal locus of control derives a desperate struggle to survive from our brains. "No outside influence or force can cause the brain to learn. It will decide on its own" (Zull, 2002, p.52). Therefore, the learner needs to feel as though he or she is in control. Once this happens, the creative process is intiated. Creating new ideas has two steps: short-term storage of information, and then manipulation of that information to form new relationships (Sternberg, 1999). When a learner does not feel as though their ability, effort, and actions determine what happens, the second step does not happen. An internal locus of control is the key for learners to create knowledge from information in the working memory (Zull, 2002). Solving problems is grounded in the creation of knowledge. Once a learner can do this, even the most complex issue can be resolved.

As noted previously, learning and neuroplasticity are synonymous. Our entire brain is a system of neuronal networks. Just like matter, they cannot be created nor destroyed. The network can either be made stronger or weaken/die without use of certain pathways or neuroplasticity. The most effective way for a leadership educator to encourage learning is by building on existing neuronal networks. However, this is actually the opposite of how the large majority of educators attempt to instill knowledge. The process of knowledge creation and stewardship begins with concrete examples rooted in the information that the learners already possess. Currently, leadership educators start where *they* are, not where *their* learners are (Zull, 2002). Roger Schank (1995) writes, a good teacher is not one who explains things correctly, but rather one who puts things in an interesting way. This aligns with Bain's (2011) work, as the effective educator finds a learner's passion and then informs it. Leadership educators must shift their understanding of teaching and learning from providing students with new information and concepts to the devotion of more time and effort to finding out the information and cognitive paradigms that leadership learners maintain creating the foundation for problem-solving capacity and agency. Otherwise, the new information may be useless (Zull, 2002). This can be done by simply asking "What does this make you think of?" This simplistic teaching intervention allows leadership educators scaffold knowledge from existing neuronal networks and induce neuroplasticity.

Another aspect of neuroscience that education leaders need to be aware of is the importance of emotion in learning. LeDoux (1998), identified the limbic cortex of the brain to be the fundamental player in emotion. Additionally, evolutionary neuroscientists have discovered that emotional functions may have

predated cognitive function in humans, and therefore, may be more crucial (Zull, 2002). The amygdala regulates fear and its' relatives, anger and rage. This brain structure is located in the back cortex near the temporal lobe along with the hippocampus. The hippocampus is involved in declarative and episodic memory formation. These two structures interact and when emotion, not including stress, is involved in an experience, the memory is proven to be stronger (Phelps, 2004). The amygdala is constantly aware of our experiences and subconsciously monitors situations. Different observances make the amygdala more or less active. When the amygdala is more active, like in stressful situations such as exams or answering questions in front of a class, learning becomes inhibited. This is because sensory signals go directly through the amygdala, bypassing the sensory cortex. If the amygdala is more active, less information will end up in the back integrative cortex, where short-term memory and plans of action are created. On the contrary, positive experiences like a simple smiling face, diminish the activity of the amygdala. Furthermore, when the cortical brain becomes involved in cognitive tasks like solving a puzzle, the amygdala also becomes less active (Zull, 2002, p. 60). Making the amygdala less active allows the brain to focus on the work it has to do and allows the intrinsic reward systems to become engaged. Further, pleasure is also incredibly important in the learning cycle. People get enjoyment and satisfaction through movement and the anticipation of movement (Zull, 2002). This enjoyment and anticipation of movement is what keeps us watching a movie or reading a good book. We want something to happen and are curious to find out what it could potentially be. Further, we recognize achievement as a movement and the idea of this success is a huge factor of intrinsic motivation. Movement and action is probably the most important part of the learning cycle because this step is what leads to the formation of new concrete experience (Zull, 2002).

Description of the Practice & Conceptual Framework

The theoretical foundations that support the development of problem solvers, the neuroscience of learning, and identify the issues with inauthentic learning, create the underpinning for a conceptual framework for effective teaching and learning methods within leadership education contexts. The methods create authentic learning and revitalize the innate desire humans have to learn. Vital teaching methods are supported by previous neuronal networks, utilize emotion, and employ an intrinsic reward system to maximize the development of problem-solving capacity, neuroplasticity, and agency in leadership learners.

Understanding how the brain is designed to learn is one of the most important phenomena a leadership educator should explore to create effective knowledge retention and application. Learning can be obtained through a cycle of four events: experience, reflection, abstraction, and active testing (Zull, 2002). These four events can occur in any order and can take a range of time for the full cycle to occur. This learning cycle is proven by evolution and the physiology of the brain. The cerebral cortex, the outer most layer of the brain, has a natural order of functioning: sense, integrate, act (2002). These three functions can be observed in the simplest of animals and are how humans have survived and adapted for billions of years. The brain senses the outside world, adds up all of the information the sensory organs send it and creates an idea/plan, and later creates a motor function to act on this idea. The learning cycle is a more intricate and deeper sequence of these three functions of the cerebral cortex. Four parts of the cerebral cortex exist: sensory, back integrative, front integrative, and motor (Sousa, 2016; 2011). These four regions align with the natural learning cycle of experience, reflection, abstraction, and active testing (Zull, 2002). The sensory cortex, and experience step of the learning cycle, receives direct physical information from the world and concrete experience, for example, being provided with the definition of cheese. The back integrative cortex is engaged in memory formation/ reassembly, developing spatial relationships, and analyzing our experiences. This back cortex makes meaning of information. This part of the cortex can be matched with the reflection stage of learning, including connecting information, developing insights, and daydreaming. For example, the back integrative cortex would recognize that cheese is what comes on pizza. The frontal integrative cortex is known for short term memory, problem solving, assembling plans for action, and making judgments about information. This can be paired with

the abstraction stage of learning which is manipulation of information and making plans for the future, for instance planning to make a pizza the next day with mozzarella cheese. Lastly, the motor cortex triggers voluntary muscle contractions and carries out plans. This matches with the necessary step of completing the plan and making a pizza. Balanced use of all of these regions is essential for real learning to occur (Sousa, 2016). With respect to the analogy of understanding pizza, these steps are effective in a specific order and the student will learn, retain, and have the ability to apply this knowledge. However, learning about cheese pizza is much simpler than developing a plan to help sustain our world. A more applicable example would be understanding overpopulation. The back integrative cortex and reflection stage of learning would involve a student attempting to understand the current population dynamics on Earth. The motor cortex would engage, and the leadership learner would ask the professor a question such as, "what are the United Nations' population projections and how does that impact our ability to produce food sustainably?" After learning that the population is projected to exceed 9.7 billion people in 2050 and that will require a 70% increase of agricultural yield (United Nations, 2015), the frontal cortex and abstraction stage would want to know what that really looks like. This creates a foundation for the development of problem-solving capacity and agency with respect to the problem and promotes neuroplasticity. Project-based learning and ultimately travel to a context such as São Paulo, Braśil (fourth most populous city in the world) would allow leadership learners to fully create a sensory-based understanding for what overpopulation entails. Through an understanding for this cycle, a commitment to all four steps of the learning process, and an understanding for the time parameters required to complete this cycle, leadership educators can create powerful learning experiences aimed at developing neuroplasticity, problem-solving capacity, and agency for the diverse learners within the leadership learning context.

All four steps of the learning cycle are necessary for true learning to occur. However, leadership educators often disregard at least two of these learning stages. This leads to only of the two kinds of learning to occur. Often, passive learning is what leadership educators practice. Passive learning involves recalling associations and details after being provided with information, hence using the back cortex. This kind of learning requires considerable effort and leads to a positive outcome of correct answers when recalling on a test. However, this form of learning completely neglects the front integrative cortex. In contrast, active learning utilizes action and choice, which is pleasurable and effective for developing ideas and application. This type of learning involves asking questions and getting feedback, which triggers the pleasure system much more than memorization. Active learning ignores the back cortex by employing practices that include trial and error, only acting and sensing. Furthermore, leadership educators may stress creativity without providing the students with the facts and knowledge that the back cortex needs (Zull, 2002). Leadership educators critically need to create authentic learning by utilizing not just one, but both forms of learning. Secondly, the complex system of utilizing extrinsic, rather than intrinsic, rewards that has taken over the school system, has also affected the way leadership educators teach. Leadership education is centered around extrinsic rewards: gold stars, grades, scholarships, and even praise (Zull, 2002). This gets students to do things, but not to learn. Leadership educators need to employ intrinsic rewards by identifying what is already motivating each individual student and then using that information to motivate further learning. Kohn (1999) concludes, that when we try to help someone learn by offering an extrinsic reward, learning will actually be reduced. This is because when the human brain sees a reward or punishment, it sees a loss of control. Also, once the reward is completed, for instance with a grade, the students often cannot remember the information days later. Therefore, solely employing extrinsic rewards is another huge factor as to why leadership educators are creating inauthentic learning.

In addition, leadership educators must go beyond learning cycle, and make use of the learners' senses. All sensory processes are innate concrete experiences that humans have that are meant to be built off and understood (Zull, 2002). Currently in the classroom, only visual and auditory processes are active. Yet, the most important senses for long-term memory and understanding are smell, taste, and touch (Zull, 2002). Direct synapsing exists between the olfactory area of the brain and the amygdala and

hippocampus (Willander & Larsson, 2006). This is why a simple whiff of perfume can bring a person back to their childhood. Leadership educators could incorporate this by releasing the smell of rotting sewage to display the lack of clean water in India. Additionally, both taste and touch enrich learning by affecting the amygdala and hippocampus. Anything that can play into humans' emotions will help them gain knowledge much more efficiently and effectively. This leads to the concept of story-telling. The importance of telling stories, hearing stories, and creating stories is significant (Schank, 1990). Stories connect all parts of our brain: our memories, our experiences, our actions, our ideas, and our feelings (Zull, 2002). Humans remember by connecting things with their stories and by experiencing the derivative emotions that come from deep engagement. Not only should leadership educators tell stories, but they should ask their students to do the same. This can be done by harvesting peer interaction which is also undeniably important for learning. Sharing images with peers also gives the learner new cognitive ideas. "[the learner] will also gain confidence and begin to recognize the progress he has already made. Without interaction with peers, the learner may well not realize where he really stands" (Zull, 2002, p. 239). Also, by learning from peers, the learner will demonstrate increased motivation. This creates the foundation for the use of an intrinsic reward system. Valuing this system over extrinsic rewards might be the most important practice a leadership educator will have. This can be done by building off the motivation a student already has. Motivation comes from learning. Naturally, if a human is learning successfully they will want to learn more (Zull, 2002). When education leaders utilize extrinsic rewards, this shuts down the motivation system because the brain of the learner no longer believes it is in control (Zull, 2002). Extrinsic rewards such as grades, teacher satisfaction, and even getting a test over with, may be good for getting a learner started, but should not make up the whole system. Leadership learners and their ability to apply problem-solving capacity to our most pressing challenges are the future of global sustainability, and as such, getting a decent grade on an exam should not be their sole source of motivation. Leadership educators must find out what emotionally drives their students and what will allow them to connect to the information they are providing. To start, leadership educators should only intervene with a student's learning process when necessary. This will put the student at the center of learning, not the teacher. "An effective teacher knows when to lead, and when to step aside" (Zull, 2002, p. 230). This is vital for a leadership student to take ownership of their education and believe that the knowledge inherent to leadership education is indelibly linked to their lives. To achieve this, it is critical to let the leadership learner connect facts, abstract knowledge, and discover phenomena for themselves. The leadership educator should only intervene during this stage when learning is halted, and the leadership learner stops showing progress. Lastly, leadership educators must allow for exploration. The students should be able to guide the knowledge acquisition process, which can be done via classroom discussions, rather than classroom lectures. Exploration and action to encounter new information is the sole way humans evolutionarily learned authentically (Zull, 2002). The leadership educator's responsibility is to subtly put information in the students' learning context, and then let them discover it. Once the students discover the knowledge within their learning context, they must actively explore their ideas about it. This includes asking questions and exploring diverse, real world experiences to challenge their knowledge. This establishes a foundation for motivation leading to elevated levels of internal locus of control. This active learning process and the idea of knowledge-testing is extremely important to the development of problem-solving capacity and leadership agency in the leadership learner. Without it, the learner may never induce neuroplasticity and the art of changing his or her brain.

Discussion of Outcomes/Results

To date, the inclusion of active learning processes grounded in the previously noted conceptual framework are forming new connections aligning with the development neuroplasticity in interdisciplinary leadership learners within the [insert program here]. Concurrently, qualitative data collected throughout the previously articulated stages, and analyzed via constant comparative analysis (Glaser, 1965), illuminate the development of problem-solving capacity and leadership agency in the interdisciplinary leadership learners. Specifically, leadership learners are demonstrating elevated levels of engagement in and ownership for complex problems and the accompanying problem-solving

processes. Leadership learners demonstrate a strong desire and motivation to impact change in the world. This is evident by content analyses of their writing, revealing an understanding for the past, context for the present state of affairs, and foresight for the predictive future with respect to the complex problems they are exploring. Further, they exhibit a propensity to act in accordance with this knowledge. These results, along with forthcoming publications aligned with the power of active learning for developing neuroplasticity, problem-solving capacity, and leadership agency in leadership learners will have far reaching implications for leadership educators attempting to advance leadership aimed at addressing complex problems locally and globally and contribute to the advancement of the intellectual merit and broader impact of the field of Leadership Education.

Recommendations & Reflections of the Practitioner

Learning is a reciprocal process, and as such the leadership educator should benefit from the leadership learning environment as much as the leadership learner. This is inherent to the previously identified innovative practice. Through the empowerment of leadership learner autonomy and creativity in the knowledge acquisition and creation process, the leadership educator has the potential to grow and further define his or her understanding of leadership processes and the complex problems that create tension in our world. The tangible essence of this idea is grounded in humility and the idea of a growth mindset (Dweck, 2006). Leadership educators must approach this innovative practice with an openness to embracing ideas and perspectives that challenge previously held beliefs about leadership, learning, and the complex problems of our world. This requires the leadership educator to share control of the learning process and empower leadership learners to challenge knowledge, practice constructive dialogue, and champion ideas that conflict with previous assumptions. While this is critical to achieving the learning outcomes established previously, this can be challenging for leadership educators and can require significant self-awareness and reflection to create a learning environment that promotes reciprocity. It is strongly encouraged for leadership educators to set aside personal agendas, traditional ideas grounded in expert power and teacher centered instructional practices, and maintain openness to continuous learning and advancement of new understanding in the leadership learning context.

The implications for this innovative practice are far-reaching, but more research needs to be done. Currently, faculty and researchers within the [insert program here] are exploring the use of facial recognition software, heartrate monitoring, EEG, and other brain-based assessments to provide clinical data supporting the development of neuroplasticity and neural pathways associated with engagement, sentiment, and emotion within this innovative practice. This will provide the underpinning to map leadership learning and influence from a clinical perspective. This groundbreaking research has the potential to significantly advance leadership learning and the associated disciplines of Leadership Education. This coupled with collaborative interdisciplinary partnerships and application within leadership learning contexts afford leadership educators with tremendous possibilities for empowering the development of leadership learners' problem-solving capacity and agency for addressing our most pressing complex challenges. Further, this has the potential to lead to more effective leadership education practices, and ultimately greater sustainability for our world.

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Mentorship as the Nexus of Transactional & Transformational Learning

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Abstract

As a response to the increasing demand for accountability and the questioning of higher education's value, the 1869 Scholars initiative utilizes student-alumni mentorships to help students explore *life's big question*s and articulate skills developed in curricular and co-curricular environments. Presenters will provide a program overview, present preliminary results from qualitative and quantitative assessment, discuss program challenges and opportunities, and provide ideas for how session attendees might replicate the program on their campuses.

Introduction

Higher education is at a liminal moment (McGee, 2015). It is essential, now more than ever, for colleges and universities to communicate the value of liberal learning (Clydesdale, 2016). It is also critical for these institutions to prepare students to articulate the value of their personal higher education experience. For example, the Texas Higher Education Coordinating Board has included *marketable skills* as part of its most recent strategic plan. A foundational element of the plan envisions that "[…] by 2030 all graduates from Texas public institutions of higher education will have completed programs with identified marketable skills" (Texas Higher Education Coordinating Board, p. 22). As a response to these environmental forces, University colleagues across three divisions (Academic Affairs, Alumni Relations and Development, and Student Life) are engaged in an initiative aimed at enabling students to reflect upon their calling (e.g. vocational discernment) and practice articulating critical competencies developed in curricular and co-curricular learning environments. Jump-started with a grant from the Council for Independent Colleges (CIC) Network for Vocation in Undergraduate Education (NetVUE) Foundation and the Lilly Endowment, Inc., the resulting program, 1869 Scholars, actively engages students, alumni, university administrators, and faculty advisors to achieve this purpose.

Through structured, one-to-one student-alumni mentorships, 1869 Scholars student participants engage in guided conversation and reflection of vocational exploration and skills articulation. Alumni mentors engage students through curriculum in one of two tracks, vocational exploration or skills articulation. To ensure program quality, alumni mentors receive web-based training and curriculum resources. Relationships are tracked using third-party software so that both alumni mentors and students have the opportunity to share ongoing feedback.

Review of Related Scholarship

As the value of liberal learning is called into question, a growing body of literature examines best practices and the myriad ways higher educational

organizations are responding. In developing the 1869 Scholars program, three specific avenues were examined: skill articulation/development, the importance of mentorship, and the value of liberal learning.

Skill Development & Articulation

The articulation of learned competencies is important to employers and institutions alike. Is higher education fostering experiences that yield the skills and competencies beneficial to

success in the workplace? In fact, some evidence indicates a perceived skills gap. According to Hart Research Associates, "When it comes to the types of skills and knowledge that employers feel are most important to workplace success, large majorities of employers do NOT feel that recent college graduates are well prepared" (2015). However, it seems reasonable to question an actual skills gap versus an inability to make the connection between experiences and competencies, both on the part of the graduate and the employer. Jamie Merisotis, President and CEO of Lumina Foundation acknowledges "Students need to be able to communicate with employers the breadth of their learning and what their credentials mean" (Student Affairs Administrators in Higher Education, 2015). These conclusions from the Lumina Foundation and the Hart Report serve as building blocks for 1869 Scholars.

Mentorship

Another important finding is the value of mentorship. According to the *Great Jobs, Great Lives* report, when graduates strongly agree they were emotionally supported during college, they are significantly more likely to be engaged in the workplace. Indeed, many institutions include developing the *whole student* in their mission statements and few would argue this is not an important outcome of the college experience. Yet, according to the report, only 22% of college students indicated they had a mentor who encouraged their goals or dreams (Gallup, 2014).

In their meta-analysis, Shanahan, Ackley-Holbrook, Hall, Stewart, and Walkington (2015) examined more than 100 research studies focused on best practices for mentors of undergraduate research students. Within the context of Shanahan et al.'s research, practices that informed the development of 1869 Scholars include: 1) dedicated time to hands-on mentoring; 2) increased student ownership over time, 3) supporting professional development through networking; and 4) balancing rigorous expectations with emotional support. 1869 Scholars was designed to create an environment for students to reflect upon and evaluate their collegiate journey with a mentor who can provide a framework upon which students can depend (Brown, 2016, p. 268-271).

As it relates to developing and maintaining mentoring relationships, Sanders (2015) was foundational for the 1869 Scholars program. Sanders describes the mentoring cycle as a three- step, circular approach: 1) identify, 2) engage, and 3) empower. He states: "Mentorship is not just a chance encounter or delivered in a random set of conversations," (p. 32) implying these relationships must be nurtured over time. 1869 Scholars fully embraces all three steps of Sanders' mentoring cycle: 1) mentors

are *identified* and intentionally paired with students based on shared interests or experiences; 2) alumni are *engaged* with students across the academic year; and 3) and both alumni and students are *empowered* to make the most of their unique pairing by deviating from scheduled curriculum content as needed.

Vocational Exploration within the Higher Education Context

Clydesdale (2016) and Stross (2017) argue that higher education and, specifically the liberal arts, aren't required to venture completely down the road to commercialization (Bok, 2003). Indeed, Clydesdale's research indicates that universities must counterbalance the "supply-side model of student learning and development that is marginally effective" (Clydesdale, p. xvi). To do so, they must engage students "with questions of purpose and vocation" (p. 173), while "equip[ping] graduates for the long slog from commencement to stable employment and productive citizenship" (p. 204).

Among Stross' key findings was that some Silicon Valley executives "think the people skills [developed in a liberal art setting] are harder to learn than the domain stuff on the technical side" (p. 13). Stross states the pattern is the "importance of character […] the capacity to work hard, and the drive to reach higher" (p. 239). Combing Stross' contention that the liberal arts are paramount with Clydesdale's call for straightforward creative programs, an important element of 1869 Scholars was designed to engage students around the concepts of purpose and calling.

Description of the Practice

Skill development and finding one's purpose often seem like disparate phenomena; with intentionality the two become complementary. 1869 Scholars is an innovative, scalable practice that not only helps students develop vocational insights and articulate skills learned inside and outside the classroom, it also enables alumni to experience moments of meaningful engagement.

Program Coordination and Oversight

1869 Scholars was developed through the efforts of many people, however, the primary university collaborators are almost all senior administrative officers in Alumni Relations, Career Services, Experiential Learning, Residential Life, and Student Involvement. The team meets bi- weekly to plan, implement, and oversee various components of the program, including intentional collaboration with three alumni volunteers serving in the alumni mentor coordinator role. Alumni mentor coordinators meet with the program coordinators one to two times a semester in addition to a summer planning retreat. The alumni mentor coordinator role serves three key functions: provides critical insight from an alumni volunteer perspective, helps recruit alumni mentors to be matched with participating students, and serves as the main point of contact for alumni mentors regarding program updates and action items.

Recruitment & Selection Process

Mentors are local alumni recruited via email from the division of Alumni Relations and Development and the alumni mentor coordinators, as well as through announcements made at local alumni board meetings. Alumni mentors receive training through a live webinar facilitated by the university program coordinators. Students are recruited through personal invitations, announcements via social media, digital newsletters, emails, and flyers in residence halls.

Using electronic applications, the university program coordinators match students with alumni by identifying at least one common interest or shared experience. Sophomore students are assigned to the vocational exploration track. Juniors are also included in this track when their application hints at a need for vocation clarification or reflects a high level of career indecision. Seniors are automatically assigned to the skills articulation track to explore how to effectively communicate their career readiness skills to future employers or graduate school recruiters.

Pairs are shared via email and the first formal interaction between the alumni mentor and student occurs at the opening dinner. Pairs are expected to engage five to six times throughout the academic year, guided by thematic conversations and activities relevant to the vocational exploration or skills articulation track. Curricular resources are available online.

See Appendix A (Program Overview) for an illustrative overview of the program timeline for both program tracks. See Appendix B (Program Resources) for screenshots of digital program resources provided to alumni mentors and students.

Discussion of Outcomes/Results

1869 Scholars program goals are threefold. Students will: 1) engage in vocational reflection; 2) articulate the skills and knowledge acquired through curricular and co-curricular learning; and 3) establish meaningful connections with alumni. Brief "temperature check" surveys are distributed twice a semester to assess the quality of the experience from the participants' perspectives.
Additionally, program coordinators lead focus groups at points during and after the program to collect feedback from alumni mentors and students. In preparation for the upcoming academic year, assessment results and informal feedback from participants are discussed by program coordinators and alumni mentor coordinators during a summer planning retreat. Thus, the formal assessment strategy for 1869 Scholars includes multiple strategies (focus groups, recurring "feedback loops," and an evaluation at the conclusion of the program) that enable program coordinators to determine whether program goals are achieved. In addition, the identified assessment methods support an iterative program development approach, at times even allowing for program coordinators to make *just in time* shifts in program delivery. Existing and expected results for the 2017-2018 program are identified below.

<u>Focus Groups</u>

Program coordinators facilitated focus groups for student participants (n=6) at the midpoint of the program (December 2017). The purpose of this assessment strategy was to collect anecdotal data about the student experience in order to determine changes (if any) to program delivery
mid-year. Focus group questions include: *What has this experience been like for you? What have you learned about yourself thus far? How do you envision spring semester conversations going? What suggestions do you have for improving the program?* Table 1 provides a summary of the qualitative data gathered during the focus group and results.

Table 1 (Student focus groups (n=6), December 2017)

Theme	**Qualitative example**	**Programmatic changes, if any**
Perceived learning and self-reflection	"I learned my focus was too narrow. I have learned there are lots of other outlets/venues for me."	n/a
Mentorship pairs: Students articulated varied experiences that centered on the specific alumni mentor match.	"We struggled to find things in common. We literally had no direct connections - Greek life, athlete, study abroad."	In the future, mentorship pairs will be made accordingly: Students in the skills track will first be matched with an alumni mentor who shares a career path or career interest. If that objective can't be met, the pair will be matched based on shared majors or disciplines. Matches for students in the vocation track will continue to be made based on one shared interest or experience.
Curriculum: Students who engaged with the values clarification module	"Doing the values exercise first was so important to help my mentor better frame our conversations and helped my mentor	In the future, the values clarification module will be the first module in both the vocational exploration and skills track.

underscored its success of establishing a foundation for the mentorship.	better understand [me]."	

Program coordinators will also host focus groups with alumni mentors at the completion of the program (April 2018). These focus groups will occur off-campus at two different locations for the convenience of local alumni. Focus group questions will include: *What was this experience like for you? What did you learn about yourself as a mentor? What suggestions do you have for improving the program?* In Summer 2018, program coordinators will review all focus group data in order to identify opportunities for continuous program improvement and underscore proficiencies and deficiencies in meeting the three program goals.

Feedback Loops

Alumni mentors and student participants receive an electronic "temperature check" survey once a semester with the prompt "How has your experience been thus far?" Responses are on a four- point Likert scale ranging from "My experience has been fabulous" to "I am really disappointed." The software used to collect this data (Customer Thermometer) automatically sends alerts to program coordinators when the lowest rated response is selected by a participant ("I am really disappointed"). See Table 2 for results from this assessment strategy.

Table 2: Regular feedback loops ("How has your experience been thus far?")

	Oct.	**Nov.**	**Feb.**	**Analysis**
Response rate (alumni mentors and student participants)	62%	48%	42%	Not surprisingly, the response rate for surveys decreased over time. This may be a reflection of the instrument becoming "white noise" given the frequency of distribution. Alternatively, participants may not recognize the value of their continued feedback time after time.
Results (% of respondents indicating a gold star "My experience has been fabulous")	67.0%	56.7%	58.3%	Across all three months, no fewer than 56.7% of respondents selected a gold star ("My experience has been fabulous"). This is a positive measure of success regarding the mentoring relationship over time, particularly in relation to Goal 3 (establish meaningful connections with alumni).

Program Evaluation

At the end of the 2017-2018 program, a program evaluation will be provided to all participants. (See Appendix C for a draft of the instrument.) Respondents will provide information related to the frequency of mentorship meetings/interactions, respond to various measures of the mentoring relationship, evaluate curriculum for both program tracks, and answer questions explicitly connected to goal one (engage in vocational reflection) and goal two (articulate the skills and knowledge acquired through curricular and co-curricular learning).

Reflections of the Practitioner

Upon reflection, there are three thematic categories that may be helpful to other practitioners: the evaluation of assessment strategies, the importance of campus partnerships, and contingencies for study abroad participants.

Assessment strategies

1869 Scholars is a complex and nuanced program; assessment strategies should not only reflect this complexity, but also ensure it yields the necessary data to convince key campus stakeholders to financially support the program over time. Through program implementation and assessment, it is apparent that future assessment strategies must go beyond the evaluation of program goals and into clear measures of success and student learning outcomes. At a micro-level, the recurring "temperature check" instrument needs improvement. For example, the prompt ("How has this experience been for you?") should be modified to clearly connect to the mentoring relationship. In addition, the decrease in response rate over time should be examined.

Campus partnerships

The role of campus partnerships in the success of this program can't be understated. Practitioners at other institutions should carefully identify key stakeholders across multiple departments or divisions in order to create campus-wide buy-in, build support (financially and otherwise), and spread the workload across many individuals. An existing partnership that can be strengthened is with the division of Alumni Relations and Development. Moving forward, this division will play a key role in the program's expansion. Alumni Relations and Development conducts national alumni visits annually; deliberate recruitment for alumni mentors outside of the city where the campus is located will permit program growth and increased alumni engagement inter/nationally.

Study Abroad

Given that 1869 Scholars is an academic-year commitment, consideration should be given to students studying abroad during the academic year. If students are able to meet mentors prior to departing for the fall semester, a combination of virtual interactions (e.g. Skype or FaceTime) may be sufficient to sustain a meaningful relationship. It may also be helpful to increase face-to- face interactions during the semester the student is *not* enrolled in study abroad.

Recommendations

The literature review underscores networking as a developmental bridge connecting student success and mentoring relationships. For example, Shanahan et al. (2015) emphasized the importance of supporting students' professional development through networking. Through both the formal assessment and informal conversations, it is evident that mentoring shouldn't be limited to the academic year and that current geographic restrictions limit the diversity of mentor professions and the potential for shared interests and experiences between mentors and students. As such, developing a summer pilot program to explore opportunities for mentorship in home- cities of current students is a goal for Summer 2018.

Finally, financial sustainability of the program beyond the NetVUE grant is being considered. It is estimated that the program will require approximately $15,000-$20,000 per year. In Spring 2018 the Alumni Relations office included 1869 Scholars as an area for direct giving on its website. The 1869 Scholars program aligns with the department mission, as well as the values and goals of Trinity University and divisional partners. Ideally, necessary funding will be split into thirds between alumni/community donations, the Division of Student Life and the Division of Alumni Relations and Development.

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Appendix A (Program Overview)

Vocational exploration timeline:

Skills articulation timeline:

Appendix B (Program Resources)

Curriculum outlines for vocational exploration and skills articulation tracks

Appendix C (Assessment)

Draft student program evaluation (2017-2018)

Implementation of a Leadership Framework to develop, implement, and assess a longitudinal, co-curricular student leadership program emphasizing leadership competencies and values

Abstract

While the integration of leadership experiences within doctorate of pharmacy programs provide essential professional development opportunities, it can be challenging to develop, assess, and continuously improve leadership programming that is both co-curricular and longitudinal in nature. This manuscript illustrates the use of a novel leadership framework for development, implementation, and planned analysis of a longitudinal leadership certificate program. The specific framework described is grounded in leadership theory, and provides opportunity to illustrate application of leadership concepts directly to a health care profession. Gaps and common themes identified by program participants using the leadership framework can be used to further improve program activities in the future based on student and pharmacist feedback.

Introduction

The purpose of this innovative practice session is to detail how a Leadership Framework can be used in the development, implementation, and planned assessment of a co-curricular leadership program emphasizing leadership components guided by leadership theory (see table 1). Use of a leadership framework provides a theoretical foundation and allows for illustration of core leadership program elements within a co-curricular, longitudinal setting. In this session, a specific leadership program will be described using a leadership framework emphasizing student development of essential skills. The described framework is based on a multitude of validated leadership models, including the Social Change Model.[14] Like the Leadership Framework, the Social Change Model emphasizes a nonhierarchical approach to leadership and a central belief that everyone has inherent leadership capacity that can be cultivated.[12] Leadership, both through the Social Change Model and Leadership Framework, is viewed as a collaborative process focused on change of the individual, group, and community.[12,14] It is through direct application of these central beliefs that essential skills are developed.[12,14]

The Leadership Framework serves as the foundation for the Pharmacy Leadership Certificate and Mentor (LCM) Program at the School of Pharmacy. The Pharmacy LCM Program is part of a campus-wide Leadership Certificate Program at the university that integrates intentional reflection, co-curricular involvement hours, and mentorship to facilitate student growth within key leadership framework components.[14] Doctor of Pharmacy students enrolled in the pharmacy LCM Program complete pharmacy-specific didactic, co-curricular, and mentorship components based on the Leadership Framework directly to pharmacy practice. The program spans students' first through fourth years of the Doctor of Pharmacy program, with the intent of strengthening student understanding and application of the values and competencies of the Leadership Framework in their personal lives and professional pharmacy experiences.

The Leadership Framework was created in response to meetings with more than 200 institutional campus stakeholders in 2011-2012. A student affairs department coordinated meetings with students, faculty, and staff across multiple schools, colleges and divisions. Given the overwhelming interest of leadership education stakeholders, the Office of the Provost, Division

of Student Life and Office of Human Resources sponsored an organized effort to generate a campus-wide shared understanding of leadership. The effort resulted in the Leadership Framework, which represents the evolving leadership research and the unique context of the university. Although the Leadership Framework is unique to the university, it can serve as a template for student development of essential skills, both within pharmacy and other professions, that could be expanded to schools across the country.

The Leadership Framework is founded on the principles that leadership is an action-oriented endeavor not based on position or level of authority, that context matters – each situation requires unique engagement, and that the act of leadership is understood as the phenomenon of positive change in an individual, group, or community's beliefs, values, or behaviors Leadership Framework components include three values and seven competencies, with specific emphasis on how these components intersect to generate observable leadership outcomes. The leadership values represent a set of cultural beliefs or ideals that are consistent with the universities' history and mission and support the work of leadership development.[15] Leadership competencies within the framework encompass unique skills, abilities, and knowledge sets that can be taught or developed. All competencies can be observed and measured. Specific values and competencies, as well as their definitions, are summarized in Table 1.

As a component of the program described, Pharmacy LCM Program students are assigned a practicing pharmacist mentor to apply the Leadership Framework directly to the pharmacy profession.[14] During mentor meetings, students reflect with a practicing pharmacist to further their understanding of how leadership framework competencies and values relate to pharmacy practice. Pharmacist mentors who volunteered to participate in the program are recognized as individuals who exemplify the leadership competencies and values of the Leadership Framework, and who can help facilitate student exploration of how leadership can positively affect their future practice.

The current evaluation for the Pharmacy LCM Program includes a longitudinal assessment of student self-efficacy and perceived growth based upon leadership framework components. The assessment plan for this program has been developed using the Leadership Framework as a guide to further tailor the program for students.

Review of Related Scholarship

There is discussion amongst professional pharmacy organizations of the potential for a looming pharmacy leadership crisis.[1] Pharmacy practice leaders continue to report challenges in filling leadership vacancies, with 83% of vacant leadership positions reported unfilled within a two-month period.[2] Furthermore, an estimated 75% of pharmacy directors will likely retire in the following decade, with only half of pharmacy managers having developed a formalized succession plan for their leadership position.[3] Despite the increase in pharmacy graduates, pharmacy leaders identify difficulties finding interested candidates with appropriate leadership experience.[2] To help close this leadership gap in pharmacy practice, schools of pharmacy are uniquely positioned to develop innovative, co-curricular leadership training programs to better prepare students as pharmacy leaders and agents for positive change within the profession.[4]

In 2008, the AACP Argus Committee challenged Schools of Pharmacy to develop curricula focused on leadership development through didactic, experiential, and co-curricular innovation.[5] The 2016 ACPE Standards further promote the need for integration of leadership development within pharmacy school curricula. Special emphasis is placed on development of essential skills within ACPE Standard 4, which highlights the need for increased student self-awareness, leadership, innovation, entrepreneurship, and professionalism.[6] According to Somerset (2001), essential skills, also referred to as "soft skills", are a combination of "cognitive, emotional, social, and physical skills."[7] Essential skills are responsible for 40% of corporate productivity, and are among the most valued attributes to health system pharmacy leaders.[3] It is estimated that 80% of career success is attributed to one's ability to interact with others, which can be learned, while just 20% of success is based on technical ability.[8]

Schools of pharmacy are uniquely positioned to help fill the leadership void. However, it may be unclear which leadership concepts should be emphasized for student learning. The utilization of leadership frameworks may be beneficial for Schools of Pharmacy to design, integrate, and assess desired leadership components within co-curricular leadership programming. There are a wide range of research-based frameworks for leadership qualities and practices in educational and professional settings that can be adapted to the needs of School of Pharmacy programs. The Collaborative Leadership Model, LeaderShape, Situational Leadership, and the Social Change Model represent a few of the many leadership frameworks described in the literature.[9–12] The integration of leadership frameworks as a foundation for conceptual design of leadership programming is one approach to design and assess co-curricular leadership programs within PharmD programs.[13]

Description of the Practice

Of the 149 eligible students in the first year doctorate of pharmacy class, 34 students completed a program application. Two students were removed from the program due to conflicts. The data represent the results for 32 students enrolled in the program. A total of 62 pharmacist mentors were contacted and asked to participate in the program. A total of 34 pharmacists expressed interest to serve as mentors. Two of the 34 mentors were removed from the data set corresponding to the two students who were removed of the program.

As a result of participation in the LCM, students will be able to 1) Engage in leadership opportunities with the purpose of creating positive change 2) Develop and communicate a plan of action on how they will apply leadership skills in the future 3) Apply leadership skills learned to a variety of settings and experiences 4) Reflect on leadership-related strengths and areas for improvement.

In addition to the mentorship component of the program, students are asked to complete one-hundred hours total in three involvement requirements (organizational/group leadership, civic engagement, trainings and workshops), three on-line learning modules-which each accompany a one-page reflection papers, a two-thousand word competency essay and a leadership for change capstone two-thousand word paper or twenty minute presentation. Students also have to receive a letter grade of a B or better in two required courses; S & A 414, Managing Pharmacy Systems for Patient Care and S & A 515, Managing Pharmacy Systems for Patient Care, which has the language and content of the Leadership Framework woven into the curriculum.

Student participants in the LCM are required to meet with their mentor three times, once per semester for three consecutive semesters. Student participants are required to do three assessments, one each fall semester for three years, 1) a baseline assessment 2) a midpoint assessment 3) final assessment. All assessments include questions to evaluate student participant's self-efficacy**;** personal accountability for ones decisions and the decision-making process. However, the mid-point and final assessment also include questions that ask students to rate their growth in relationship to the Leadership Framework competencies and values (see table 5). Both mentees and mentors are required to fill out a questionnaire after each mentoring session. Student participants are also asked to attend a debriefing session each semester which asks the following questions: 1) What did you learn at your last mentor meeting? 2) Why does this matter to you? 3) What change will you make moving forward?

Discussion of Outcomes/Results

Data from the first and second (not yet collected) mentee and mentor questionnaires will be shared. Both mentees and mentors are asked to reflect on which leadership competency and which leadership value was explored most during their mentoring session (see figures 3 & 4). The questionnaires were created using Qualtrics survey software. Initial findings suggested that the competency of self-awareness and the value of connection to community is being explored most frequently in one-on-one mentor/mentee meetings. Qualitative data from students open ended questions about the overall LCM experience, the leadership certificate requirements, the didactic components and the mentorship program will also be shared.

Reflections of the Practitioner

Schools that are interested in developing longitudinal leadership programs may consider utilizing leadership frameworks as a foundation for program design.[20] Similar to the leadership framework described in this evaluation, leadership theory along with key stakeholder input can be used as a guide for framework development, with co-curricular activities and mentorship opportunities designed to facilitate student growth while promoting framework concepts[4]. As demonstrated in this evaluation, assessment of leadership frameworks allows for program evaluation and further tailoring of activities to emphasize key leadership principles.[21] In addition, a framework provides program participants with a visual depiction of what specific goals and objectives should be accomplished, providing a method for organized delivery of leadership program content.

A leadership framework also provides the opportunity for unique focus areas within leadership programs. The Pharmacy LCM Program specifically focuses on a subset of leadership qualities emphasizing essential skills, with activities built within the program for self-reflection and a mentor-mentee relationship related to the pharmacy profession. Curriculum committees could elect to design frameworks grounded in leadership theory focused in unique areas identified as a priority for the learner.[13] Through intentional framework design and assessment, program focus areas can then be further tailored and identified to meet the evolving demands of practicing pharmacists.

Recommendations

The Leadership Framework can be considered a framework not only for the Pharmacy LCM Program in this universities' School of Pharmacy, but as a template for developing novel leadership programming at other schools of pharmacy working to develop leadership programs specific to their institution. The concept of using leadership theory as a guide for framework development provides unique opportunities to tailor leadership concepts to the pharmacy profession, and develop well-structured longitudinal leadership programs.

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Tables and Figures

Table 1: The Leadership Framework Competencies and Values

VALUES	
INTEGRITY	Transparency and truth are central touchstones for integrity. We aim for transparency of information and processes, because we believe openness and accessibility facilitate trust, particularly when there are diverse and divergent perspectives on an issue. We hold ourselves accountable to reach decisions through an ethical process and accept responsibility for acting in the interest of all stakeholders.
INCLUSIVE ENGAGEMENT	The heart of leadership is the art of inspiring active, informed engagement, and decision-making in the pursuit of the common good. Inclusive Engagement is the process by which we strive to seek and value the input of all, thereby realizing the benefit of the breadth of intelligence among us. At its core, Inclusive Engagement values the crucial knowledge, experiences, and contributions of us all.
CONNECTION AND COMMUNITY	Leadership requires working with communities rather than working on communities by identifying, aligning, and pursuing goals that are mutually beneficial for all people impacted. With humility, we seek to foster active partnerships rather than imposing solutions.
COMPETENCIES	
SELF-AWARENESS	Consistently self-reflecting in order to reveal strengths, limitations, beliefs, values, and attitudes that generate engagement; Committing to personal development in order to provide greater understanding of multiple identities and experiences that affect the ability to facilitate change
INTERPERSONAL COMMUNICATION	Developing essential relationships through listening, considering, and responding to the needs of individuals and the situation; Having the ability to communicate in tactful, compassionate, and sensitive ways to enable these relationships to evolve

SUPPORTING LEARNING AND DEVELOPMENT OF OTHERS	Developing the capacity and engagement of individuals and groups through feedback and coaching
HONORING CONTEXT AND CULTURE	Seeking to understand the organization, culture, system, politics, and dynamics, and their influence on actions needed to achieve the group's goals
DECISION-MAKING	Arriving at decisions that impact others and the organization in which the decisions are made; Employing critical and strategic thinking to enable creative solutions to be considered and pursued; Recognizing that with important systemic dimensions, analysis and ideas from multiple sources give way to implementation and evaluation
FOSTERING BRIDGE-BUILDING AND COLLABORATION	Through cooperative participation, encouraging everyone to take ownership of the work that is being done and the outcomes that are created; Creating an environment where differences are appreciated, knowing that conflict can serve to expose new solutions to complex problems
MOVING IDEAS INTO ACTION	Offering a compelling vision that inspires groups to engage in the ambiguous transformation process; Being aware that co-creation processes focused on common goals require steady, yet flexible, interventions based on evaluation and the needs of the group.

Table 1: Leadership competencies and values incorporated within Leadership Framework are copyright as of 2017 by the Board of Regents of the University System. This framework serves as a foundation for the School of Pharmacy Leadership Certificate and Mentor Program. Leadership Certificate applicants are asked to reflect on what they have learned through their various leadership activities, then be able to articulate their strengths and areas of growth within the competencies and values associated with the Leadership Framework. In addition, applicants create an action plan on how they will continue to live the principles of the Leadership Framework once they leave the university.

Figure 1: Process for P1 student and pharmacist mentor recruitment

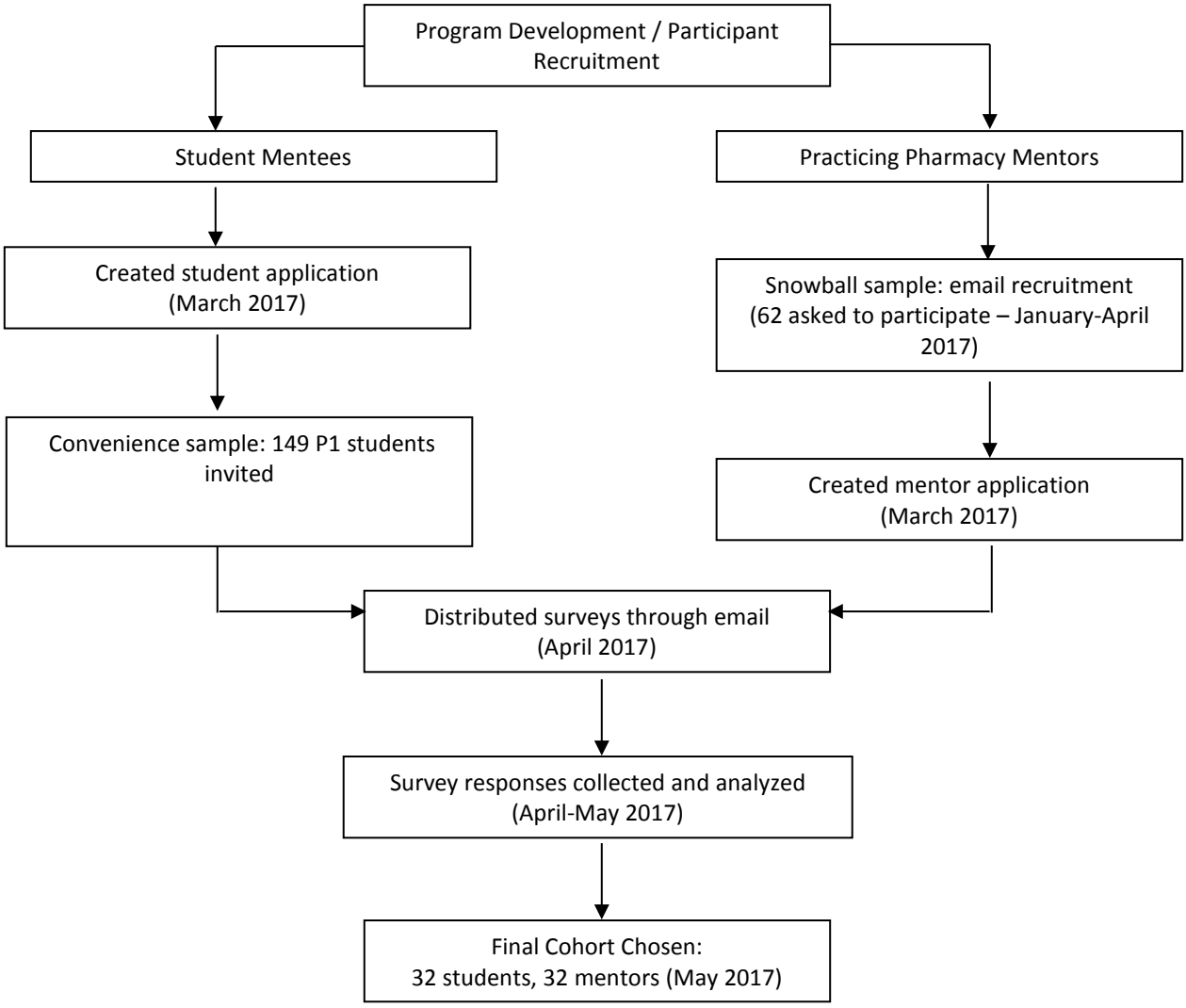


Table 2: P1 student and pharmacist mentor Baseline Characteristics

Characteristic		**P1 Student**	**Pharmacist**
Gender	Female	23 (72%)	13 (41%)
	Male	9 (28%)	19 (59%)
Post-Graduate Training[A,B]	None (employment in pharmacy practice)	9 (25%)	14 (33%)
	Residency or Fellowship	20 (55%)	18 (42%)
	Other Higher Education (graduate or doctoral degree)	1 (3%)	11 (26%)
	Unsure	6 (17%)	*Not an option for mentors*
Area of Practice[A,B]	Ambulatory Care	18 (20%)	12 (14%)
	Hospital Pharmacy	19 (21%)	16 (19%)
	Pharmacy Administration	9 (10%)	17 (20%)
	Global Health	9 (10%)	3 (4%)
	Rural Health	8 (9%)	4 (5%)
	Government	4 (4%)	5 (6%)
	Pharmaceutical Industry	6 (7%)	2 (2%)
	Managed Care	2 (2%)	5 (6%)
	Clinical/Translational Research	4 (4%)	3 (4%)
	Other	2 (2%)	2 (2%)

A= *For mentees, this is desired/anticipated, for mentors this is actual.*

B= *Both mentees and mentors could select more than one option.*

Table 3: Differences in perceived importance of framework components between Doctor of Pharmacy students and

UW Leadership Framework Component	$\bar{x}_{P1\ Student}$	$\bar{x}_{Pharmacist}$	$\bar{\Delta}$	95% CI	p-value
Integrity	1.3548	1.1613	0.1935	(-0.064,0.452)	0.1359
Incl. Eng.	1.5806	1.4839	0.0968	(-0.208,0.402)	0.5216
Community	1.5806	1.8387	-0.2258	(-0.601,0.15)	0.2288
Self-Aware	1.4194	1.3548	0.0645	(-0.234,0.363)	0.6621
Int. Comm	1.1613	1.2581	-0.0968	(-0.336,0.142)	0.4143
Support	1.3548	1.3226	0.0323	(-0.227,0.291)	0.8010
Culture	1.6452	1.7097	-0.0645	(-0.405,0.276)	0.7016
Decision	1.5161	1.6129	-0.0968	(-0.436,0.162)	0.5850
Collaboration	1.2903	1.3226	-0.0323	(-0.291,0.227)	0.8010
Ideas to Action	1.4194	1.2581	0.1613	(-0.108,0.431)	0.2311

N=60 (28 mentors, 32 mentees)

Table 1: *Differences in values between mentors and mentees*

Framework on a 1-5 scale, with lower values representing greater levels of perceived importance. Delta represents the difference between Doctor of Pharmacy students and pharmacist mentors.

Table 4: Rationale for completing application to participate in the Leadership Certificate Program

Rationale for Participating in Leadership Certificate Program[C]			
P1 Students		**Mentors**	
To develop leadership skills/understand own leadership style	24 (75%)	Interested in helping young pharmacists	14 (44%)
To translate leadership skills/experiences from school to career	13 (41%)	To "give back," either to the UW, to previous mentor experience, or to the profession as a whole	13 (41%)
To gain more leadership experience	7 (22%)	Eager to teach something to students/help them develop their leadership	10 (31%)
Invested in leadership development as a part of the pharmacy profession	7 (22%)	Improving their own leadership or mentor skills	6 (19%)
To get to know/have the guidance of a mentor	6 (19%)	To make connections with students	5 (16%)
See the program as providing useful experiences to help them get jobs in the future	6 (19%)		

C= *Data coded using key themes from free response survey questions. Separate themes were determined from mentor and mentee responses based on frequency of occurrence from five or more participants. Multiple themes may have been present in any given response.*

Figure 2: P1 Student self-assessed leadership components that need improvement

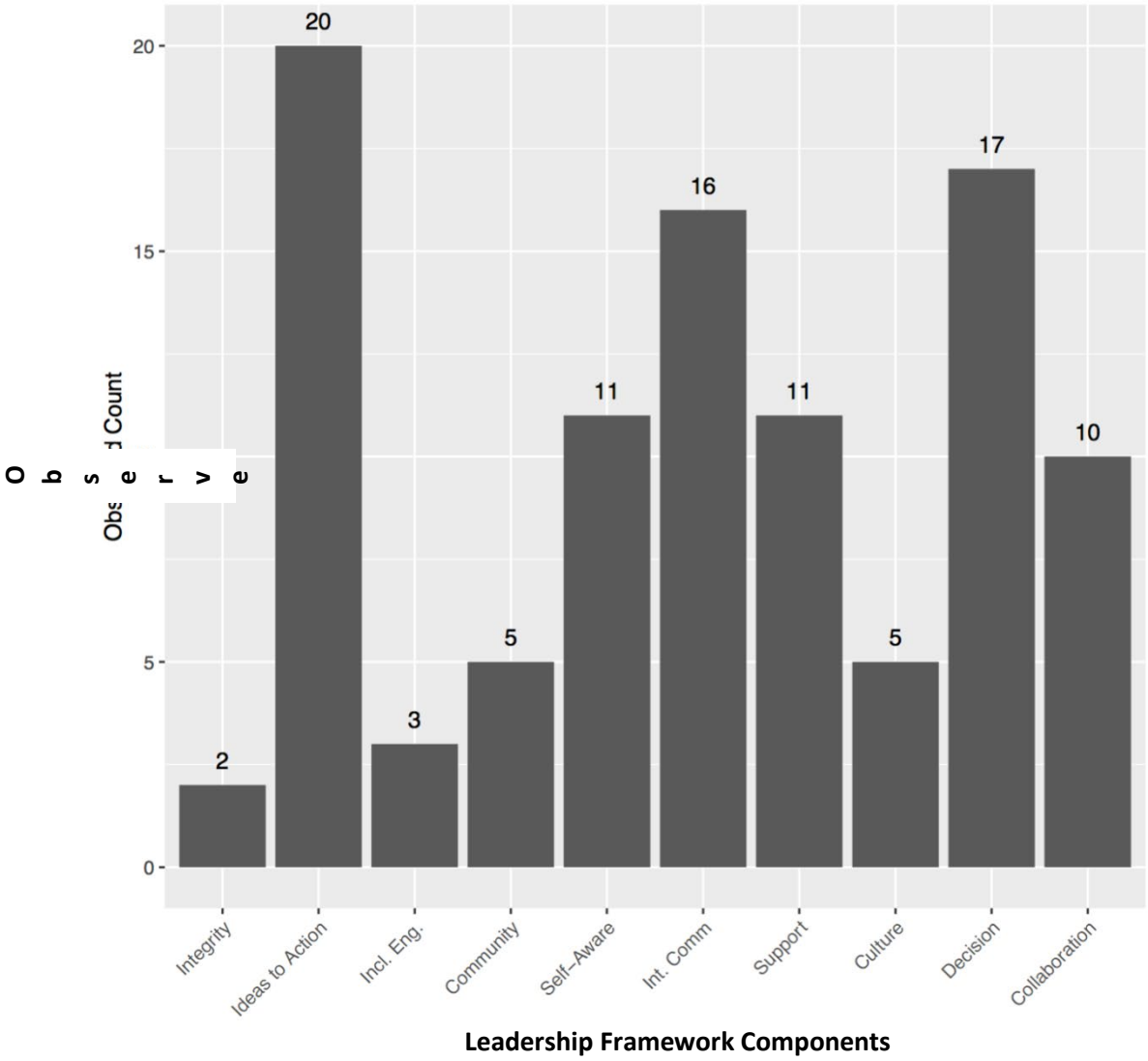


Figure 2: Observed number of mentee references to self-assessed leadership components that are in need of improvement. A chi^2-test (p-value<.0001) offers strong evidence against the presumption of homogeneity with respect to the popularity of the different possible responses to the survey question.

Table 5: Longitudinal Assessment Plan

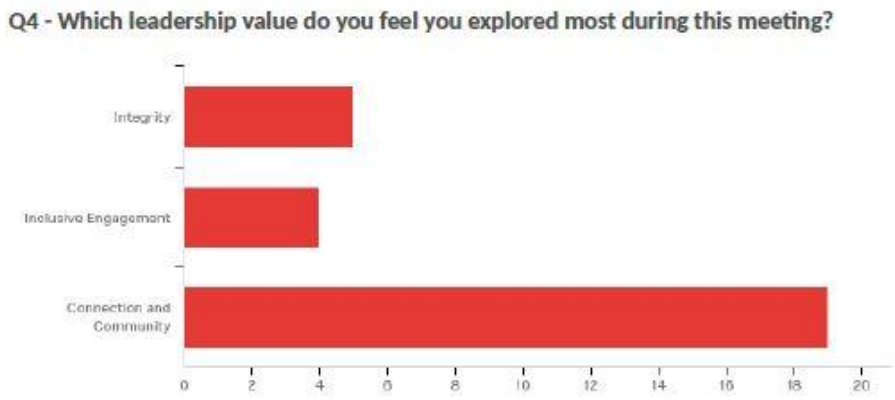
DPH-2		**DPH-3**		**DPH-4**	
Fall	**Spring**	**Fall**	**Spring**	**Fall**	**Spring**
Mentee questionnaire #1	Mentee questionnaire #2	Mentee questionnaire #3	Mentee questionnaire #4		Review Final Outcomes *
	Mentee debrief #1	Mentee debrief #2	Mentee debrief #3		
Baseline (self-efficacy)		Midpoint (self-efficacy, rate your growth on competencies/values)		Final eval (self-efficacy, growth on competencies and values)	
Socially Responsible Leadership Scale					
	Mentor #1	Mentor #2	Mentor #3		

*Final Outcome

- % students that achieved certificate
- # involvement hours completed mapped to specific competency and value that it pertains to
- Grades from competency essay, leadership for change capstone, on-line learning module reflections

Figure 3: Mentee Questionnaire #1

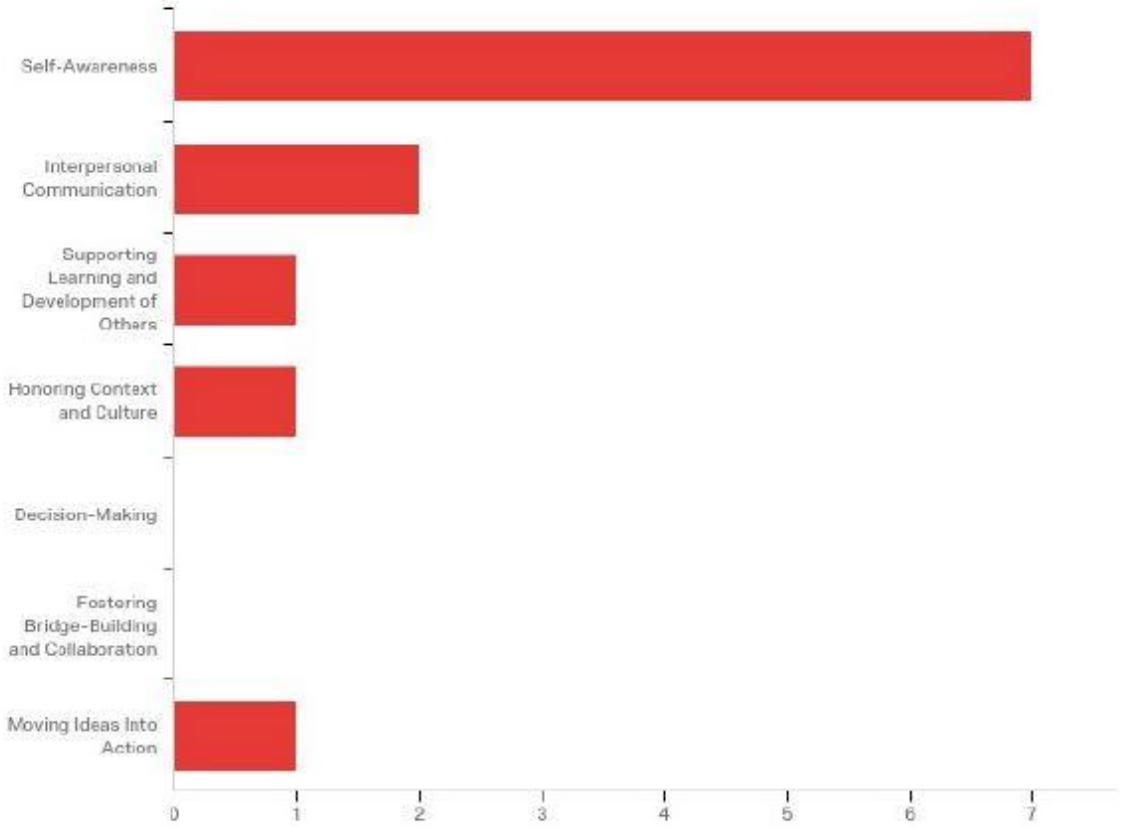
#	Answer	%	Count
1	Self-Awareness	32.14%	9
2	Interpersonal Communication	10.71%	3
3	Supporting Learning and Development of Others	7.14%	2
4	Honoring Context and Culture	3.57%	1
5	Decision-Making	14.29%	4
6	Fostering Bridge-Building and Collaboration	21.43%	6
7	Moving Ideas Into Action	10.71%	3
	Total	100%	28



#	Answer	%	Count
1	Integrity	17.86%	5
2	Inclusive Engagement	14.29%	4
3	Connection and Community	67.86%	19
	Total	100%	28

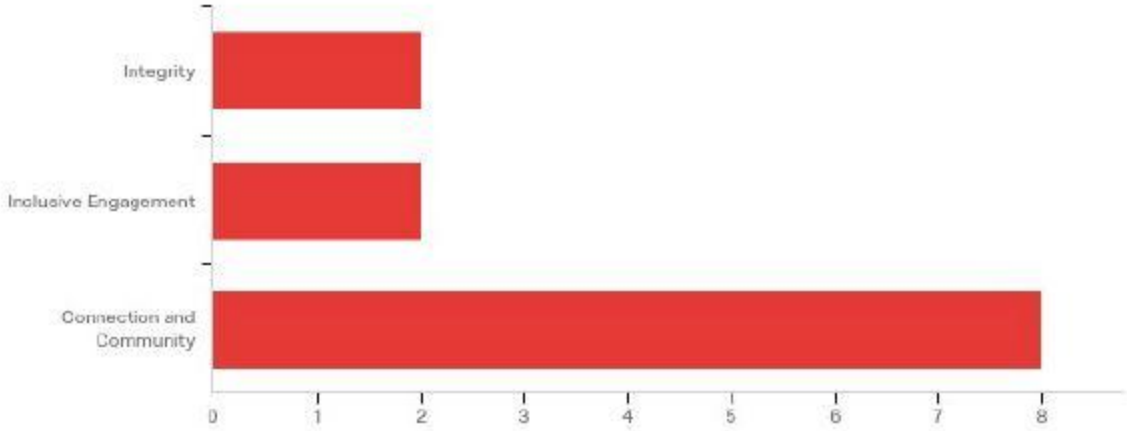
Figure 4: Mentor Questionnaire #1

Q3 - Which leadership competency do you feel you explored most during this meeting?



#	Answer	%	Count
1	Self-Awareness	58.33%	7
2	Interpersonal Communication	16.67%	2
3	Supporting Learning and Development of Others	8.33%	1
4	Honoring Context and Culture	8.33%	1
5	Decision-Making	0.00%	0
6	Fostering Bridge-Building and Collaboration	0.00%	0
7	Moving Ideas Into Action	8.33%	1
	Total	100%	12

Q4 - Which leadership value do you feel you explored most during this meeting?



#	Answer	%	Count
1	Integrity	16.67%	2
2	Inclusive Engagement	16.67%	2
3	Connection and Community	66.67%	8
	Total	100%	12

Being a Learner-Centric Educator: Using the Leadership Learning Framework for Instructional Strategies and Assessment of Learning

Abstract

Leadership is a process of learning in which individuals make sense of their experiences, uncover leadership within themselves, and work in communities. As Barr and Tagg (1995) discuss, when the focus of education is placed on learning, student- and learner-centered approaches to teaching emerge. This focus places educators in the role of conduit rather than distributor and requires attention to collaborative learning practices, personal responsibility for growth and development, and the construction of an inclusive learning community. However, the question remains, how is leadership best learned? We will look at a leadership learning framework and how we can best teach leadership and assess learning both in and out of the classroom using this learner-centric model.

Introduction

The true success of effective leadership programs is measured by students' ability to apply their learning to the challenges they will face after program completion, not whether they have a relationship with the instructor (Baxter Magolda & King, 2004). With this in mind, educators should attend to student learning more than teaching (Barr & Tagg, 1995), which is generally not how educational programs are developed (Fink, 2013). Unfortunately, leadership development programs are often created from a buffet of activities the educator either experienced themselves or observed while working with other students (Guthrie & Jenkins 2018). Consequently, many leadership program schedules are filled with entertaining activities, generated around the availability of facilitators, and are void of any sense of content or curricular sequencing (Dugan, 2013). Likewise, learning outcomes may not have been created, let alone integrated as a focus of the program. Further, students' context, lived histories, or intersectional student social identities, are rarely taken into consideration (Guthrie & Jenkins 2018).

However, when the focus is placed on learning, student- and learner-centered approaches emerge (Barr & Tagg, 1995). This focus places educators in the role of conduit rather than distributor, and requires attention to collaborative learning practices, personal responsibility for growth and development, and the construction of an inclusive learning community. Merriam and Caffarella (1999) described learning as "a process by which behavior changes as a result of experiences" (p. 250). Leadership itself is a process of learning in which individuals make sense of their experiences, uncover leader identities within themselves, and work in communities of leadership practice with others (Antonacopoulou & Bento, 2004).

Review of Related Scholarship

Leadership learning has become central to the work of student and academic affairs divisions within American colleges and universities (Dugan, 2006; Thompson, 2006). Institutional mission statements are increasingly focused on creating global leaders, which Chunoo and Osteen (2016) state requires realigning the purpose, mission, and context of postsecondary

education within student leadership learning. To meet this goal, Astin and Astin (2000) recommend a renewed focus on social responsibility in collegiate leadership learning programs. However, questions still remain regarding how to best develop leadership learning opportunities for an ever-evolving, diverse body of students.

In 1989, Roberts and Ullom provided one model of training, education, and development (TED model) as the way we should approach leadership learning. Expanding on the TED model, Guthrie and Osteen (2012) added engagement as critical to learning leadership. As aforementioned, it is important to distinguish leadership terminology such as training, education, development, and engagement. Despite seeming conceptually simple, the extant literature discussing leadership learning outside higher education is inconsistent in terminology (Sowcik & Allen, 2013) and often uses terms such as leadership education, leadership studies, leadership training, and leadership development interchangeably with little intentionality behind their use. Although these terms are often used interchangeably (Ayman, Adams, Fisher, & Hartman, 2003), each has distinct applications and implications. Here, we build off of previous efforts in this area to propose a leadership learning framework that leadership educators can use theoretically, conceptually, and in practice to create programs which intentionally connect pedagogy with learning outcomes. This can aid leadership educators in critically thinking about the best assessments for potential leadership learning.

Leader identity development and leadership development are also integral to leadership learning. Guthrie, Bertrand Jones, Osteen, and Hu (2013) drew clear distinctions between the two: "*Leader* development [which] focuses on individual students' capacity and identity, with or without formal authority, to engage in the leadership process… [and]… leader*ship* development is a collective focus on a group's relationships and process" (p. 15; emphasis original). Therefore, leadership learning can be understood as a dynamic, multi-faceted, and integrated phenomenon where individuals are influenced in a variety of ways by numerous experiences.

Subsequently, we define leadership learning as changes in knowledge, skills, behavior, attitudes, and values resulting from educational experiences, both co-curricular and curricular in nature, associated with the activity of leadership. This definition of learning, as an outcome, opens the conversation for a more complex, thoughtful, and intentional approach to the design of educational opportunities. By retaining leadership learning as the intended outcome, we can design more intentional, thoughtful, and purposeful leadership education programs.

Description of the Practice

In order to be a learner-centric educator, focusing on various aspects of leadership learning is critical when building programs. The Leadership Learning Framework (LLF) focuses on six aspects of leadership learning. These aspects include knowledge, development, training, observation, engagement, and metacognition, all within the context of leadership. These six areas build upon many scholars' work in various facets of learning, teaching, and education, resulting in a framework that challenges leadership educators to rethink leadership learning.
Using the metaphor of a steering wheel, the LLF Framework provides a mechanism for students to steer their own learning, but also for educators to better understand the multiple ways in which students learn (Guthrie & Jenkins, 2018). Educators can then create programs with student

learning at the forefront of development. As seen in Figure 1, leadership knowledge encompasses the entire wheel. Knowledge of leadership theories, concepts, and skills is foundational for all leadership learning and needs to be adjoined to all of its aspects. We believe leadership knowledge acquisition occurs in all programs, even if only by using language about leadership that may not have been used previously. Working in from the leadership knowledge rim of the framework, the four aspects of development, training, observation, and engagement all contribute to metacognition. Metacognition sits at the heart of leadership learning because without critical thought and reflection of the learning experience, we cannot make meaning or begin to apply and adapt what we learn. In the following section, each of these six aspects of leadership learning are discussed in detail, along with a review of attendant instructional strategies, and possible ways to assess student learning. Suggested instructional and assessment strategies are informed by the extensive work of Conger (1992), Allen and Hartman (2009), and Jenkins (2016, 2018), who explored in-depth sources of learning in leadership education, as well as the author's collective personal experiences in teaching leadership for several years.

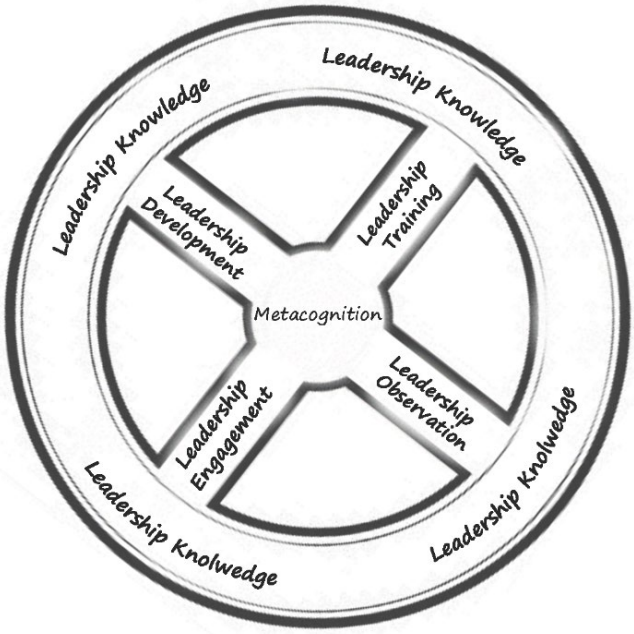


Figure 1. Leadership Learning Framework

It is critical to understand each of the six aspects of leadership learning in order to be a learner-centric educator. Knowledge development via learning leadership theories and concepts represent a critical part of leadership education in curricular and co-curricular programs. To learn leadership knowledge is to acquire information and critical insights about the process of leadership. This process is cognitive in nature and places a heavy emphasis on knowledge acquisition and mental processing. As Harvey and Jenkins (2014) state, developing a leadership program begins with identifying what knowledge is to be learned by students. "The 'necessary' knowledge…falls into two broad categories: technical knowledge of the expertise and skills deemed requisite to leadership either generally or in particular areas and humanistic knowledge about people, both as individuals and as members of groups" (Harvey & Jenkins, 2014, p. 77). Therefore, effective leadership educators situate themselves and create their teaching

environments to contribute meaningfully to leadership learners' inventory of technical and humanistic information.

Leadership development refers to the human and intrapersonal aspects of leadership learning. This is where learning focuses on the individual and their values and needs, personal motivation and readiness to lead (Avolio & Hannah, 2008), identity (Day, Harrison, & Halpin, 2009; Guthrie et al., 2013; Komives, Owen, Longerbeam, Mainella, & Osteen, 2005), and multiple other dimensions of self (Allen & Shehane, 2016). As Allen and Shehane (2016) state, leadership development is, "characterized by new insights and progression, can include an individual's motivations, values, identity, emotions, and potential in relation to the activity of leadership" (p. 43). This aspect of leadership learning may include knowledge of and experiential exposure of ethics, consciousness of self, authenticity, citizenship, receiving feedback, engaging in reflection, healthy self-esteem, flexibility, and emotional self-regulation (Shankman, Allen, & Haber-Curran, 2015).

Leadership training is central to leadership learning and education given its focus on the skill- and competency-based behavioral aspects of learning. This type of leadership learning places heavy emphasis on scaffolding learning so students can practice and build upon lessons toward mastery and observable behavioral change. Specifically, leadership training is the space where, "…proficiency in demonstrating specific tasks associated with the activity of leadership" (Allen & Shehane, 2016, p. 43) are practiced and assessed This is most often the aspect of leadership learning co-curricular leadership programs are built around, especially when programs are created for training positional student leaders. In many ways, leadership training focuses on what leadership learners are *able to do* when they leave our leadership programs. These skills and competencies may include: meeting management, facilitation, decision-making, negotiation, public speaking, listening, establishing vision, providing feedback, and supervision. This echoes Nadler's (1984) definition of training as "learning related to the present job" (p. 18) which places emphasis on improved performance on specific tasks.

Leadership observation refers to the social, cultural, and observational aspects of leadership learning. This type of learning is constructivist in nature as the learner is making meaning about how effective and ineffective leaders and followers act in relation to others in social and cultural contexts. However, in this space, the learner is a passive recipient of the learning. Bandura (1977) states that through the social learning orientation, context and culture are key to learning. In this section, we will elaborate on the impact leadership educators can have on shaping observational leadership learning.

Leadership engagement refers to the experiential, relational, interactional, and interpersonal aspects of leadership learning. Like leadership observation, leadership engagement is constructivist in nature. However, in leadership engagement, the learner is an active participant. Specifically, learners construct meaning in response to direct and personal encounters with the activities of leadership. That is, "the purpose is to provide the learner with new experiences, and the role of the educator is often to help individuals capture and make sense of planned or naturalistic experiences (constructivism) following an activity" (Allen & Shehane, 2016, p. 44).

Finally, leadership metacognition refers to the reflective, systemic, organizational, analytical, evaluative, adaptive, processual, mindful, and complex aspects of leadership learning. In this space, the learner is critically aware and understands their own thought progressions about the leadership process and the learning of leadership. In other words, the learner is practicing mindfulness with respect to leadership. Meichenbaum (1985) referred to metacognition as the mindfulness of one's own knowledge and the ability to recognize, control, and employ one's cognitive processes. This understanding includes knowing when, where, and why to use particular strategies for problem solving and learning. Using prior knowledge to design a strategy for learning, taking necessary steps to problem solve, reflecting on and evaluating results, as well as modifying one's approach as needed, are all aspects of metacognition.

Discussion of Outcomes/Results

The LLF maintains that the primary outcomes of leadership education — i.e., the knowledge, inter and intrapersonal as well as skill and competency development, meaning making, and engagement through participation in leadership and followership activities — are bound together by "leadership metacognition," the reflective, systemic, organizational, analytical, evaluative, adaptive, processual, mindful, and complex aspects of leadership learning. With this outcome in mind, the learner is critically aware and understands their own thought progressions about the leadership process and the learning of leadership. Put another way, the learner is practicing mindfulness with respect to leadership. Thus, the intentional selection of effective instructional and assessment strategies can and should act as a vehicle for transforming learners' leadership and followership experiences into meaningful leadership education.

For example, consider Dellow and Jenkins's (2014) semester-long assignment that empowers students to utilize observation instruments to promote student mindfulness of leadership practices, theories, and behaviors. As part of this learning activity, students are asked to keep a log of the behaviors exhibited by a leader in their organization and to report the presence or absence of behaviors that aligned with each of the "Five Practices of Exemplary Leadership" from *The Leadership Challenge* (Kouzes & Posner, 2017). In breaking down the its components, the following aspects of the LLM are present:

- Leadership Knowledge: The "Five Practices of Exemplary Leadership" (Kouzes & Posner, 2017).
- Leadership Observation: As part of the learning activity, students are asked to keep a log of the behaviors exhibited by a leader in their organization and to report the presence or absence of behaviors that aligned with each of the "Five Practices of Exemplary Leadership".
- Leadership Development: Each log was accompanied by a written reflection where students were asked to describe how they perceived and interpreted their observations. Dellow and Jenkins (2014) found that this learning activity often prompted students to reflect on their own leadership skills as a result of observing others, particularly with respect to the five practices.
- Leadership Engagement: Through the written feedback on students' logs and reflections provided by the instructor, students were guided through the sensemaking process.

Equally, the learning activity required students to "log" at three points in time across the semester, providing additional opportunities for meaning making, reflection, and growth.

- Leadership Metacognition: As mentioned above, the three sequential logs and reflections provided additional opportunities for the learner to hone in on the behaviors of their "observee" as well as their own behaviors. Another promising outcome of this process reported by Dellow and Jenkins (2014), "was that some students experimented with their own leadership behaviors or focused more intentionally on improving skills from the inventory" (p. 13). They continued: "...the use of the observation instruments seemed to serve their purpose. Students were able to see theoretical concepts in a behavioral context" (Dellow & Jenkins, 2014, p. 13).

While the example above includes five of the six aspects of the LLF, learning activities may include one or all of the components of the framework as long as the design is intentional.

Reflections and Recommendations

The example from Dellow and Jenkins (2014) above is unique in that it includes five of the six aspects of the LLF. However, in practice we recommend that leadership educators start with leadership knowledge and at least one of the other aspects of the framework. Albeit, intentionally and effectively integrating three or more aspects of the framework with clear learning outcomes will undoubtedly result in higher levels of learning (e.g., "synthesis" from Bloom's Taxonomy; Bloom, 1956). (For a comprehensive list of example instructional and assessment strategies applied using the LLM, see Table A1.)

Moreover, the LLM may be used as an assessment tool. That is, leadership educators can utilize the LLM to evaluate whether or not course- or program-level learning outcomes intentionally aligned with appropriate instructional and assessment strategies. For example, if metacognition is a chief goal of a particular course or leadership program and tests and quizzes are a primary mode of assessment, there is a clear disconnect. Thus, leadership educators are encouraged to experiment with the example provided in Table A1 and more so, trial their own unique twists on learning activities that incorporate multiple aspects of the LLM.

The aim of this innovative practice paper was to provide a model for intentionally aligning pedagogy with the learning aspects offered in the LLM. Ideally, leadership educators will use Table A1 as a guide and resource. Additionally, practitioners looking for more information on on the LLM and intentional alignment of pedagogy should review Guthrie and Jenkins (2018); for intentional alignment of pedagogy and leadership competencies, see Jenkins and Allen (2017).

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Appendix A

Examples of Pedagogy Using the LLM

Table A1

Examples of Instructional and Assessment Strategies Using the Leadership Learning Framework

Aspects of Leadership Learning	Definition	Pedagogies (Teaching Strategies)	Assessment (of Learning)
Knowledge	Knowledge acquisition and mental processing.	Lectures Reading Pair-Share-Report Case Studies Peer Facilitation Bringing in Current Articles Art Creation of Leadership Artifacts Dramaturgy (acting theory) Flipped Classroom 1-minute papers	Tests Quizzes Written Assignments Poster Presentations Blogs Papers Discussion (Face-to-Face and Online) Application of Theory to Practice Reading Critiques
Development	Intrapersonal aspects of leadership.	Personal Mission Statements/Philosophies One-on-One Discussions Values-Based Boards/Videos Visioning Boards Mind Mapping Storytelling	1-minute Reflections Self-Assessment Instruments Role Plays Survey Social Identity Activities Reflective Papers Small Group Discussions
Training	Interpersonal, Skill- and competency-based behavioral aspects of leadership learning.	Simulations Practice/Repetition Role-play Skill-Based Instruments Debate Peer Critical Feedback	Rubrics Checklists Role Plays Ropes Course Online Feedback for Group Mentorship Art/Visual Representation of Learning Scenario Practice Peer/Instructor Evaluation
Observation	Constructivist in nature where learner is passive recipient of information.	Lectures Shadowing Witnessing Group Dynamics Service-Learning Videos/Movie Watching Field Assignments Environmental Scans	Reflective Blogs Reflective Journal Entries Reflective Essays Presentations on Findings One-on-One Discussions Article Critique Papers Rubrics
Engagement	Learner is active participate,	Action learning Case-in-point Problem-based learning	Presentations Discussion

	constructivist in nature.	Discussion Groups Service-learning Reflective practice Positional and non-positional experiences Games Debate Theatre of the Oppressed (Social Justice Theatre) Team-Building Activities	Feedback Cards- Reading Out loud Skill Sheets Synthesis Paper Group Paper
Metacognition	Learner is critically aware and understands own thought processes about leadership. Construction of meaning occurs through facilitation of the process or activity of leadership.	Reflection Essays Case Study Analysis Simulation and role play Field work Environmental assessment Group/discussion facilitation Critical leadership Provocative Statements Feedback What? So What? Now What?	Reflection Essays Reflective Blogs Reflective Journal Entries Intergroup Dialogue Poster Presentations Start-Stop-Continue Values Self-Portrait Synthesis Paper

Using a Theoretical Framework as Infrastructure to Strengthen and Align Program Outcomes and Assessments of an Online Leadership Program

Abstract

This presentation journals the process undergone by a university as they work to redesign courses three years after the initial launch of the online Bachelor of Arts in Organizational Leadership (BAOL) program, in order to align the program courses and outcomes with an underlying research-validated theoretical framework.

Introduction

History

The Division of Online and Professional Studies (OPS) at Unknown University (UU) began as a separate division within the university in the Fall of 2010. UU believes that each person has been created for a purpose (school motto is *Live Your Purpose*), and integrates academics with spiritual and social development opportunities. Graduates are challenged to become individuals whose skills, integrity and sense of purpose will distinguish them in the workplace and in society at-large. Further, the mission of OPS was to be more responsive to non-traditional students who are balancing professional and family responsibilities while advancing their education. Utilizing the latest technologies in distance education, and collaborating with faculty who were committed to student's academic, professional, and spiritual success was crucial for the new startup. Initial offerings included eight programs (seven bachelors, one masters) that had been delivered in a traditional face-to-face (f2f) medium as a degree completion program model serving approximately 500 students per semester. The initial faculty employed to teach in OPS consisted of five full-time professors and approximately 100 adjuncts, with most of the adjuncts consisting of traditional UU professors teaching in an overload capacity.

Current Status

As of 2017, OPS now offers 38 distinct degrees (22 bachelors, 14 masters, 2 doctorate), some with multiple concentrations. Most programs primarily utilize the asynchronous distance learning deliver medium, along with some hybrid offerings. OPS serves almost 4,000 students per semester and currently employs 57 full-time faculty with an adjunct pool of approximately 300 faculty.

OPS Leadership Programs

The Bachelor of Organizational Leadership program was launched to satisfy the need to provide current and future leaders, in all industries, with the skills that they need to effectively lead in their organizations.

> The purpose of the online Bachelor of Arts in Organizational Leadership degree program is to equip working professionals with highly sought after skills by employers. Exercising influence, complex problem solving, teamwork, critical thinking, sound judgment and decision making, communication, and conflict management are covered in courses which comprise a valuable and practical degree. Students in the program will also learn to excel

> and manage in the workplace while integrating ethical principles and integrity to strengthen the foundation of companies in both private and public sectors. (UU OPS 2018)

This program is unique because in addition to teaching leadership theory, it emphasizes ethical and spiritual leadership. With all the rapid growth the division has experienced, and with program developing and all course design been done in-house, faculty selected to build the courses did not always have either the appropriate aligning degrees in the subject-matter, and/or adequate time to detail the theoretical framework supporting the course(s) they were writing. Adding to this complexity, courses are accelerated eight-week format, and in addition to fulfilling WASC standards they require the inclusion of faith integration as part of the student work. This program was opened in in Spring of 2013.

The Master in Organizational Leadership was launched in Fall 2014. Similar to the Bachelor's degree, was launched to satisfy the need to provide current and future leaders, in all industries, with the skills that they need to effectively lead their organizations.

> The online Master of Arts in Organizational Leadership degree program provides specific training, growth and development in decision-making, communication, conflict and change management, strategic management, human resource management, and approaches to leadership across cultures. The program reviews motivation, ethics, creativity, strategic planning and vision, group development, teamwork, technology, and organizational development. It exposes students to theories and application of effective leadership in a variety of organizational contexts. Students learn how to manage and motivate individuals and teams and discover how to use strategies and models to effect change within a variety of leadership and organizational structures. (UU OPS 2-18)

The focus of this study is on the Bachelor of Arts in Organizational Leadership, however findings and best practices will subsequently be applied to the Master's program as well.

Review of Related Scholarship

Background

In an ideal situation, a leadership program design follows a coherent, rational process that begins with the adoption of a theoretical underlying framework to align course content and outcomes. In reality, despite this rapid area of growth for many colleges and universities, there is a lack of uniform underlying infrastructure or theory model for the basis of leadership programs (Jones 2005). Further, due to a lack of underlying infrastructure which provides uniformity, programs need to be repeatedly revised and "fine-tuned" over time. Posner (2009) argues that there is not much known about the best approach for this. This university is not alone in facing this challenge, as there are an increasing number of leadership programs in universities and colleges in North America fueling dialogue to propose "clear processes, content, and designs for providing academic leadership education" (Diallo & Gerhardt, 2017 p. 92).

Need for Competency-based Curriculum

The study of competencies was promoted by David Clelland's (1973) research, which asserted that testing an individual's competencies was a more effective predictor of job success than testing their intelligence. Today, many organizations, including for-profit, nonprofits, and public organizations have begun to rely on identifying competencies needed for workplace success (Burns, Smith, & Ulrich, 2012). Identifying needed competencies for leadership offers a theoretically grounded approach to leadership curriculum development. According to Seemiller (2018), by adopting competency-based model as an underlying infrastructure for the leadership program, it provides:

-Consistency in the terms used to refer to specific competencies across the department and among the faculty. The same terms can be used from class to class.
-Alignment with the use of competencies within the workplace and in professional expectations
-Reduces ambiguity and facilitate measurement of student learning
-Allows curriculum developers to make defensible choices

In short, by adapting a competency-based infrastructure for the Bachelor's in Organizational Leadership, it enhances the integrity of the program design, as well as better prepare students of the program for workplace success.

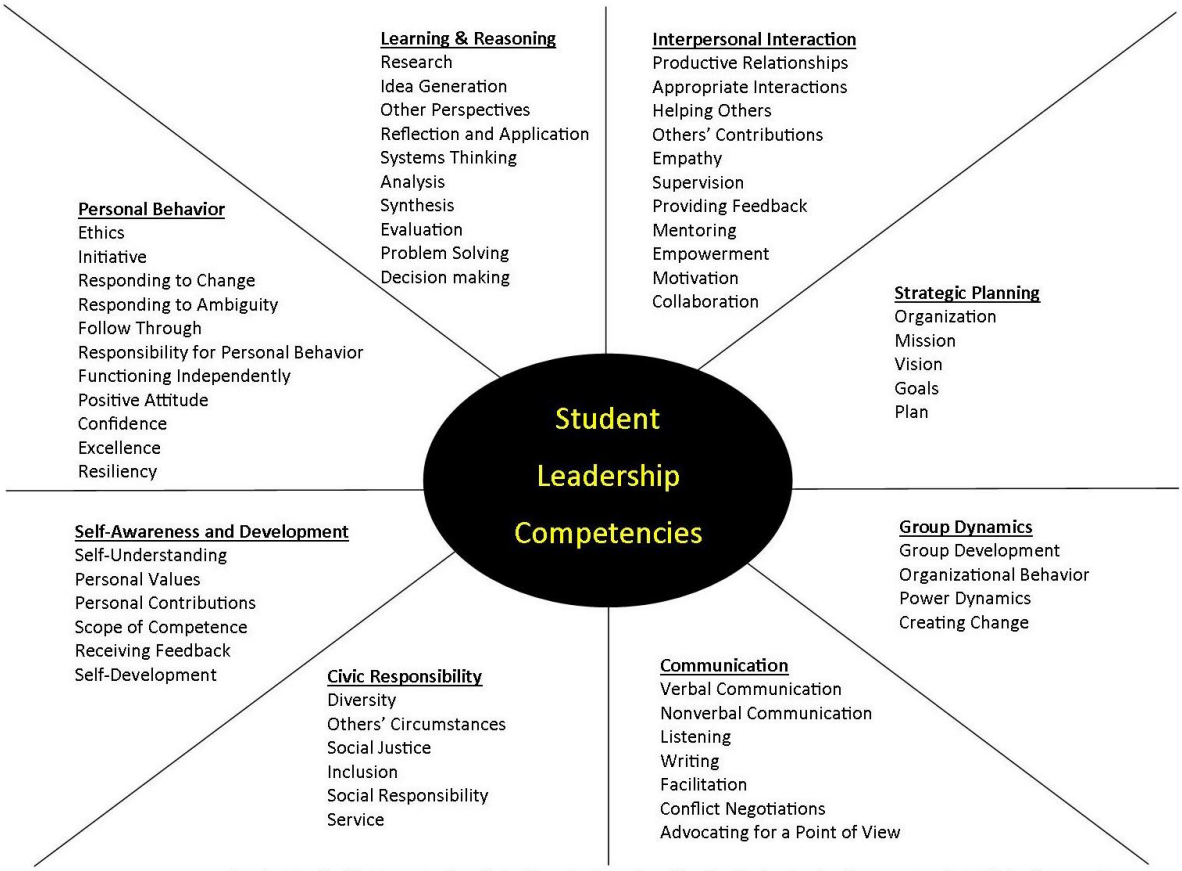
Theoretical Framework Selected for Program Design

While the need to establish and implement a theoretical framework to address alignment issues was readily apparent, the process of identifying a cogent unifying framework was an arduous journey with few apparent choices. Fortunately, the team was able to identify Dr. Corey Seemillers' (2014) The Student Leadership Competencies Guidebook (referred to as SLC). Designed to guide the intentional development of curriculum for leadership development programs, Seemillers' SLC thoroughly identifies and defines 60 Essential Leadership competencies for the 21st Century.

These competencies were identified and developed by Seemiller after five years of research analyzing learning outcomes in over 500 accredited higher education academic programs (Seemiller & Cook, 2014). Through the use of Seemiller's model as the underlying infrastructure, along with our dedication to spiritual development, the BAOL program is able to more effectively prioritize curriculum content for accelerated courses, assess competency learning, and assist students with reflecting on their own learning in order to promote application of the competencies in real-world contexts.

Seemiller (2018) has provided a robust argument for the use of competencies in leadership education, noting the smooth transition to competency based education (p. 39). One of the real advantages of the use of competencies in online education is that it can help address the gaps found in students caused by diverse education and experiential backgrounds. Seemiller also posits that connecting specific leadership competencies to specific career paths can enhance career readiness (2018).

Figure1. Student Leadership Competencies



Description of the Practice

Beginning in 2016, several of the BAOL courses had reached the time for their 3-year review, and by this time OPS had hired faculty with leadership specific doctoral degrees whom were better suited for writing the courses. It was determined that as part of the review, the courses needed to be aligned using a research validated theoretical framework to underpin and connect their content and outcomes. Reliance on a practical leadership model, such as Seemillers' also helps ensure that the leadership curriculum is relevant for leaders to succeed in the workplace. The Associate Vice President of Academics and the Program Lead worked together to research possible theoretical models and selected the Seemiller Leadership Competencies model (2013). The decision was based on the comprehensive nature of the skills included, and that they could be applied to leadership roles regardless of the industry.

In addition to the real-world relevance of Seemillers' model, the inclusion of Seemillers' Student Leadership Competencies systematically informs the course outcomes for each of the BAOL courses, which in turn supports the opportunity to more specifically assess student learning at a program level. This data will demonstrate how students perceive each of the courses have changed their perceived skills in each of the identified leadership dimensions. Additionally, the data that will be collected from the use of the SLC, will provide insight into the students' level of

understanding of their growth in these areas, as well as providing information to inform both the program student outcomes and the course student outcomes. By focusing on the outcomes, we can ensure that student-learning is centered on enhancing critical leadership skills needed for effective leadership in the real-world.

Thus far, two courses have been re-written to align to this new format which includes the Student Leadership Competencies. The first of these was taught in Spring, 2018. Two more are currently under revision using this new alignment model. The goal is to complete the revision of the entire program by Spring, 2019. Metrics of the course design process continue to be collected as refinements continue, and will inform the revision of the other courses moving forward.

Discussion of Anticipated Outcomes

As assessment result data becomes available, there will be insights on further refinements and course mapping of the program. These findings can then be applied to the Masters in Organizational Leadership program as well, which supports the development of leaders at a more advanced level.

This project will strengthen and lend credibility to the leadership program at the school in the following ways: 1) the inclusion of a theoretical framework will ensure there is consistent alignment between and among the courses, 2) the focus of each course will be more clear and directly aligned with real-world leadership issues, and 3) further the inclusion of the SLC will allow for assessment using a validated instrument, and 3) inform the use and revision of the Program Student Outcomes and the Course Learning Outcomes. The Bachelors in Organizational Leadership offered by UU-OPS is designed for current leaders, aspiring leaders, and practitioners in all types of organizations and industries; incorporating the comprehensive scope of the Student Leadership Competencies into the curriculum will help better prepare leaders for success in a variety of fields.

Reflections of the Practitioner

Effective course design requires attention to a number of strategies, which foremost are rigor and relevance. Students value learning more when it is connected in concrete ways to the work world. They also know that while “Cs get degrees”, differentiating themselves through academic excellence can make a difference when they are looking for promotion or a new position.

Implementation Challenges

Including the Student Leadership Competencies in the courses has challenged the course designers/lead faculty to test the essential components they should focus on in the 8-week accelerated online courses. However, having clarity on the underlying theoretical model that aligns with course objectives has provided guidance and greater discernment in making the selection of what is to be included, and that the key course concepts are relevant to real-world organizational challenges being faced by leaders in the 21st century.

Adaptations Made

The process of aligning the courses with the Leadership Competencies was a recursive and iterative process. The first attempt was made to align and include each of the competencies in an exclusive category into specific courses. Implementation of this strategy quickly became problematic, as there was a wide disparity in the number of competency areas in each category, ranging from a low of four competencies, to a high of eleven competencies. After several attempts to integrate the competencies into the courses along with the other instructional materials, it became apparent that in the cases of categories with a high number of topics, it was too much and would result in reducing the degree of coherence and the amount of mastery in an eight-week course.

The second attempt was to "match" the individual leadership competencies to the course overview and learning objectives. This strategy became quite chaotic due to the number of competencies, and also had the potential effect of diminishing the coherence in the overall competency structure for the students.

Finally, to provide the maximum impact for students, it was determined that the best route going forward was to limit the number of weekly themes, ranging between seven to eight competencies. In some cases closely-related competencies were combined, in other cases limiting the competencies to those we determine to be most relevant to the students and their future work positions. The record of this process is summarized in Appendix 1.

Recommendations

Program and course development is a complex and engrossing task, fraught with value judgements. Decisions made during this process have long-lasting repercussions and can shape university programs for years to come. For these reasons, it is important for online startup organizations to consider the following recommendations:

1) Review the existing theoretical frameworks in the subject matter area, this will provide options as you move forward with course development.
2) Review other university course offerings in programs similar to yours. This form of "benchmarking" will provide insight into what is being offered, and allow you to frame the conversation you have with your course developers.
3) Carefully select faculty who will author the courses, paying specific attention to the educational background and professional experience they bring to the table.
4) Start with the end in mind - use the theoretical framework to guide your development of program outcomes.

This process has challenged each of the participants to deeply engage with their values and understanding of the significant components of quality leadership. In providing a coherent, sequential, data based set of competencies to guide program design, course design, and student activities; we will be able to more accurately assess the impact of the program on the future leadership of our students.

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The Community of Effective Leaders Program: An Application of Inclusive Leadership Development

Abstract

What does an inclusive leadership development program for undergraduate and graduate students at a private higher education institution look like? This innovative practice paper discusses the Community of Effective Leaders (CEL) Program, which ran for three academic years at a moderate-sized university. The program sought to give undergraduate and graduate students to have flexibility of involvement and was designed to be intentionally inclusive. As a result of attending this session, attendees will be able to: 1) Identify a theoretical framework, and major programmatic and structural components of an inclusive leadership development program; 2) Understand the outcomes of an inclusive leadership development program at a private institution of higher education; and 3) Learn how to apply innovative approaches to creating inclusive leadership development programs.

Introduction

The Community of Effective Leaders (CEL) Program was a leadership development initiative at a moderate-sized university in the northeastern region of the United States. During this time, the university had approximately 4,000 undergraduate and 1,500 graduate students. The CEL Program was launched during the fall 2011 semester and ran until the end of the spring 2014 semester, spanning three academic years. The program functioned with no application for membership; rather, students were required to attend a minimum number of CEL events for two consecutive semesters to become an official member. A total of 41 Leadership Seminars (open to all students at university) hosted 7,163 students, and a total of 430 students who successfully became members of the CEL program. CEL members had opportunities to attend smaller, more focused events centered on leading others and career aspirations. The program formed partnerships with individuals and departments across campus, and with numerous companies as well. The flexible format provided inclusive opportunity for students to learn about leadership. Also, tracking student attendance at each event and setting a requirement for attending certain number of events each semester to become a member in place of an application provided an innovative method for recruiting members.

Traditional leadership programs have an application process, and admit a small number of students, making membership very exclusive. Thus, many students do not have the opportunity to benefit from what the leadership program has to offer. The CEL Program sought to create a more inclusive model of leadership development available to all students, regardless of past accomplishments. In other words, the CEL program gained members by using a *show me* (e.g., meet requirements) versus a *tell me* (e.g., application) method.

This innovative practice paper will focus on the following: *What does an inclusive leadership development program for undergraduate and graduate students at a private higher education institution look like?* As a result of attending this session, attendees will be able to: 1) Identify a theoretical framework, and major programmatic and structural components of an inclusive leadership development program; 2) Understand the outcomes of an inclusive leadership development program at a private institution of higher education; and 3) Learn how to apply innovative approaches to creating inclusive leadership development programs.

Review of Related Scholarship

The following quote by Donald H. McGannon is popular within the leadership development community: “Leadership is action, not position” (Peter, 1991). This quote takes the rank, title, or position out of the idea of leadership, and instead focuses on the actions a person takes. The

CEL program slogan was 'Leadership begins with action.' Another popular leadership quote, by Lao Tsu, also places emphasis on action: "The journey of a thousand miles begins with a single step" (Dreher, 2002). The best way to accomplish a goal is to start working toward it. The CEL program sought to develop an inclusive strategy with opportunities for flexible involvement, and the quotes influenced all aspects of the program, including recruitment, maintaining membership, and programmatic focus.

Effective Leadership

Bass (1960) discussed how successful leadership has to do a person setting and to some degree achieving their objectives. Effective leadership, on the other hand, has to do with helping others achieve some degree of success with their objectives. The more successful the others are, the more effective the leader. The CEL program adopted this idea of effective leadership, and it played an instrumental role in laying out the two main areas of focus for the program. These areas include *aspire*, where students work to become members of the CEL program, and *inspire*, where CEL members help mentor students in the *aspire* phase. Pearce & Conger (2003) note that under the right conditions, leadership is viewed as a collective achievement. When others whom we inspire are successful, the leadership provided qualifies a s a collective achievement.
Bass (1960) did not discuss the importance of setting and achieving one's own goals while simultaneously helping others to set and achieve their goals. It is difficult to help others without being able to help oneself. The CEL program included this expanded view of effective leadership (i.e., the *aspire* and *inspire* phase) to help CEL members understand the importance of striking the right balance between taking time to lead oneself with time spent leading others.

Experiential Learning

According to Schank, Berman and Macpherson's (1999) instructional theory, experiential learning is based on the belief that people learn best by doing. The CEL program provided opportunities for students to learn about leadership through ropes courses, group and individual obstacle courses, and tools for facilitating group decision-making. During experiential learning, educators purposefully engage learners in direct experience and point their focus toward learning reflection to increase their knowledge, skills, and values (Dewey, 1938). This has proven to be an effective method for retention of information, as it centers on the learner's experiences. After each CEL event, students interested in obtaining or maintaining membership were required to submit an evaluation of the event. This short survey focused on how students would apply what they learned toward their own leadership journey. The learning process is a continuous cycle of experiencing and exploring (Kolb & Kolb, 2005). The CEL program provided opportunities for experiencing and exploring various leadership development strategies. Palus & Drath (1995), in noting the work of Kegan (1980) make the argument that development programs need to provide opportunities for the participant to form their own sense of meaning:

> "…well-designed development programs provide individuals with significant experiential lessons that cause a temporary disequilibrium in their meaning-making system. The individual's attempt to deal with such disequilibrium opens a window, however briefly, into new ways of making sense of their experiences. This glimpse of new possibilities creates the potential for development after (sometimes long after) the program is completed" (p. 18).

The CEL program was structured to help students form their own sense of leadership. Based on the review of leadership quotations and literature, the following concepts were integrated into the CEL program framework: 1) Leadership is not about titles or positions, but rather has to do with taking action; 2) Leadership begins with taking action; 3) One can take action for oneself (Aspire), and one can take action for others (Inspire); and 4) Taking action involves learning by doing.

Description of Practice

The CEL program provided an opportunity for any and all students to learn about the intricacies of leadership. A key feature of the program was the flexibility of involvement, as students were able to simply check out an event or work toward becoming a member of the program based upon their interest, motivation, or personal goals. The CEL program made use of a *dynamic* application, where students were able to build leadership skills while in the process of meeting the membership requirements. Membership was based upon completion of requirements, not on previous leadership experience, making an effort to address socioeconomic differences in access and exposure to leadership opportunities. By becoming a CEL member, students were able to demonstrate a commitment to their personal leadership development through meeting the requirements. Additionally, CEL membership granted access to further leadership development opportunities. The following sections will outline the program components, goals, learning outcomes, and methods of evaluation.

CEL Program Components

Leadership seminars. These CEL events served as the point of entry for program involvement. Seminars featured speakers from various industries and backgrounds, and they covered a variety of leadership-related topics. Please see Appendix A for a sample CEL schedule. **Mentor program.** This program paired a CEL member (i.e., mentor) up with a pod of students who were working to become CEL members (i.e., mentees). Mentors met with mentees individually, and as a group, several times during each semester. **Becoming a CEL member.** Students obtain CEL status when they meet the requirements for two semesters. The semesters must be consecutive (fall-spring; spring-fall) except for student athletes and students who studied abroad. Once the requirements were met, students attend a CEL Induction Ceremony where they receive a certificate and gift for demonstrating commitment to the program. Once a member, students are required to *maintain status* by attending minimum required amount of CEL member opportunities each semester. Maintaining status within the CEL program entitles students to receive CEL graduation cords. **CEL membership opportunities**. Students who became members of the program were given the opportunities to learn more about leadership through smaller, more focused events. These events included the following: Leaderlabs, smaller leadership workshops led by leadership experts; Office visits, giving members the opportunity to see how leadership plays out in an organizational setting; Networking events featuring employers and leadership experts; and the opportunity to become more involved in the CEL program, by joining one of several action committees, or by becoming a member of the CEL student steering committee.
Leadership floor living-learning community. Living–learning programs are residential communities with a shared academic or thematic focus (Shapiro and Levine, 1999).
The CEL leadership living-learning community started during the fall 2013 semester and was specifically for sophomore and junior undergraduate students. Students who lived in this community were either working toward becoming CEL members or had already become members. Residents regularly participated in leadership-themed programming, both on and off- campus. Due to the success during the 2012-2013 academic year, the floor was moved to a larger residence hall on campus to accommodate more students the following academic year.

CEL Program Goals

1. Bringing together students who are interested in leadership.
2. Providing basic skill-building on leadership to interested students through large-scale programming available to all students (seminars, mentoring program), and small-scale programming available to CEL members (CEL member events, mentoring program).
3. Helping students make connections between their involvement in student organizations, classroom experiences, and the work environment.
4. Encouraging students to seek student leadership opportunities on campus.

5 C's of the CEL Program: Learning Outcomes

Using aspects of effective leadership (i.e., Aspire, Inspire), learning outcomes for the CEL program were constructed. These were called the *5 C's*. Each is described below.

The *Cultivation* learning outcome encompassed the Aspire phase of the CEL program, when students work to become CEL members. Emphasis was placed on expanding one's understanding of leadership through a pre- and post-definition analysis, personal definition, and opportunities to learn leadership skills from notable professionals from a variety of leadership backgrounds, industries and experience through attending the Leadership Seminars.
Championing, the next learning outcome, covers the Inspire phase of the CEL program, and centered mainly on the mentor program which brought together aspiring CEL students with CEL members. Supporting others as they navigate their own leadership journey was the focus. The remaining three learning outcomes focused on aspects of both the Aspire and Inspire phases of the CEL program. The *Community* learning outcome emphasized the CEL community of aspiring and proper members. This program is basically an affinity group for students who are interested in leadership, and its inclusive structure helped to establish a large community of these like-minded individuals in a relatively short period of time. The *Campus* learning outcome focused on CEL members becoming involved in student organizations and clubs on campus, where students would be able to apply the skills learned in the CEL program toward those opportunities. The final learning outcome, *Career*, intended to help students apply what they have learned from the CEL program toward career goals and employment opportunities.
Students could reflect on their experience becoming a CEL member, and what they had learned along the way about leadership, during interviews for internships and full-time positions. Table 1 breaks down the phases in relation to the learning outcomes of the CEL program.

Table 1: Phases and 5 C's of the CEL Program

				Campus	Career
Aspire	X				
Inspire		X			
Aspire + Inspire			X	X	X

Methods of Evaluation

The primary source for tracking student attendance at CEL events consisted of four university ID card swipe machines. The names and student IDs of attendees were uploaded to a database used for tracking student progress. Students who wanted to work toward becoming a CEL member were required to complete a short online evaluation after each Leadership Seminar. Please see Appendix B for sample evaluation questions. Once students became members, additional demographic information was collected via a pre-program survey, which also asked students for their personal definition of leadership. All CEL members were required to fill out online evaluation surveys after attending CEL events. In addition, CEL members had to submit an Action Report at the end of each academic year, which basically outlined how they will make use of what was learned that year in the program and apply it toward their respective leadership journey. CEL members were required to complete an online post-program survey at the end of their graduating semester, which again asked students for their personal definition of leadership. Results from all evaluation surveys were used toward program improvement efforts. Results from the pre- and post-program surveys were compared to explore the changes in leadership definitions (most went from being very long to very short), and also to track other areas of growth and development which were in-line with programmatic goals and learning outcomes.

Action Reports were assessed using content analysis to determine which events were most effective and resonated most among CEL members (Weber, 1990).

Discussion of Outcomes

The following tables and information are representative of the outcomes associated with the CEL program. Table 2 displays the total number of Leadership Seminars, student attendance and average attendance, all broken down by semester. Table 3 gives an overview of the number of students who met the membership requirements by attending the required amount of Leadership Seminars for two consecutive semesters. Lastly, three student quotations taken from the CEL reflective surveys are provided to give some context to the experience of being involved with the CEL program.

Table 2: Student Attendance at CEL Seminars by Semester

Fall 2011	6	151	25
Spring 2012	7	391	56
Fall 2012	7	1053	150
Spring 2013	7	1712	245
Fall 2013	6	1742	290
Spring 2014	8	2114	264
TOTAL	**41**	**7163**	**175**

Table 3: CEL Membership Admittance by Semester

Fall 2011	--
Spring 2012	31
Fall 2012	27
Spring 2013	112
Fall 2013	28
Spring 2014	232
TOTAL	**430**

"The CEL program has introduced me to so many new ideas and taught me a whole lot about leadership and the qualities needed to be a leader. I feel that the program has allowed me to better take advantage of my time and the opportunities that the college has to offer. Because of the CEL Program, I now feel comfortable leading groups of people which will benefit me in my future career and life endeavors" (Student, April 14, 2013).

"The CEL program is a program that has significantly helped me improve my leadership skills. It is a chance for students like me to learn from the leaders in the actual work force. In our classes, we learn the theories and concepts regarding our specific majors. It is programs like CEL, where the students get to see actual employees that are doing the theories and concepts we are learning. Also, all the speakers reflect the working culture of their company, which I believe is very important since I am planning to apply for an internship next year as well as full employment the year after" (Student, December 11, 2013). "When I heard about the CEL Program, I just had to get involved. I believe that the best way to

learn something is through experience. I think that this experience has enhanced my leadership skills and it makes me more confident in taking action" (Student, May 4, 2014).

Reflections

Based on the outcomes discussed above, the CEL program was a successful effort at the university. The collaborations with faculty and staff from across campus, as well as with the corporate community, provided the appropriate support and opportunities for students. No application and flexible level of involvement made the CEL program inclusive, and also popular. These aspects, along with the others provided, make this program innovative, as many traditional leadership development programs for collegiate students are quite exclusive for a myriad of reasons including controlling for number of members who can benefit from resources the program provides.

The goal of bringing together students who are interested in leadership was addressed by the *Community* learning outcome. The goal of providing basic skill-building on leadership to interested students through large- and small small-scale programming was addressed by the *Cultivation, Championing,* and *Career* learning outcomes. The goal of helping students make connections between their involvement in student organizations, classroom experiences and the work environment was addressed by the *Cultivation, Campus,* and *Career* learning outcomes. Finally, the goal of encouraging students to get involved student leadership opportunities on campus was addressed by the *Cultivation, Community,* and *Campus* learning outcomes.

Though the CEL program saw much success, there were some limitations which impacted its long-term sustainability. The CEL program was run completely by one administrator, with help from CEL members. This in turn affected the ability to expand the CEL program in ways that could better meet student needs, as the surge in attendance at Leadership Seminars required a certain format for swiping student IDs given the lack of staff. The program was put on hold after the spring 2014 semester as a result of these limitations.

Overall, the CEL program provides a strong case study for an inclusive leadership development program for undergraduate and graduate students at a private higher education institution.

Recommendations

The following recommendations are made, and are based upon the intended learning outcomes for this innovative practice session: 1) Make use of the theoretical framework, major programmatic and structural components to create or improve a leadership development program at other institutions; 2) Use the outcomes of the CEL program to build on successes and learn from mistakes; and 3) Apply what was learned in this session toward innovative approaches to inclusive leadership development programs at other institutions. It should also be noted that proper institutional support and the program's congruence with the greater strategic mission of the institution are critical to the success of any leadership development initiative.

Lastly, it is recommended that an inclusive leadership development program be created online, to reach a large audience of people looking to learn about leadership (click here for sample).

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Appendix A: Sample Schedule

CeL MOOC

Fall 2014 Schedule

Leadership Seminars – Open to all undergraduate and graduate students

Attendance will be tracked by campus ID card swipe and seminar evaluations.

Must attend **4** Leadership Seminars this semester in order to be on track toward obtaining CeL status.

Date	Seminar	Location	Time
September 23	Liberty Mutual Leadership Development Seminar	Auditorium A	12:00pm-1:00pm
September 30	Unum CEO Leadership Development Seminar	Auditorium A	12:00pm-1:00pm
October 7	Author Robert Greene Seminar	Auditorium A	12:00pm-1:00pm
October 28	Maestro Benjamin Zander (Boston Philharmonic) Seminar	Auditorium A	12:00pm-1:00pm
November 11	CeL Leadership Development Seminar	Auditorium A	12:00pm-1:00pm
November 18	Emotional Intelligence Seminar	Auditorium A	12:00pm-1:00pm

****

CeL LeaderLabs – AVAILABLE *ONLY* TO STUDENTS WHO HAVE OBTAINED CeL STATUS

Opportunities for students who have obtained CeL Status to learn more about leadership in an intimate setting. Registration Required.

CeL students must attend at least **2** LeaderLabs this semester in order to maintain status.

Dates	LeaderLab	Location	Time
September 16	Adaptive Leadership	Classroom B	7:15pm-8:30pm
October 21	Experiential Leadership Simulation	Classroom B	7:15pm-8:30pm
November 4	Servant Leadership: Best Practices	Classroom B	7:15pm-8:30pm
December 2	Student Panel: Leadership as Interns	Classroom B	7:15pm-8:30pm

Leadership Office Visits

__ Opportunities for students who have obtained CeL Status to examine how leadership plays out in an organizational setting.

Date	Company	Time	Highlights
September 27	LiveNation New England	11:00am-12:00pm	CEO & CFO interviews; CeL Wishlist
October 25	PwC	11:00am-12:00pm	Partner & Intern interviews; CeL post CHAT

"Leadership begins with action; Without action, there is no potential;
Without potential, there can be no effective leadership…"

Appendix B: Sample CEL Event Evaluation Questions

1. Was there anything of interest discussed during this event? If so, what?
2. How will you use what you learned at this event toward your personal leadership journey?
3. Did this Seminar inspire you to take action? If so, how?
4. Additional thoughts or comments?

Cultivator: A Cross-Platform, Multi-device Leadership Development Program Experience

Abstract

In-person, time-limited leadership development programs (LDPs) present several barriers that can be addressed with technology. This includes the application gap that exists between leadership programming experiences and "the real world." Additionally, more and more organizations are requesting customized leadership program experiences for their leaders. This prompts the need to develop a new method to engage leaders in continuous, personalized, and applied leadership development. This innovative practice, referred to as Cultivator, will shift focus from teaching leadership in traditional programming fashion to learning leadership at the individual level as part of a collective unit of LDP participants. This project combines digital learning, social media, mobile technology, and research-based programming to redefine leadership development. Reflections and recommendations for program use are discussed.

Introduction

Quality adult leadership development programs (LDPs) exist around the country. Most of these programs are time-limited, ranging from an hour-long workshop to a multi-year experience (Association of Leadership Programs, 2015). While these experiences offer quality programming to participants, there is much room for improvement and innovation. In-person, time-limited LDPs present several barriers that can be addressed with technology, including an application gap that exists between leadership programming experiences and "the real world." These LDPs often challenge participants, but "do not reliably produce long-term change…" (Allio, 2005, p. 1072). Because of this, Allio (2005) also states that participants "usually regress to old patterns within weeks" (p. 1072). These programs are also developed with the entire group's leadership needs in mind and are paced at which a group or team can experience collectively, not individually. Additionally, more and more organizations are requesting customized leadership program experiences for their leaders (Allen & Hartman, 2008). Limited availability of time and travel then becomes an issue for program coordinators and presenters. This prompts the need to develop a new method to engage leaders in continuous, personalized, and applied leadership development.

The [name of university center for leadership] developed an innovative practice to address the very real LDP need for 1. Post-program development, 2. Network-enhancing leadership development, 3. Strategic goal setting for social change within programming, 4. High level program evaluation, and 5. Next generation engagement. This innovative practice, referred to throughout this document as Cultivator, will shift focus from teaching leadership in traditional programming fashion to learning leadership at the individual level as well as part of a collective unit of LDP participants. This innovative practice combines digital learning, social media, mobile technology, and research-based programming to redefine leadership development. The innovative practice discussed in this document directly addresses several priority areas of the National Leadership Education Research Agenda (NLERA) (Andenoro, Allen, Haber-Curran, Jenkins, Sowcik, Dugan, & Osteen, 2013). The project applies to Priority Two: Programmatic Assessment and Evaluation by providing LDP directors the means to monitor and evaluate program impacts in real time as program participants practice program objectives. Priority

Three: The Psychological Development of Leaders, Followers, and Learners is addressed in Cultivator as the project prompts critical self-reflection and intentionality in LDP participants' pursuit of self-guided growth beyond their program experience. As part of Priority Four: The Sociological Development of Leaders, Followers, and Learners, this project provides opportunities for the development of learning organizations with LDP participation as well as the development of capacity to address complex adaptive systems in context. Finally, Priority Six: Social Change and Community Development is addressed in Cultivator as it delivers communication channels for LDP participants to engage in change agency and the development of community resilience.

Review of Related Scholarship

Need for Post-Program Development

Since the late 1950's (Mosel, 1957), the perception that LDPs fail to transfer training with participants or loses impact over time has been examined (Broad & Newstrom, 1992; Foxon, 1993; Georges, 1988; Grabrowski, 1983; Gurdjian, Halbeisen, & Lane, 2014; Kelly, 1982; Ready & Conger, 2003). Gurdjian et al. (2014) specifically outline three reasons why LDPs fail to develop more capable leaders. First, Gurdjian et al. (2014) state that LDPs have a tendency to overlook or disregard context and instead rely too often on one-size-fits-all programming. Secondly, they assert that LDPs decouple reflection from real work, meaning LDPs often fail to successfully tie leadership development to real on-the-job projects or initiatives. Lastly, Gurdjian et al. (2014) argues that LDPs cannot always address the deeply rooted psyche of participants to prompt behavioral changes. As articulated in the NLERA Priority Three: The Psychological Development of Leaders, Followers, and Learners:

> The vastness of the human psyche and the underlying perspectives, feelings, and passions present within each individual, makes quantification and generalization of the learners extremely difficult. However, this should not be an excuse for exploring these perspectives, as they are fundamental to our understanding of leadership as a process. Research should be directed at gathering baseline data that provides perspectives of the learners and their cognitive and developmental capacities for personal growth and awareness. (Andenoro et al., p. 14)

Merriam's (2001) review of andragogy and self-directed learning shows how the two concepts emerged from the same time period and contributed to today's understanding of adult education. In summary, adult learners seek lifelong learning, and this must be accounted for in leadership development programming. Roberts' (2006) Model of the Experiential Learning Process depicts the experiential learning process as cyclical in nature, requiring "an initial focus of the learner, followed by interaction with the phenomenon being studied, reflecting on the experience, developing generalizations, and then testing those generalizations" (p. 27). The cyclical nature of experiential learning should be captured in leadership development programming as a way to continue learning and development for adult participants beyond the program experience.

Need for Network-Enhancing Leadership Development

The discussion of social capital as a dynamic aspect of LDPs has progressed in literature (Cullen-Lester, Maupin, & Carter, 2017; McCallum & O'Connell, 2009; Roberts, 2013; Van De Valk, 2008; Van De Valk & Constas, 2011). However, the discussion of how social networks resulting from LDPs can enhance leadership development is still emerging. According to Cullen-Lester et al. (2017), "relational and multilevel views of leadership, which emphasize the social processes connecting individuals, dyads, and collectives, point to the importance of enhancing social networks…as an integral part of leadership development" (p. 130). Cullen-Lester et al. (2017) propose a conceptual model for *network-enhancing leadership development* as a means for improving the leadership capacity of both individuals and collectives. The model outlines three approaches for LDPs to undertake for the purposes of impacting patterns of social networks within and outside of groups of participants, impacting social network connections of individuals, and preparing individuals for participation in social networks.

The first LDP approach in the network-enhancing leadership development model, "Individuals Developing Social Competence," (Cullen-Lester et al., 2017, p. 133) recommends for LDPs to emphasize development of intrapersonal and interpersonal competencies. The next consecutive LDP approach focuses on "Individuals Shaping Networks" (p. 133) as participants develop their abilities to understand, leverage, and modify social network connections for themselves and others. Finally, the last LDP approach in the Cullen-Lester et al. (2017) model, "Collectives Co-Creating Networks" (p. 133), challenges LDPs to develop participant groups' abilities to understand, leverage, and modify internal and external social network connections. Through these three approaches, LDPs can utilize the power of social networks and social capital to crystallize the leadership development of participants both during and beyond the program. Just as the NLERA Priority Four: The Sociological Development of Leaders, Followers, and Learners prioritizes the "essential function of the individual within the group context and…the critical relationship that exists between leaders and followers" (Andenoro et al., 2013, p. 16), so LDPs should likewise prioritize this dynamic relationship as integral to the development of leaders as a means for continued learning, both individual and collectively as part of learning organizations.

Need for Strategic Goal Setting for Social Change within Programming

Leaders are pressed with choices for what they should pay attention to and how to proceed; when leaders set goals, they are able to make decisions on what actions to prioritize. Furthermore, goal setting increases goal commitment, planning behaviors, and motivation to achieve goals (Locke, 1996). In an examination of the relationship between goal setting and the transfer of programming, Johnson, Garrison, Hernez-Broome, Fleenor, and Steed (2012) used a 360-degree survey to collect impacts from participants three months after they experienced a 5-day LDP. Leaders set goals for behavior change based on the program competencies (self-awareness, developing others, building and maintaining relationships) during the LDP. The 360-degree survey revealed that those who set a goal for change on a given competency were perceived as having improved more in that competency than those participants who did not write a goal for that competency.

The NLERA Priority Six: Social Change and Community Development postures the commitment that LDPs should make to developing leaders capable of innovative social change through the empowerment of resilient communities and relationships (Andenoro et al., 2013). In

order to do this, LDPs ought to utilize strategic goal setting within programming as a means for initiating social change efforts among participants.

Need for High Level Program Evaluation

Within NLERA Priority Two: Programmatic Assessment and Evaluation, it is articulated that there is "a deficiency in the research and resources aimed at addressing" (Andenoro et al., 2013, p. 10) the need for leadership program monitoring and evaluation. In a review of evaluations conducted for 55 different LDPs, Russon and Reinelt (2004) found that while the availability of resources can hinder program staff from capturing thick, rich data from participants to substantiate their programs, the use of multiple methods for evaluation can help to triangulate findings.

Kirkpatrick (1994) describes four levels for evaluating training programs. These levels include: 1. Reaction, 2. Learning, 3. Behavior, and 4. Results. While it is acknowledged that evaluating at the third and fourth levels can be time-consuming and expensive, it is at these levels that programs will find the greatest returns for impact and application of programming. However, Kirkpatrick's (1994) levels do not account for the changes that occur after and external to the training, thus impacting both behaviors and results of participants beyond the training. LDPs need new evaluation resources to capture both behavioral impacts and definitive results from program participants that will still account for long term changes in the participants' leader environments.

Need for Next Generation Engagement

Pernick (2001) outlines nine essential tasks for creating a LDP. Task Eight: Plan for the Next Generation of Leaders addresses the importance for LDPs to utilize programming as a means for succession planning for a given organization or collective group of participants. Myers and Sadaghiani (2010) examined the communication characteristics of the youngest generation to fully enter the workplace, millennials. Understanding that this generation is the first generation to have been born into households with computers and to grow up surrounded by digital media (Gorman, Nelson, & Glassman, 2004; Raines, 2002), it is to be expected that millennials prefer the use of communication and information technologies as part of their work (Myers & Sadaghiani, 2010).

Yet, working millennials also prefer learning environments that incorporate supportive supervisions and structure. Myers and Sadaghiani (2010) also note millennials' shared value of personal and measurable achievements. Kuhl (2014) discusses several recommendations for organizations seeking to invest in their millennial members, specifically the need to invest in their continued development, prioritize their "onboarding" experience as a way to keep them engaged, and offering real-time feedback as they grow and develop. LDPs should take special note of these characteristics of millennials as opportunities to modify programming for the next generation of leaders.

Description of Practice

Cultivator is an online platform that is accessible by browser at your desk or mobile application on your smart phone or tablet. This platform can be tailored for LDPs of any size, context, or duration. Through Cultivator, LDP directors are able to set the course for post-LDP development for their participants. Upon completing a given LDP, participants will first engage in the cross-platform, multi-device leadership application software to personalize their leadership development based on their specific needs and personal leadership characteristics. This experience is a guided assessment to learn about the individual's leadership goals, interests, learning styles, leadership styles, personality, strengths, and other personal leadership traits or skills. Based on this onboarding, a personalized leadership experience is curated around the automatic selection of content modules and issues or challenges identified by the LDP director to be relevant or needed beyond the LDP experience.

Content modules may include topical information presented in person through the LDP, either in the form of video, podcasts, or readings. The delivery of this content can also be determined by the onboarding experience based on the preferences or needs of the user. Because the application platform knows the leader's tendencies, strengths, and preferences from the onboarding experience and continued use, personalized examples can be given to each individual learner.

In addition to the curated content, the online delivery of the content allows the learner to independently move through modules or sections. Self-paced learning gives the user the ability to work at their own pace or even revisit topics as a self-guided learner (Merriam, 2001; Voci and Young, 2001). Processing activities will help the learner understand the topic and relate it to their own environment.

Beyond the delivery of topical information, mobile technology allows the delivery of push notifications, or messages that can serve as reminders or call to actions, from the LDP director. This feature allows the participant to engage in a continuous and applied experience. While in the field, at work, or in a meeting, the leader can be reminded to apply a certain technique or strategy. Additionally, the participant user can be asked to reflect on the application of said technique or strategy. "Critical to the success of any leadership development process is the ability to encourage participants to reflect on learning experiences in order to promote the transfer of knowledge and skills to work contexts" (Amagoh, 2009, p. 990). This type of triggered, continuous engagement cannot be accomplished through current leadership programs. Through the application, the direct feedback and engagement with participants' behaviors and results can provide LDP directors with in-depth evaluation data about their participants in real-time.

In addition to content delivery and engagement with participants' leadership in-the-field, Cultivator also allows a community of users to be created for interaction with each other. Groups within the community may also be created if teams or companies are users of the platform. This connectivity also allows for leaders to assess the personal leadership traits of others, as displayed in the platform, to determine methods of support and approach. Social interaction is an advantage of classroom learning (Voci and Young, 2001, p. 157). Creating a community and a method of sharing thoughts and reflections gives users the opportunity to "test their own attitudes, choices, and reactions against those of their peers" (Voci and Young, 2001, p. 157).

Furthermore, community communication through Cultivator can allow LDP directors the ability to directly challenge and charge participants to rally around a given social issue or cause, as well as allow participants to communicate with each other and coordinate action.

Other features of Cultivator will include interactive forms of goal tracking, supplemental learning opportunities, and journaling with prompts provided by the LDP-director. Mobile delivery provides "instant learning guidance and feedback and use new interfaces for diverse learning approaches" (Lai, Yang, Chen, Ho, & Chan, 2007, p. 327).

Current Results and Timeline

After reviewing out-of-the-box options for creating the new leadership development experience, it was determined that such a unique platform would need to be developed. The most basic features of the platform were prioritized and formed into version one of Cultivator. With the first couple of months revolving around feature refinement, user experience, and interface preferences, the development phase of Cultivator begins in April 2018. This phase will focus on the platform's foundational architecture and unique learning management system. By August 2018, an online, beta version of the platform will be available for testing and review, with the final stage of native app development to be finished in October 2018.

Reflections of the Practitioners & Recommendations

Building a platform from the ground up introduces a number of implications. Funding for Cultivator was available from "new technology" program funds, with potential support from industry stakeholder groups. Even as the platform is being developed and housed as part of the [name of university center for leadership], pitching the concept of the project to stakeholders was significantly more challenging than it was to explain features of the platform to potential agencies for development.

During the development stage, content will be created and curated for the initial testing of Cultivator. This gives the project team the opportunity to redefine what a "learning module" consists of. The practitioner will develop and curate content for the platform as if preparing for an in-person programming experience. Once the platform is complete, the challenge will then be to identify a group as beta testers to participate in a review of the most basic features. Several current and former LDPs within the [name of university center for leadership] are being considered for beta testing.

Further research must be conducted to determine what content and skills can be effectively presented through a curated, mobile platform. Research will be necessary to determine generational differences in usage of the platform so as to provide for the learning needs of all LDP participants. Finally, empirical research will be necessary to track and modify all customized versions of the platform as leadership in the 21st century evolves with the complex-adaptive problems that tomorrow's leaders will face.

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Using Leadership Definitions to Provoke Deep Explorations into the Nature of Leadership

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Abstract

The purpose of this innovative practice session is to share a learning activity that provokes students' thinking about the nature of leadership through six leadership definitions. This activity is a dynamic starting place to talk about what leadership is (and is not), how it differs from management, the evolution of leadership, and diverse perspectives in leadership. This activity offers a conduit to a discussion that how we define leadership says something about what we value in a leader.

Introduction

The way we define leadership – the words and phrases we use and their implied meanings – says something about how we view leadership and what we value in a leader. Kouzes and Posner (20017) say that leaders are attentive to the language and words they use because these words are metaphors for concepts that define attitudes and behaviors, among other things. When we are able to understand how we define leadership for ourselves, it empowers us to put it into action.

However, even prominent leadership scholars do not agree on how leadership is defined (Huber, 2002; Northouse, 2016; Rost, 1991). Definitions of leadership have evolved over time and leadership is complex, resulting in an array of perspectives, frameworks, and concepts. Since there is no single definition of leadership, how we define it becomes personal and says something about who we are, what we value, and the message we want to send to others as we express our views about leadership.

No universal definition of leadership can provide a conundrum for leadership educators when introducing leadership as a discipline. However, this challenge can be an opportunity for us to acquaint students with the complexity of leadership by discussing its' evolution, debunking myths, contrasting it with management, and examining leadership values that are latent in definitions.

The purpose of this innovation session is to share an experiential learning activity designed to provoke students' thinking about the nature of leadership through prominent leadership definitions. In this session, participants will experience this activity and the presenter will share facilitation tips.

This activity is a dynamic starting place for leadership educators to talk about what leadership is (and is not), how it differs from management, the evolution of leadership, and diverse viewpoints

of leadership. Perhaps most importantly, this activity offers a conduit to a discussion that how we define leadership says something about what we value in a leader.

Review of Related Scholarship

There are many ways to define leadership based on various perspectives related to the discipline, the evolution of leadership, and ways in which leadership has been conceptualized (Huber, 2002; Northouse, 2016; Rost, 1991). Defining leadership is complicated and complex. There are multiple dimensions to explore, values to contemplate, frameworks to study, principles to ponder, and scholarship to consider when defining leadership.

Over time, the definition of leadership has evolved, shifting focus from being leader-centric with a focus on control and power to one focused on process, influence, and relationships. In the book, *Leadership for the Twenty-first Century*, Rost (1991) described trends in this evolution in detail, citing seminal studies and writings on leadership over the span of nearly a century. Rost and Barker (2000) describe the 20th century view of leadership as management-oriented, focused on superior/subordinate relationships, individualistic, goal/performance-oriented, and hierarchical. Conversely, they describe the post-industrial, social construct of leadership as inclusive, community-oriented, and complex.

In *Leadership: Theory and Practice*, Northouse (2016) summarizes and outlines this evolution of leadership thought as summarized in Table 1.

Table 1

Evolution of Leadership Definitions (Rost, 1991; Northouse, 2016)

Decade	Leadership Definition Emphasis
1900-1920s	control, power
1930s	traits, influence
1940s	groups
1950s	groups, relationships, goals, effectiveness
1960s	behavior
1970s	organizational behavior, reciprocal process
1980s	influence, traits, transformation
21st century	leadership vs. management, process, authenticity, values, follower focus

Helping students navigate this complexity and understand leadership from a 21st century perspective can be a challenge for leadership educators. Ho and Odom (2015) examined "leadership mindsets" of undergraduate students studying leadership based on Komives, Owen, Longerbeam, Mainella, and Osteen's (2009) Leadership Identity Development Model. Like Komives et al, Ho and Odem found that juniors tend to have a more hierarchical, rather than a systematic, understanding of leadership than seniors do. They concluded that leadership

coursework might facilitate an evolution in students' beliefs from a positional perspective to a more comprehensive view of leadership.

Similarly, Haber (2012) examined how college students define leadership. Ten definition themes in three broader categories emerged: leader/follower relationships, leader characteristics or behaviors, and leadership outcomes. This study's findings showed "that students have a fairly traditional understanding of leadership" (p. 45), meaning hierarchical views of leadership. Likewise, Shertzer and Schuh (2004) found that students generally viewed leadership as individualistic and positional, focused on power and influence.

In summary, industrial perceptions of leadership dominate students' perceptions of leadership. This hierarchical view of leadership contradicts today's contemporary view of leadership that emphasizes relationships and process. "The industrial view of leadership is inadequate for educational purposes because it does not address the nature of the complex social relationships among people who practices leadership, nor does it accurately accommodate their purposes, motives and intentions" (Rost and Barker, 2000, p. 3). One role of leadership educators is to debunk traditional leadership myths and facilitate a paradigm shift that promotes contemporary leadership values (Haber, 2012).

Description of the Practice

As an "Introduction to Leadership" exercise during the first week of class, students examine six definitions of leadership (outlined below). Dates are not provided on the student handout. Students are told that there is no "right" answer, since prominent leadership scholars constructed all of the definitions. A copy of the handout is provided in the Appendix.

1) Leadership is an influence relationship among leaders and followers who intend real changes that reflect their mutual purposes. (Rost, 1991)
2) Leadership is directing and coordinating the work of group members. (Fiedler, 1967)
3) Leadership may be considered as the process (act) of influencing the activities of an organized group in its efforts toward goal setting and goal achievement. (Stogdill, 1950)
4) Leadership is the art of mobilizing others to want to struggle for shared aspirations. (Kouzes and Posner, 2017)
5) Leadership can be defined as the process by which an agent induces a subordinate to behave in a desired manner. (Bennis, 1959)
6) Leadership is the reciprocal process of mobilizing by persons with certain motives and values, varous economic, political and other resources, in a context of competition and conflict, in order to realize goals independently or mutually helped by both leaders and followers. (Burns, 1978)

Students are then instructed to individually rank these definitions from 1 "highest" to 7 "lowest" based on the definition they like the most to the least. They are also encouraged to circle, underline, and/or highlight words and phrases that they like or do not like, and make personal notes with each definition.

Next, students are asked to get in groups of about three to come up with a group ranking. Within their groups, they are encouraged to discuss why they ranked the definitions as they did and the words/phrases they liked or did not like. The discussion that students engage in within their groups is more important than the actual ranking.

Then, as a class, the groups share their top two definitions, then their bottom two definitions. We also discuss variations within the groups. Most importantly, we discuss the words/phrases that they liked and did not like in defining leadership.

Discussion of Outcomes/Results

This activity is a positive and productive starting place to talk about what leadership is (and is not), how it differs from management, the evolution of leadership, and diverse viewpoints of leadership. It offers a conduit to a discussion that how we define leadership says something about what we value in a leader.

Students tend to rank definitions 1 and 6 high, 2 and 5 low, with the others in between. The following provides a justification of why each definition was selected, the purpose it serves, and general observations.

High Ranking Definitions 1 and 6

Discussing the highly ranked definitions first allows for a constructive discussion about how we view leadership today. Students pick out concepts such as relationships, process, and mutual benefit/purpose to best describe how they think about leadership (or should think about it). This is an "aha moment" for many students as they had not previously thought about what leadership means to them and the words one might use to effectively describe leadership.

Low Ranking Definitions 2 and 5

The words "directing" and "coordinating" from definition 2 prompt students to discuss management and think about how it is different from leadership, even if they have not considered this before (most have not). Definition 5 has a manipulation ring to it ("induce"), with "subordinate" implying hierarchy and/or position. These notions point toward an industrial view of leadership and allow for a conversation that debunks myths that leadership is positional or hierarchical or involves manipulation that may be focused solely on power.

Middle Ranking Definitions 3 and 4

These definitions tend to fall in the middle overall, while individual students may either like or dislike any of them. Definition 3 facilitates a discussion about influence and goals. Finally, definition 4 prompts students to think about leadership as an "art," meaning there is no one way to lead others. Students tend to either really like or not like the word "struggle," but it stimulates a discussion about leadership being difficult.

Reflections of the Practitioner

I have completed this activity with classes for nearly a decade and am always delighted with the results. It provokes a rich discussion about the nature of leadership and sets the stage for introducing the evolution of leadership and various perspectives in understanding leadership. The activity provides a nonthreatening way for students to consider leadership as being something different from what they originally believed because they can see a stark contrast between industrial and post-industrial paradigm schools of thought. Students also begin to question pre-conceived notions of leadership – such as management, power, manipulation, control – and begin to experience a paradigm shift to our contemporary view of leadership. On a side note, this

activity also allows me to set the tone for class where discussion, debate, and group work are encouraged and even expected.

Recommendations

Leadership educators may consider choosing other leadership definitions to meet their student learning outcomes. For example, selecting more similarly worded definitions could prompt students to discuss finer details, even within the framework of one leadership theory or model.

I recommend that as a concluding part of this activity, that leadership educators consider having their students save their individual rankings to revisit with the final paper. As a part of the final paper, I ask students to reflect on their top definition from the first day of class. Questions to ask them to consider include the following:

- Do they still like their top definition? Why? If not, what have they learned to change their mind?
- How would they change/tweak their top definition to more clearly describe their beliefs about leadership?
- Is there a different definition from the literature that they prefer? Why?
- What words/phrases in the definition they choose communicate key values in the way they view leadership?
- Where do the ideas/concepts that are communicated in their definition intersect with various leadership theories?

Huber (2002) explains that in the role of leadership educator, she does not struggle with a lack of a universally accepted definition. Taking a deep dive into various leadership definitions by ranking them, analyzing them, and reflecting on them prompts an exploration of the complexities of leadership and allows students to think more deeply about what leadership means in contemporary society.

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Appendix

DEFINING LEADERSHIP

One of criticisms in the scholarship of leadership is that there are hundreds of definitions. When we define or describe something, the words we choose matter.

Purpose of the Activity
To examine definitions of well-known leadership scholars and begin the process of thinking about how you define leadership and what you value in defining it.

Step One
Begin by examining the 7 definitions below. On your own, circle, underline, or make note of the words and/or phrases that you LIKE and/or DISLIKE about each definition. There is space underneath for you to write your personal notes and comments.

1. Leadership is an influence relationship among leaders and followers who intend real changes that reflect their mutual purposes. (Rost)

2. Leadership is directing and coordinating the work of group members. (Fiedler)

3. Leadership may be considered as the process (act) of influencing the activities of an organized group in its efforts toward goal setting and goal achievement. (Stogdill)

4. Leadership is the art of mobilizing others to want to struggle for shared aspirations. (Kouzes and Posner)

5. Leadership can be defined as the process by which an agent induces a subordinate to behave in a desired manner. (Bennis)

6. Leadership is the reciprocal process of mobilizing by persons with certain motives and values, varous economic, political and other resources, in a context of competition and conflict, in order to realize goals independently or mutually helped by both leaders and followers. (Burns)

Step Two
In small groups, compare and contrast your notes for each definition. DO NOT CHANGE YOUR INDIVIDUAL NOTES ON THE PREVIOUS PAGE. As a group, come up with a ranking of your TOP TWO definitions and explain why they are at the top (words/phrases that

you like). Then, come up with a ranking of your BOTTOM TWO definitions explain why they are at the bottom (words/phrases that you like).

Top Two (and why)

Bottom Two (and why)

SAVE THIS DOCUMENT. YOU WILL USE IT AGAIN FOR YOUR FINAL PAPER.

A Visitor on Campus:
Enhancing Inclusion through Social Belonging Interventions in the Classroom

Abstract

In a time where university students have shown an increase in feelings of isolation and loneliness, how do we weave social belonging into our curriculum and pedagogy to enhance a feeling of connection in our classrooms? How do we deliver our content in a way that shifts our student's perspectives from one of feeling like a visitor on campus to one of ownership and belonging? This paper provides tangible, specific examples of both larger and smaller, 'stealthier' interventions of social belonging implemented in a communication and leadership general, required course at a Land-Grant university in the Pacific Northwest. Results are presented and recommendations for educators across disciplines and contexts are provided to further enhance social belonging in our leadership classrooms.

Introduction

Many students entering higher education, especially those facing stereotype threat or from disadvantaged or multicultural backgrounds, hold a feeling of isolation or that they simply do not belong (Gilovich & Ross, 2015). As one African American woman wrote, "My experiences at Princeton have made me far more aware of my "blackness" than ever before… no matter how liberal and open-minded some of my white professors and classmates try to be toward me, *I sometimes feel like a visitor on campus*; as if I really don't belong... It often seems as if, to them, I will always be black first and a student second." This highly successful woman was Michelle Robinson Obama.

Although many scholars can acknowledge the benefits of social belonging and the clear link between leadership education and enhancing student belongingness, the challenge lies in the implementation. How do we weave social belonging into our curriculum and pedagogy to enhance this feeling of connection in our classrooms? How do we deliver our content in a way that shifts our student's perspective from one of feeling like a visitor on campus to one of ownership and belonging? The following Innovative Practice Paper highlights previous literature and a multitude of interventions that the researchers implemented in their leadership and communication classrooms in order to tangibly and practically address these questions.

Review of Related Scholarship

In the field of psychology, social belonging can be defined as the sense of having positive relationship with others (Walton & Cohen, 2011). This positive relationship can be viewed in two distinct parts: the need for frequent pleasant or positive interactions with the same individuals and the need for these interactions to occur in a framework of long-term, stable caring and concern (Baumeister & Leary, 1995). Through their fundamental research, Baumeister and Leary (1995) explored this human need to form and maintain strong, stable interpersonal relationships. They concluded that the need to belong is a powerful and extremely pervasive motivation. Individuals form bonds with others readily (even under adverse conditions) when they perceive commonality or among others that they are exposed to often.

These social bonds are so powerful that individuals consistently resist losing or breaking them, despite the difficulty of maintaining them (Baumeister & Leary, 1995).

A significant amount of literature has highlighted the benefits of social belonging, and conversely, the consequences of lacking social belonging. In consideration of social belonging, well-being is impacted by an individual's interpretation of the *quality* of their relationships, rather than the objective number or attributes of those relationships (Baumeister & Leary, 1995). Research addressing social integration (a person's membership in diverse social networks) has shown the significant benefits in health maintenance and disease etiology associated with social integration. Results have shown that those with more diverse types of relationships live longer, have less cognitive decline with age, and have greater resistance to upper respiratory infection (Cohen & Janicki-Deverts, 2009).

Conversely, psychological and physical health problems are more common with people who lack social attachments. Social isolation has also been shown to harm subjective well-being, intellectual achievement, immune function, and health (Cohen & Janicki-Deverts, 2009). Additionally, negative aspects of social relationships, like social losses and loneliness, have been shown to have detrimental health consequences, such as greater mortality risk, Similarly, feelings of loneliness have been associated with cardiovascular, endocrine, and immune changes (Cohen & Janicki-Deverts, 2009).

Social Belonging and Leadership Education

Research on social belonging has been heavily explored within educational contexts. Miller's (2011) study explored the social belonging of students in higher education and their use of their university recreation center. The study concluded that students who used their recreation center more frequently were more likely to experience social belonging within the recreation center and the university as a whole. This feeling of connection and integration to the university also enhanced student retention.

Some scholars suggest that, unless all students experience some sense of belonging while in school, they will reside within institutions that will continue to exclude and marginalize them. This exclusion perpetuates inequality in education rather than democracy or social justice (Shields, 2004). Similarly, additional research has shown that when students feel they belong - when their experiences and identities are reflected in the curriculum - they are more engaged in learning and experience great success in the school environment (Dodd, 2000).

For example, Walton & Cohen (2011) tested a brief intervention among college freshman over the span of three years in order to increase their social belonging in school. This intervention sought to lessen perceptions of campus threat by shifting attitude changes of social adversity. Their results concluded that such interventions especially impacted the social belonging of African American students, as well as increased their grade-point average (GPA) and self-reported health and well-being.

Within leadership studies, social belonging has been explored alongside the field of social psychology. Many social psychologists have been concerned of the inadequate grounding of

group membership within leadership theory (Hogg & van Knippenberg, 2003). Therefore, some scholars have paired leadership theories such as charismatic leadership and leader-member exchange (LMX) with social psychology through social identity analysis (Hogg & van Knippenberg, 2003). Through this lens, the social identity perspective suggests that a group exists when "people share a self-conceptualization in terms of the defining features of a self-inclusive social category" (Hogg & van Knippenberg, 2003, p. 6). As group affiliation becomes stronger, their leadership perceptions, evaluations, and effectiveness increase, depending on how much they view their leader to be in congruence with the group (Hogg & van Knippenberg, 2003).

Many other leadership theories, such as transformational and collective leadership, have also been used to further explore social belonging within leadership studies. Through their study among over 800 bank employees and their respective managers, Kark and colleagues (2003) explored the relationship between transformational leadership and social identification within the group. They concluded that transformational leadership was positively related to social identification, where social identification mediated the relationship between transformational leadership and one's empowerment.

Collective leadership connects diverse groups of people to take actions that positively impact themselves and their communities (Hoppe & Reinelt, 2009). Collective leaders develop these social networks who share common goals to address problems of uncertainty and complexity (Hoppe & Reinelt, 2009). These networks provide their members with a sense of purpose and belonging to something larger than the group itself. Hoppe & Reinelt (2009) presented recent examples of the importance of belonging in collective leadership networks through the self-organizing portal mybarackobama.com; community development network Lawrence Community Works, which seeks to restore the dying industrial city of Lawerence, Massachusetts; and the National Cancer Institute's Cancer Information Service (CIS) Partnership Program, which promotes education and dissemination of information to minority and underserved populations.

Description of the Practice

The researchers integrated social belonging interventions into a large, theory-based, general education course at a large, Land-Grant institution in the Pacific Northwest. This course, Human Development 205 (HD205): Developing Effective Communication and Life Skills, currently enrolls 600-700 students per semester, and at any given time, more than 17% of the student body has completed or is enrolled in the course. The goal of the class is to provide students with tools to improve their personal well-being, social integration, and leadership skills. Specific objectives of the course include teaching students to become more aware and conscious of their behaviors; flexible in response to change; persistent in the face of challenges; aligned with their values and make values-based decisions; and proactive in creating successful personal and professional relationships. Given the courses' objectives, social belonging interventions are a natural fit into the existing curriculum. The researchers facilitated social belonging interventions at both the larger, curriculum-based level and at a smaller, 'stealthier' level. This 'stealthier,' smaller level of interventions was purposefully chosen due to previous literature among university students, who were not told they were receiving an 'intervention.' Due to this methodology of delivery,

students were not stigmatized (told they were seen as needing help) and the interventions were minimal and brief (Yeager & Walton, 2011).

Two examples of social belonging interventions used in HD205 at the larger, curriculum-based level are small groups and *levels of learning*. Students enrolled in HD205 meet once a week, outside of class lecture, for 1-2 hours in small groups throughout the semester. The group work is intentionally built to create community and scaffolds over the course of the semester so students get to know their group mates more than would happen if students were assigned new groups often throughout the semester. Hopefully, this allows students to gain a sense of belonging within their groups.

Students learn about the "levels of learning" or natural learning curve we all experience when learning during a lecture discussion presented towards the beginning of the semester (presentation slides to describe this concept can be found in *Appendix A*). Through this conversation students gain exposure to the concept of resilience, allowing them to see that 1) they are not alone in the challenges they may be facing and 2) the experience will improve over time as they continue to learn. Both of these objectives are key components to social belonging.

Two examples of smaller, 'stealthier' interventions used in HD205 include a letter written to future students and grouping. In the letter to future students intervention, students are asked to write a letter to students taking HD205 next semester about what they would have liked to know coming into the class, lessons they learned along the way, and any advice they have for incoming students. These letters are then shared and openly discussed with the new class of incoming students the following semester. Secondly, many class discussions, exercises, or activities are conducted in groups, where social belonging is used to physically group the students together. Research shows that sense of belonging can be facilitated by small, "mere" commonalities (Walton, Cohen, Cwir, & Spencer, 2011). Because of this, the researchers group students throughout the semester based on small commonalities such as sharing a birthday, similar shirt colors, number of siblings, etc.

Discussion of Outcomes/Results

Upon the implementation of social belong interventions in HD205, the researchers expected there would be an increase in social belonging among students enrolled in the course. This expectation comes from anecdotal evidence obtained by the researchers through students reflection and reporting. Students have made comments such as, "I've made good friends with members of my small group," "I'm not alone in the bottom of the learning curve," and "The challenges I'm facing are actually normal." after engaging in some of the social belonging interventions. Due to these perceived feelings of increased belonging, many students have even vocalized their shift in perspective on their original intent of leaving the institution.

To date the researchers have not measured social belonging through any valid social belonging measures beyond social well-being, which has been measured as an evaluative assessment since fall 2012. The Mental Health Continuum - Short Form was used to measure social belonging, representing five dimensions of social well-being: social integration, social contribution, social coherence, social actualization, and social acceptance (i.e. "you belong to a community" for

social integration and "you have something important to contribute to society" for social contribution). This instrument suggests that social well-being is a person's evaluation of their circumstances and functioning in society (Keys, 1998). Students rated the frequency of feelings in the past month on a six-point Likert scale ranging from never (1) to every day (6). Average Cronbach's alpha across six semesters for social well-being was 0.87. The researchers conducted paired t-tests to measure changes in students' social well-being from the beginning to the end of the semester for ten (10) total semesters (fall 2012 - spring 2017). With the exception to two of those ten semesters (fall 2013, a semester with major class delivery changes and fall 2015), scores on the social well-being scale showed significant improvement over the course of each semester, with small positive effect sizes ranging from 0.12 ($p = .006$) to 0.40 ($p < .001$). Researchers suggest the use of a social belonging instrument to better enhance measurement and future research on the effects of this course on social belonging.

Reflections of the Practitioner

The benefits of these social belonging interventions can be attributed both to their delivery and content. Many of these interventions are small in nature (do not require a long time nor major shifts in curriculum) and do not hold content-specific material; therefore, their delivery can be capitalized across disciplines. Although the researchers have only implemented these interventions in their HD205 general education course, a current campus-wide initiative is implementing similar interventions of social belonging among a variety of academic departments and classes throughout the university. The researchers are currently involved with this university-wide initiative to enhance student academic success, increase their life skills and resilience, and transform their experience through a variety of classroom interventions.

However, despite the size of these interventions, the researchers have seen the significant ramifications empirically and through anecdotal student narratives. Due to these consequences, it becomes essential for leadership educators to be intentional with these interventions; by simply asking, "How can I enhance social belonging today?" throughout course development and delivery, educators can purposefully delivery their material to impact their students' identities. Such interventions can be implemented through student team projects, delivery of material (so students recognize that they are not alone), how students are paired or grouped, among many others.

Lastly, the researchers have identified that this conversation about inclusion and belonging is especially timely. Currently, US college counselors are seeing record numbers of students combatting a variety of mental health problems, ranging from depression and anxiety to more serious psychiatric disorders (James, 2017). The heightened demands and stress of academia continue to increase levels of anxiety and depression among college students, which could further perpetuate feelings of isolation. The researchers suggest that such interventions could provide a positive means to address these feelings, allowing students to feel a sense of belonging, where they are fully supported and not alone.

Recommendations

The interventions presented in this Innovative Practice Paper provide an excellent foundation for leadership educators to start thinking about how to enhance social belonging and thus students' health, achievement, and motivation; however, there is still a significant amount of work to be done. The primary focus of the below recommendations is where the interventions occur and potential opportunities for future research.

First, the researchers suggest that social belonging interventions need to be implemented early and often in order to reach the widest number of students. One potential fit for these interventions and delivery would be to include them as part of university orientation that students attend prior to their arrival on campus. Through the orientation process, students will start to get a sense of belonging before they arrive on campus full time.

Another opportunity to reach a large number of students is to implement these intervention in university required, general education courses, as conducted in this Innovative Practice Paper. Schiraldi and Brown (2001) proposed that in order for psychological interventions (such as social belonging) to be most effective, they need to be offered in classes that teach the skills and provide opportunities to apply and integrate these skills. Similarly, Conley, Durlak, and Dickson (2013) found that skills-oriented interventions with supervised practice were more effective than skills-oriented interventions without supervised practice in promoting positive mental health. Through this research, they concluded that these interventions delivered within larger, skills-oriented university classes were more effective in mental health promotion and prevention than those delivered in small groups.

Ultimately, research on social belonging needs to be further explored specifically within leadership education. Leadership education is a catalyst for developing and maintaining relationships within the classroom and beyond; such contexts would be a perfect fit for implementation of social belonging interventions. Along with implementation, it is important to examine the effectiveness and impact of these interventions within leadership education through various evaluative measures.

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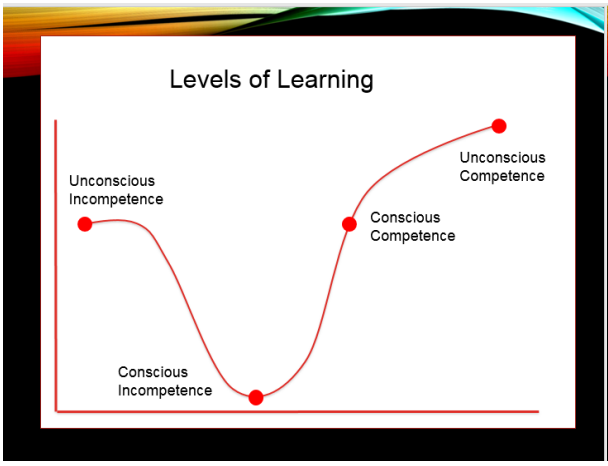
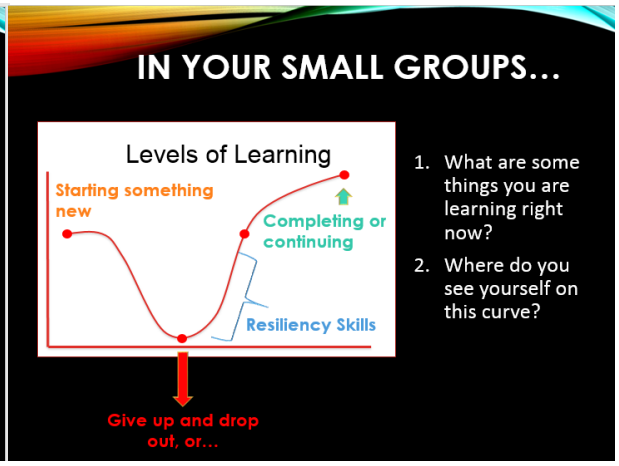
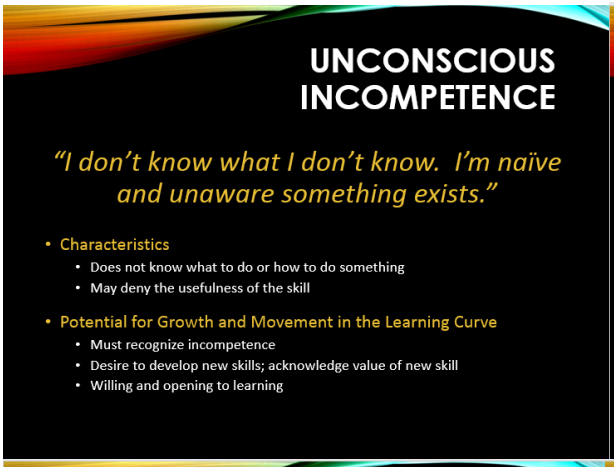
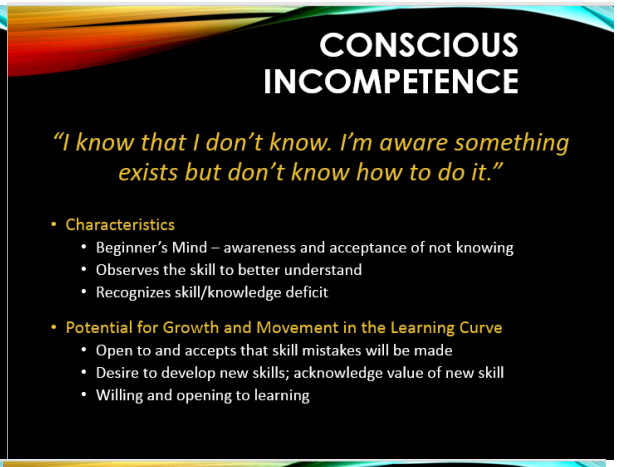
Appendix A

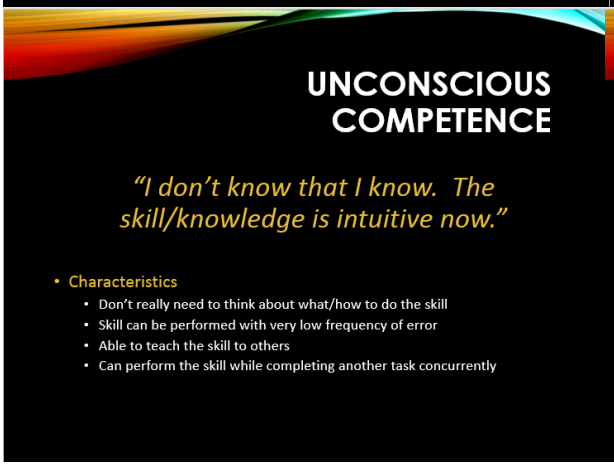
Levels of Learning Lecture Presentation

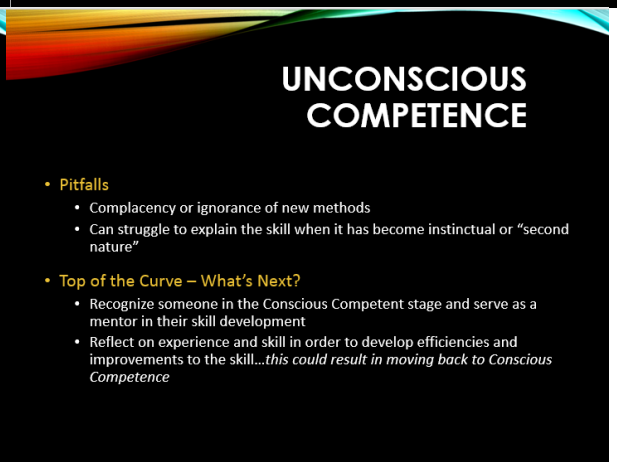












Enabling Healthy and Successful Relationships through Nonviolent Communication: A Foundation for Authentic Leadership Practice

Abstract

Relationships are fundamental for developing individuals. This is especially critical for leadership educators attempting to develop authentic leadership and the ability to form meaningful relationships in their learners. If we aspire to lead authentically and share true emotion to achieve the best possible outcomes in relationships, we need to engage in Nonviolent Communication (Rosenberg, 2015). The following provides leadership educators with context for reshaping leadership learners' perceptions and provides them with tools to promote more authentic and meaningful personal and organizational relationships. The presented conceptual framework is applicable at the collegiate level where relationships tend to become violent and strained (Sigelman, Berry, & Wiles, 1984). Further, this process becomes paramount to preparing leadership learners for healthy and successful interactions post-graduation.

Introduction

Social relationships, especially close ones, form an essential foundation for the development of human beings, molding each person's mind and behavior (Fischer & Noam, 1996). Relationships are integral to human beings. However, the way human beings communicate in both romantic and platonic relationships often disallows individuals from expressing their emotions. Enabling individuals to both communicate clearly and effectively creates an environment conducive to relationship growth. In understanding this problem, the process of Nonviolent Communication (Rosenberg, 2015), can be implemented within the context of leadership learning to develop healthy relationship practices within interdisciplinary leadership learners. Nonviolent Communication (NVC), illustrates the vital importance communication holds in relationships (2015, p.3):

> While studying the factors that affect our ability to stay compassionate, I was struck by the crucial role of language and our use of words. I have since identified a specific approach to communicating – both speaking and listening – that leads us to give from the heart, connecting us with ourselves and with each other in a way that allows our natural compassion to flourish. I call this approach Nonviolent Communication, using the term *nonviolence* as Gandhi use it – to refer to our natural state of compassion when violence has subsided form the heart. While we may not consider the way we talk to be 'violent,' words often lead to hurt and pain, whether for others or ourselves. In some communities, the process I am describing is known as Compassionate Communication.

As Rosenberg elaborates on the importance of language in relationships, the NVC process extends beyond expressing individual opinions and emotions in their purest form. NVC works to advance the way society speaks by developing a process that employs active listening and effective communication, while enabling empathetic connections. NVC, within the context of leadership learning, will promote leadership tendencies that highlight the four main components: observing, feeling, needing, and requesting (2015). However, enabling healthy and successful relationships only works if individuals exhibit authenticity, vulnerability, effective communication, and empathy. These four pillars, as well as the Rosenberg's components, construct a way to re-invigorate and positively influence relationships for the future.

Authentic leaders ground their action and organizational practice in awareness by practicing their values and principles (George, Sims, McLean, & Mayer, 2007). This is extended by Luthans and Avolio (2003, p. 243) defining authentic leadership as:

> "A process that draws from both positive psychological capacities and a highly developed organizational context, which results in both greater self-awareness and self-regulated positive behaviors on the part of leaders and associates, fostering positive self-development. The authentic leader is confident, hopeful, optimistic, resilient, transparent, moral/ethical future-oriented, and gives priority to developing associates into leaders themselves. The authentic leader does not try to coerce or even rationally persuade associates, but rather the leader's authentic values, beliefs, and behaviors serve to model the development of associates."

However, the practice of authentic leadership is also intimately linked to the leaders' ability to communicate effectively. More specifically, research has suggested that high quality leader–follower relationships foster more open communication, strong value congruence, and minimal power distance (Fairhurst, 1993; Fairhurst & Chandler, 1989; Fairhurst, Rogers & Sarr, 1987; Ilies, Frederick, Morgeson, & Nahrgang, 2005). This creates an indelible link between the practice of authentic leadership defined and NVC.

Through the adoption of NVC as a meaningful and intentional piece of leadership learning curricula, leadership educators have the potential to develop self-awareness, self-regulated behaviors aimed at advancing organizational effectiveness, clarify values, and create opportunities for authenticity and authentic leadership practice in leadership learners. The following provides a conceptual framework for the adoption of NVC curricular interventions aimed at producing authentic leadership behaviors within undergraduate interdisciplinary leadership learners.

Theoretical Foundation

NVC is a process that yields authentic and vulnerable interactions that lead to sustainable relationships and organizational effectiveness. There are four NVC components that provide the basis for accomplishing effective communication and interpersonal dynamics (Rosenberg, 2015, p.7):

> The concrete actions we *observe* that affect our wellbeing; how we *feel* in relation to what we observe; the *needs*, values, desires, etc. that create our feelings; and the concrete actions we *request* in order to enrich our lives.

In understanding these components, Rosenberg elaborates on implementation techniques in daily lives. In relationships, and all too often in society, evaluations are made that intentionally judge and compare individuals to another person. Another form of evaluation, moralistic judgments, "imply that people are wrong and bad, since their actions do not align with our values" (Rosenberg, 2015, p. 15). In doing this people are placing blanket judgements onto people based on a certain action they have witnessed, such as: "Jim is ugly" or "Sarah is gross." Not only do these statements exemplify violence in our words, but they also lead to defensiveness from the individual who was judged. Blanket statements do not exhibit the reasons for which they were judged. In saying, "Jim is ugly," there is no understanding or reasoning for why Jim is ugly. This is a direct form of evaluating.

When using blanket statements, there is a complete lack of empathy in the way one communicates. Declaring that someone is ugly will most likely prompt them to become hostile towards the one that made the declaration. Instead of using words that generalize emotion, it is critical for people express the reasoning behind the observation: "Jim's looks don't appeal to me." Just because Jim's looks do not appeal to one person, does not make Jim ugly. When we combine observation with evaluation, people are apt to hear criticism, therefore, "removing evaluations from observations will not carry any criticism" (Rosenberg, 2015, p. 26).

In understanding how to separate observations from evaluations, expressing one's feelings while being vulnerable becomes increasingly difficult. In our society, individuals become both anxious and afraid of being vulnerable. It is engrained in most people to become wary of vulnerability in both life and in relationships (Riskind, 1999). Yet vulnerability is an integral piece to relationships. Vulnerability not only creates a strong connection between individuals, but it also allows people to express themselves fully (2008). When describing one's feelings, vulnerability is critical, as it can help reduce tension and promote constructive dialogue when disagreements arise. Not much different from separating observations from evaluations, when expressing feelings, it is important to distinguish thoughts form feelings; "Distinguish between what we feel and what we think we are" (Rosenberg, 2015, p. 41).

Understanding the difference between true feelings and what we think we are feeling can be difficult. Changing and distinguishing what emotions individuals feel towards themselves is the first step. Starting with the statement of what one is thinking they are feeling, "I feel *inadequate* as a guitar player," elicits an assessment or evaluation of one's guitar playing. Instead, this individual should clearly express their feelings towards their guitar skills, "I feel *disappointed* in myself as a guitar player" (Rosenberg, 2015, p. 42). When changing the focus of one's emotions to direct statement of feelings of their guitar playing, one is using vulnerability to express their feelings.

When addressing how one feels, another common misuse of expression is explaining how others are behaving. In this scenario, instead of addressing one's feelings, they express the actions of others towards themselves. This does not express emotion, but rather states how one thinks others are evaluating them, "I feel *unimportant* to the people with who I work." The word *unimportant* describes how one thinks others are evaluating them and does not show one's true feelings on the matter (Rosenberg, 2015, p. 42). "I feel *discouraged* when I am not recognized by those with whom I work." This elaborates on this individual's feelings, when they are not recognized for their work from their coworkers. These emotions can not only help others to better understand one's feelings, but it also begins to describe the next step in this process, their needs.

As noted by Stedman and Andenoro (2007) "another tenet of leadership intelligence is the development of emotional skills to enhance personal and organization development" (p. 193). As one begins to develop an understanding upon observing situations and explaining their feelings, emotional skills is how individuals will grow and develop. After they express their feelings, the third component of developing NVC is conveying one's needs. Asking for one's own needs is commonly not carried out in relationships; however, it is integral. Without expressing individual needs, a relationship will not be able to fully develop successfully. "If we don't value our needs, others may not either" (Rosenberg, 2015, page 56). Often people strive to take responsibility for the happiness of others, all the while neglecting their own needs. In doing so, the individual is trapped in the first stages of emotional slavery, disconnected from the goal of emotional liberation (Rosenberg, 2015).

The stages of developing emotional responsibility (2015):

1. "Emotional Slavery" – believing ourselves responsible for the feelings of others.
2. "The Obnoxious Stage" – in which we refuse to admit to caring what anyone else feels or needs.
3. "Emotional Liberation" – in which we accept full responsibility for our own feelings but not the feelings of others, while being aware that we can never meet our own needs at the expense of others.

Bringing about emotional responsibility and awareness, requires self-awareness of one's needs to make the conscious choice to begin to ask for things they truly want. While expressing one's feelings towards others without expressing why it made one feel this way, and what they need, presents itself as blaming: "You disappointed me by not showing up for coffee this morning." While emotions are being expressed, the individual is not expressing why it makes them feel this way. Changing the sentence to: "I was

disappointed when you did not show up for coffee this morning, because I wanted to talk about our disagreement last night," enables the individual to express their feelings fully by explaining why and expressing their need to talk about the disagreement. This also shifts the blame off the listener, furthermore preventing defensiveness. Using this technique to face problems in both platonic and romantic relationships has the power to quell otherwise festering situations that can cause increased amounts of strain on a relationship if not expressed.

While expressing needs, it is important to express real needs, rather than needs stated as "don't(s)." The individual must to tell people what they need, rather than what they don't want another to do. Quite often do people know exactly what they want, yet say it using negative language. When individuals are told not to do something, basic instinct will urge them to do the opposite. One woman at a workshop stated she "asked [her husband] him to not spend so much time at work. [Yet] Three weeks later, he responded by announcing that he'd signed up for a golf tournament" (Rosenberg, 2015, p. 67). Instead of clearly outlining what she wanted her husband to do, she told him something she did *not* want him to do. Her idea was not for him to attend a golf tournament, but rather "…to spend at least one evening a week at home with the children and me" (2015, p. 67). If the woman would have stated that she wanted her husband to spend time with her and their kids by clearly describing that need, her needs would have been explained, and most likely met.

It is important to describe what one needs. However, the way in which one does this is quite important. When expressing one's needs clearly, it is also important to use positive language and avoid demands. When people hear demands, Rosenberg (2015) argues they have two reactions: to submit and carry out the request, and to rebel and refuse to do the action. Human beings usually do not respond well to being told what to do as control is very important. Understanding this, demands will only cause more problems in relationships instead of providing solutions. If individuals were to explain their needs in positive language, explaining exactly what they need and requesting an action, it can present solutions to problems.

While developing and understanding of requests versus demands, it is imperative to be cognizant of the other person's needs and empathize with them. If Warren requests to have coffee with Brooke, yet the Brooke is too tired to attend, Warren should empathize with her need of sleep and set up another time to have coffee. If Warren does not empathize with Brooke and instead blames her for not supporting him, then Warren was demanding. This is a very important factor when finalizing a request to someone, as empathy is a large factor in this. Using the empathy-altruism model in relationships that "…empathetic concern also lead[s] to a greater sense of self-other overlap," partners in the relationship will gain self-awareness in themselves as well (Cialdini, et al., 1997). In relationships, the aspect of creating empathy between the two individuals is crucial as this will strengthen the relationship. As all four of these components are used in tandem, starting with observing the situation, fully expressing one's feelings, stating one's needs by requesting empathetically, a relationship can develop and grow. Using these tenets to achieve effective communication through authenticity, vulnerability, and empathy, this will create a healthy and successful foundation for all relationships.

Effective communication and, more specifically NVC, is critically important to the practice of authentic leadership (Clapp-Smith, Vogelgesang, & Avery, 2009; Gardner, Cogliser, Davis, & Dickens, 2011; George et al., 2007; Jensen & Luthans, 2006). Authentic leaders maintain the following characteristics (Whitehead, 2009, p. 850):

(1) self-awareness, humility, always seeking improvement, aware of those being led and looks out for the welfare of others;
(2) fosters high degrees of trust by building an ethical and moral framework; and
(3) is committed to organizational success within the construct of social values.

However, without the ability to create positive influence and build trust, organizational success is not possible. NVC provides a vehicle for developing the previously noted characteristics. The growth process associated with reframing communication practices for the promotion of NVC is grounded in reflection and self-awareness, hallmarks of the emotional intelligence (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2002). Further the abilities to manage emotions (Salovey & Mayer, 1990) and self-regulate (Facione, 2000), are essential for positive and constructive interactions with staff and colleagues. This illustrates the need for NVC as a functional piece of the authentic leadership practice.

Description of Practice & Conceptual Framework

Relationships are fundamental for building growth in leadership settings through critical thinking, engagement, and emotional intelligence, leaders need to have strong social connections (Stedman & Andenoro, 2007). Through the practice of NVC, relationship growth can be taught to all leadership students at varying educational levels, as well as leaders in the business and post-education sector. Infusing the NVC process into leadership learning contexts would substantially impact leadership learners, creating a foundation for more secure relationships for the future. Through the inclusion of the NVC process within leadership learning contexts, leadership learners will develop behaviors to establish and maintain healthy and secure relationship tendencies throughout their lives. Through this reflective process attitudes for positive communication can be established, behaviors that promote organizational effectiveness are possible, and cognitive frameworks allowing for authenticity, vulnerability, and empathy will also emerge.

The NVC learning process was facilitated within an undergraduate interdisciplinary leadership class, Interpersonal Leadership, at the [insert university]. A heavy emphasis on self-awareness and narrative was already present within the course curricula, but the course was shifted to create prioritize self-awareness and relationship building within organizational contexts through the use of NVC. Within the context, students were asked to reflect on their lives, and identify their most significant relationships, platonic or romantic, in hopes of creating a more applied approach to NVC. While creating a space of self-awareness, the NVC process was articulated to the students in a way that elaborated on the complexity of relationships (especially at the collegiate level), and how the use of this process could potentially inspire growth and positive change in their significant relationships.

First, gathering an understanding of what the students believed was vital to a healthy relationship, the NVC process could be adapted to create the student-based definition of what they deemed a healthy relationship. After this step, each student would introspectively consider their own life and find the relationship of most significance. During this process, the presenter conveyed information and anecdotes identifying authenticity, vulnerability, effective communication, and empathy (the four pillars) as characteristics of prosperous relationships. By introducing the NVC process to the students after already clarifying what attributes are necessary for healthy relationships, the students are able to understand that without the aforementioned pillars, NVC's components of observing, feeling, needing and requesting, will lead to personal growth, authentic leadership practice, and organizational effectiveness.

Next, outlining the practices of each component and matriculating through scenarios, the students developed an understanding of how to express and use NVC in their own personal relationships (i.e. Collegiate environment could engage statements of the NVC process in romantic relationships). Once examples of how to carry out NVC are provided, students were instructed to split into groups and begin to practice these techniques to their group partners, acting as if they are speaking to the individuals in their significant relationships.

Throughout the entire presentation, it is important for the presenter to also be vulnerable providing narratives of their own struggles in relationships. This provides the leadership learners with perspective

and confidence for embracing the process. The leadership educator narratives establish trust and connections with the leadership learners and adds credibility and approachability to the process, as executing NVC in daily life is extremely difficult. It benefits both the presenter to express their own failures and troubled-areas in their relationships, all the while reaching the conclusion that the presenter is not perfect, and still has trouble in their own relationships. This step is imperative, as it will reinforce the complexity and difficulty inherent to the process of cultivating healthy, secure, and successful relationships. Further, it demonstrates the power of NVC in the leadership educator's life in cultivating positive relationships. This also connects the leadership educator and learners promoting a more comfortable and friendly leadership learning environment.

After facilitating the curricula, a writing prompt was given to the students to promote action in their own relationships:

> I want you to reflect upon the Nonviolent Communication process. How does this establish a foundation for positive and secure relationships and what specifically, is your plan to promote healthy relationships in your lives? Think critically and be specific. Grounded in NVC principles, define the actions that you will embrace and use to leading to authenticity, effective communication, vulnerability, and empathy, that will promote health and success in your own relationships.

This writing prompt requires leadership learners to think deeply about the actions that change and sustain the overall health of their relationships, and through a content analysis of their responses the leadership educator gains clarity or the effects NVC has on the leadership learners.

Discussion of Outcomes/Results

To date, emergent themes stemming from a content analysis (Patton, 2005) of the leadership learners' writing demonstrate that students are applying the process to their lives and using it in significant relationships. Specifically, increased levels self-awareness and self-regulation in leadership learners are evident. Along with this, substantial context was provided in the learner reflections that aligned with authentic leadership practice in personal and organizational contexts. Further, qualitative interviews and focus groups have been scheduled and will provide additional context for the impact of the process on leadership learner authenticity, effective communication, vulnerability, and empathy. Ideally, longitudinal data will be collected to explore the retention and impact of NVC on personal and organizational relationship development within leadership learners in the [insert program here] at [insert university here] and post-graduation.

These results, along with forthcoming publications aligned with the power of NVC for developing the critical hallmarks of authentic leadership and promoting organizational effectiveness will have far reaching implications for leadership educators attempting to advance authentic leadership within leadership learners. This has the potential to advance the intellectual merit and broader impact of the field of Leadership Education.

Reflections of the Practitioner & Recommendations

The infusion of Nonviolent Communication (Rosenberg, 2015) within leadership education environments creates a foundation for cultivating healthy and secure in relationships, and ultimately leads to more sustainable authentic leadership practice. NVC should be adopted and facilitated in leadership education contexts within higher education. However, the power of NVC can be extended to all levels of education, as the earlier learners begin to develop NVC tendencies, the more predisposed they will become to using them as adults. Specifically, this educational intervention has the potential to lead to more effective conflict management, problem-solving, constructive dialogue, and effective leadership practice.

The implications for this innovative practice are far-reaching, but more research needs to be done. Currently, faculty and researchers within the [insert program here] are exploring the impact of NVC on several leadership practices, including authentic leadership in addition to adaptive leadership (Heifetz, Grashow, & Linsky, 2009), moral imagination (Werhane, 2008), and complexity leadership (Lichtenstein et al., 2006). This has the potential to revolutionize the way that we approach communication practice and effectiveness within leadership learning contexts. This has the potential to not only advance the discipline of Leadership Education but extend well beyond through collaborative interdisciplinary partnerships. Further, this has the potential to lead to more effective leadership education practices, and ultimately greater sustainability of our organizations and the significant relationships within them.

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Millennials and Organizational Leadership: Experiential Learning Lessons Abstract
The gap between generations is a phenomenon that is quickly growing interest in leadership studies and higher education. The quick access to incredibly high volumes of information and the networked-effect created by social media marks the millennial generation as one unique to all others. While students are exhibiting the desire to be recognized as unique individuals with very diverse talents and skills, they are simultaneously seeking out experiential and applied learning opportunities with their peers and colleagues. In an experiential leadership and organizational change course, the gap between the traits and habits of millennial students and the course design provides an impactful learning opportunity to examine the habits, patterns of behavior, teaching practices, and previous ways of learning in leadership studies.

Introduction

Within our Department of Leadership Studies, there are several courses that employ experiential, case-in-point, and human relations pedagogies to teach leadership as a practice and process.
These courses seek to balance theory and practice, and incorporate leadership challenges and processes in "real-time." In one particular class, Leadership and Organizational Change, the class is called to develop into a consulting organization and attend to a real and current social problem in their community. The class accepts a client in the form of a local organization seeking assistance with a change initiative, and conducts strategic planning, team development, organizational change analysis, and has deliverables due to the client by the end of the semester.

While the Leadership and Organizational Change course offers a unique experiential, "real-time" learning opportunities on an individual and group level that much of the millennial generation craves, it challenges the conventional ways of teaching and learning in higher education settings (See Figure 1). This innovative practitioner session will explore the gap between the espoused theories (or those that students profess they believe in and the values they attribute themselves with), and the theories in use, (the behaviors and action they actually taken based on their beliefs and values) manifest in the form of conflict around deliverables on behalf of the organization (Senge, 2006). We will explore the ways the class-as-an-organization model for teaching organizational leadership has highlighted the difficulty many millennials are facing around wanting to create change in the world, and becoming the change that they so desire.

Review of Related Scholarship and Background

Leadership, as a field of study in higher education, is organized by a variety of methodological and pedagogical practices. Leadership Studies recognizes the most effective way of learning about leadership as a process that leaders initiate is by actually "do[ing] it"(Arensdorf and Andenoro, 2009). The theoretical and practical components of the field require differentiation in teaching and learning opportunities. Individuals in the workplace encounter a wide range of group dynamics, communication styles, and barriers to successfully initiating change. As a result, leadership studies courses are tasked with examining and bringing those workplace realities in the classroom.

We have implemented an experiential learning opportunity for millennials in the form of a course that develops and operates as an organization. Research on millennial students agrees that millennials thrive in learning environments that are flexible and collaborative, innovative while also semi-structured, and where individuals are respected and identified as such (Brown, Brown & Conte, 2011). Experiential learning environments contain assignments, activities, and projects that are based on real-life situations and experiences. Such environments should stimulate critical thinking, reflection of information and experience, and do not necessarily prescribe a specific solution or approach to advancing the work (The University of Texas at Austin, 2018). In the context of higher education and Leadership Studies in particular, the approach to experiential learning as a way to teach leadership may come into conflict with the natural traits and behaviors that millennials exhibit. To better understand this conflict and identify teaching strategies for the field, it is important to unpack whom the future leaders and learners in leadership studies are today.

Of the many traits and behaviors attributed to the millennial generation only a few will be noted here. They are those which we experience most often in Leadership and Organizational Change. Millennials are categorically identified as individuals who have very full schedules and commitments, come from highly diverse families, are socially connected to all parts of the world, have access to incredible amounts of information at high speeds, multi-task as a norm, tend to be the center of attention, and are the resident technology expert for their families. Millennials make up 36 percent of our workforce and by 2025 will be 75 percent of all employees in organizations making them the future of leadership as a practice and a field of study (Negroni, 2016).

One of the more commonly cited traits of the millennial generation is that they see themselves as special and unique (Strauss & Howe, 2000; Fralick, 2010). Indeed, in many ways they are the most ethnically and diverse generation, they understand it and are proud of it (Stasio, 2013; Pew Research Center, 2010). Millennials are also confident. A 2010 Pew reported that this self- confidence is related to feeling that they are unique individuals in a unique generation and that the future is bright. Paradoxically, they are simultaneously both team oriented and often branded “Generation Me.” The preference for a team-oriented environment with a flat structure and feel they work best within a context that is team-focused and encourages the free flow of information (Huyler, et al.; Myers & Sadaghiani, 2010). At the same time the millennial generation is also widely understood to be individualistic to the point of being narcissistic (Ralphson, 2014). In Generation Me, Jean Twenge describes a generation that is interested in team work but also passionate about redefining what it means to be an individual (2014).

The millennial generation is also often considered more sheltered than previous generations (Lowery & Strauss, 2001). Fralick reports that every day 42 percent of millennials talk to at least one of the parents on the phone and 75 percent have received financial help from parents in the last 12 months (2010). Perhaps because of their continued connection to their parents millennials often feel pressured to do well and are achievement oriented (Howe & Strauss, 2000). This strong achievement orientation is generally true for millennials and especially for those with higher socioeconomic status (Myers & Sadaghiani, 2010; Pew Research Center, 2007). Not surprisingly, these and the many other associated traits of millennials interact with the diversity and create unique struggles and challenges.

The Leadership and Organizational Change course, by design, creates a learning laboratory that resembles the tasks, relationships, opportunities, and challenges that a new consulting organization may experience in the field. The course has many deliverables and requirements to advance the work of the organization and grow the individual and collective capacity to conduct analysis and consult to change processes. When asked, 65 percent of millennial students say that they learn the most outside of traditional, formal classrooms. They "believe that 'outside' involves the real, practical world, and including their peer groups. When considering their favorite courses, millennials identified classes that were, in their judgment, connected to the outside world (Stasio, 2013). Despite the very real dynamics, tasks, and consequences embedded in the course, millennial students have had a higher propensity to identify that course as different than "real life" or that of which they experience outside of the classroom.

When thinking about the practice of teaching leadership through an experiential design, there are two barriers to developing a cohesive "organization" in the course that stand out. The first involves the dual nature of millennials who seek individual identities and value, while also being highly team oriented. Millennials have been identified as 16 percent more narcissistic than the preceding generation, exhibiting higher levels of entitlement, defensiveness, attention seeking behaviors, and dominance in their interactions (Syzygy, 2016). Millennial students in higher education offer intellect and skill, and when in groups, incredible problem solving and critical thinking capacities. Their individualistic tendencies often conflict with the group projects and collective learning that a course like Leadership and Organizational change requires.

The second barrier involves the ways in which millennial students in this specific course are also challenged by their relationship with technology. While its value as a tool is unquestionable, the impact technology has on relationships can be a significant limitation. The millennial generation was largely "born with technology in the home and uses it daily" (Stasio, 2013, p. 35; Fralick, 2010). The actual and expected use of technology in learning is ubiquitous as it is unimaginable that texts would be available only in hard copy, that a PowerPoint Presentation or Prezi would not be used, and that there would be no online component of a course.

Description of the Practice

One particular course in our Department of Leadership Studies focuses on organizational leadership and change. The course is designed with the understanding that on some fundamental level, we shape and are shaped by organizations. The purpose in this course is to increase our understanding of the increasingly complex world of organizational life. Beginning with a process of exploring what change means within us, the course goes on to the study of classic theories of organizational change. The students are tasked with working to understand what brings meaningful, sustainable change to organizations and how different leadership models can be applied to this learning. In order to make this integration more "real," the class becomes its own consulting organization. This process will be informed and influenced by the curriculum that is presented in class and how the students choose to self-organize and exercise leadership. Figure 1 illustrates the ways students are expected to gain mastery in a nested or layered systemic model of analysis applied to an organization. Our goal in the course is to

examine the implications of organizational change from the intra-personal to the systems levels so as to prepare our students to lead in the world as it emerges.

The benefits and challenges students experience in the course are largely influenced by their orientation to the coursework as a result of their background and work experience. The course design attends to the need for active learning, feedback, and diverse talents that can contribute to the collective learning and leadership in the classroom (Arensdorf and Andenoro, 2009). The course offers a "Board of Directors" and consultants who support the consulting organization in its development. Students are tasked with exploring their own mental models, defensive routines, conflict styles, contributions to team development, and metaphors as a tool for deeper analysis, and understanding of various change models.

Individual
Mastery/
Development

Tradi6onal
Course Content

Facilita6on Teams

Theory
Organiza6onal
Change Project

Class-as-
Organiza6on
Project

Figure 1: Leadership and organizational change experiential course design.

Discussion of Outcomes/Results

As instructors, we have found the course to be incredibly dynamic, rigorous, and often highly unpredictable. As a group, the consulting organization consistently meets their deliverables that involve technology and excels in meeting smaller, more individualized deliverables. The class consistently strives in developing their required web presence for their consulting organization, such as developing a blog or website and using their social network to share the work of the organization. The consulting organization regularly succeeds in connecting with their client, gathering information to conduct an organizational analysis with, and enjoys displaying and celebrating their work and progress at the end of each semester.

Individually, students in Leadership and Organizational Change are highly concerned with their grades and continuously seek validation. There is an ever-present desire to know if they are "doing it right," particularly when the class as a consulting organization is experiencing conflict or encountering new opportunities with their client. Many of the traits and behaviors identified for millennial students are manifested in the classroom when the consulting organization is reaching a deadline and there is an increase in anxiety, pressure, and a potentially negative

consequence. What millennial students identify as being important and critical for their organization in terms of leadership theory, organizational change models, and personal development, is often different from what is actually completed and provided to the client as a deliverable.

The dissonance between what the students and class as a consulting organization say are important and what they take action on in service of their client, illuminates the difficulty millennial students may be having with the self-awareness and reflective work an experiential course involves. The absence of instant feedback, information, validation, and emphasis on collective leadership conflicts with the preferences and expectations of the millennial generation. The experiential learning opportunity presented in Leadership and Organizational Change both challenges and excites millennial students, as they explore the theoretical and practical components of leadership studies.

Reflections of Practitioner

Of the privileges which we as instructors enjoy, the first is that we are products of the school where we facilitate the course as a doctoral student and graduate. We are also both of the millennial generation based on birth year, and thus are culturally different from the generations of faculty to who created the department and course. Through observations of and communication with students, we are finding that students are having a very difficult time trusting the method and allowing for it emerge. We have also observed students having an increasingly difficult time focusing on one task for any meaningful length of time. Just as they will bounce in one short moment from their laptop to the projector screen to their mobile phone, they bounce from what was just offered by one student to another student without deeply listening to the dialogue before seeking guidance from the instructor. Instead of taking the time and space to reflect, they tend to quickly, move on, deflect, or blame, and accuse fault toward another. The proposed causes of these shortening attention spans vary but the impact on the students, the course, and their learning is significant (Barnes, Marateo, & Ferris, 2007). There also appears to be significant competition rather than collaboration, and a desire for individualization with great fear of isolation. The complexity of the learning styles and skills of each individual student contributes to, and is representative of the complexity in the class and organizations in our communities.

A second phenomenon commonly observed is that students can often become offended or become upset when directions, observations, or questions from their colleagues and instructors contend with strongly held facets of identity. These aspects of identity included both those that are well established and known to others and also as unseen-to-others titles, roles, experience, and or skills. Further, these student responses were not limited to perceived threats of other students but also toward us instructors. We wonder how these menaces to identity and the reaction they elicit may be tied to other disruptions occurring in the course. There appears to be a feedback loop of anxiety between the students' various individual identities and the structure of the course that offers new ways of understanding their identities. This inability, both for individuals and for the organization as a whole, to work within a certain level of anxiety leads to individuals being frustrated and perceiving any small vulnerability within the organization as a significant issue.

Simultaneously, we are finding that the department as a whole struggles to respond to students in a way that invites a learning opportunity through their frustrations. Students throughout the program want to weigh in on course designs, changes, and the ways in which their learning is evaluated. The balance between providing an optimal level of frustration and instantly providing the students the validation they seek is incredibly challenging. We sit at this nexus of understanding the millennial generation, appreciating the learning pedagogy, and understanding that there is a great struggle being waged. Just as is practiced in the classroom, we intend to seek greater understanding from these experiences and spaces of uncertainty.

Recommendations

As instructors and practitioners in the field of Leadership Studies, we have identified three primary recommendations for implementing a course like Leadership and Organizational Change with an experiential design. Our recommendations include focusing on the gap between the students' espoused theories and theories in use, teaching with a style that reflects the functions of a coach, and deconstructing the mental models students have around the models of teaching and learning in higher education.

The importance of working early on in a course with what students identify as their espoused theories in relationship or contradiction of their theories in use is significant for an experiential course. The values, practices and principles students say are important to them when exercising leadership, are not always those that they act upon when working in groups (Senge, 2006). For example, millennial students say they are very concerned with the environment; however, they are 12 percent less involved in actively participating in environmental cleanup programs than their parent's generation (Healy, 2012). Providing time for students to reflect upon, share with their colleagues and intentionally focus on when creating an organization greatly impact the ways in which the consulting organization serves its clients.

We also recommend that teaching in an experiential course that is creating a consulting organization attend to the practices of leadership coaching, in using questions, guiding practices, and reflecting back to the students the patterns and habits they are demonstrating. In doing so, the mental models (or images, ideas, and mindsets) millennial students have around course designs in higher education become available to address and expand in the course of a semester (Senge, 2006). By identify the gaps in knowledge and experience as learning opportunities rather than deficiencies, we have found that students are more willing to consider their mental models as tools to share before they become a source of conflict and disconnect within the consulting organization and the course in general. Although these are not novel practices in leadership studies, they are a combination of practices that are unique to experiential learning and exploring organizational leadership.

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The Master Educator Course: An Accelerated, Collaborative Living-Learning Community Experience

Abstract

Although the Servicemen's Readjustment Act of 1944 provides educational benefits to service members, they have not always been able to take advantage of them while on active duty (G.I. Bill, 2018). This has caused tension between operational requirements and service member educational goals. The U.S. Army Cadet Command created the Master Educator Course as a way to take advantage of these benefits. University offers 15 credit hours as part of the MEC, two of which are leadership courses, and coupled with academic credit from each service member's Joint Service Transcript, this leads to not only 15 college credit hours but also a Certificate in Organizational Leadership. The accelerated course format utilized for the MEC, the first phase of which occurs in a living-learning community, is beneficial to the non-traditional learners who are invited to take part.

Introduction

Overview

Our University has begun a unique program to provide instructor training in organizational leadership for the U.S. Army Cadet Command, the Army organization responsible for approximately 270 ROTC programs across the United States and its territories. In January 2018, 48 non-commissioned officers who have 15 to over 20 years of active duty military service and are presently ROTC instructors, attended an intensive, five-week course conducted at Fort Knox, Kentucky. This course, titled Master Educator Course (MEC), focused on best teaching practices for ROTC instructors with the overall learning outcome to improve the pedagogy of the leadership-focused ROTC curriculum. Upon completion of the MEC, students earned 15 undergraduate credits and a Certificate in Organizational Leadership.

The course consisted of two phases. The first was a residential phase conducted at Fort Knox where students completed 9 college credits: 3 in Organizational Leadership and 6 in Instructional Design (taught by the University's School of Teacher Education). Students also completed a second phase online, conducted during the 2018 spring semester that included an Organizational Leadership and Instructional Design practicum. Each of the first phase courses was taught over a six-day period where students attended classes from 8:00 a.m. until 3:00 p.m. each day with extensive individual and group assignments completed outside the classroom. The intensity of the course and rapid achievement of learning outcomes provided insights to improve traditional, semester or accelerated courses and provided insights for teaching leadership-focused courses in higher education. The MEC also provided insights to meeting the higher education needs of our service members in the armed forces.

Historic Background to Higher Education and the Army

Service members have been provided educational benefits since World War II, initially provided by the Servicemen's Readjustment Act of 1944, signed into law by Franklin D. Roosevelt (G.I. Bill, 2018). Although these benefits have been available, service members have not always been able to utilize them while on active duty due primarily to the

mission requirements and operational tempo of the units to which they are assigned. The armed services have always focused on their Soldiers, Airman, Sailors, and Marines, but the mission was always first, always creating tension between operational requirements and service members' educational goals.

The armed forces are also victims of their own desires and a mentality to focus inward and not always paying heed to subtle or even direct intervention, unless forces greater than the service (in this case, the U.S. Government) intervene. An example of this is the 1983 invasion of the Caribbean Island of Grenada. Due to the lack of cooperation and coordination between services (Army, Navy, Air Force, and Marines), military operations were hampered severely to the point that the services could not even communicate effectively due to different equipment and procedures, and they had to use tourist maps to navigate (Roman & Tarr, 1998). The result of the ineptitude of the services to work together was the Goldwater-Nichols Act of 1986 (Roman & Tarr, 1998). The Act required the services to work together to ensure the success of future military operations.

Higher Education and the Armed Services Today

Similarly, in regard to higher education, the military has received pressure from the federal government to partner with higher education and find ways for service members to earn academic credentials while leveraging their military training. The federal government spends billions of dollars every year to professionally develop service members, and political leaders want to ensure service members have credentials when they leave service. Although not codified, the unofficial pressure by the federal government is nonetheless real, and services are responding by reaching out to higher education for assistance.

In aid of awarding academic credit for courses and programs completed while in service, the American Council on Education (ACE) evaluates the training that service members complete and then recommends credit. The recommendation is captured on a service member's Joint Service Transcript. The MEC is a result of this new and recent emphasis by the federal government towards the services in regards to service members earning academic credentials.

The Organizational Leadership Program at our University is utilizing the ACE recommendations to leverage a service member's training to facilitate awarding academic credentials.

Review of Related Scholarship

As the landscape of college campuses shifts from the traditional approach, so does our need to change our pedagogy for working with non-traditional students. At our University in the fall of 2016, 14% of the undergraduate population were non-traditional students (**U Factbook, 2017, p. 29). Through various centers for teaching and learning at accredited institutions, high impact practices are being implemented for non-traditional students, who have unique experiences and backgrounds that enrich their educational learning while also creating some barriers as well. Being mature learners, they still have anxiety and strong emotions concerning their educational endeavors. In Dodd's (2016) chapter, she discussed how the severity of anxiety in adult learners contributed to lower success rates and retention. As universities across the nation are working diligently to improve retention rates across their campuses, reducing anxiety appears to be a critical step for all students, including non-traditional. Dodd continued to discuss techniques to structure teaching by incorporating lived experiences and encouraging group activities, both of which the MEC curriculum includes,

which can improve the negativity and self-efficacy in adult learners and create opportunities for success. Shushok and Sriram (2009) reminded readers of the importance of peer interaction with class topics away from class as well as faculty-student interaction outside of the classroom, both of which are known to be beneficial to student retention. While most studies on living-learning communities (LLC) focus on traditional-aged undergraduate populations, there is no reason to believe the same would not be true for non-traditional students. LLCs provide the peer and faculty-student interaction needed, and many studies have shown their benefits. Shushok and Sririam found that LLC students were 7.1 times more likely to engage with a faculty member outside of class, both informally and socially, and more than 4.1 times more likely to be in touch with instructors outside of class on an academic matter. LLC students were 2.5 times more likely to convene to study or work together outside of class, as well (Shushok & Sririam). Overall, LLC students were 14 times more satisfied with their overall learning-living experiences than non-LLC students (Shushok & Sririam). The MEC provided a LLC environment to its participants, and this could help to explain the in-class interactions and overall outcomes that the instructors witnessed.

It is also important to keep in mind that the MEC is an accelerated format program, especially the first phrase that includes three in-person courses, each consisting of six 7-hour meetings, and this was a good fit for these non-traditional cohorts in a living-learning community. In Hall, Wilson, and Sanger's (2012) study of introductory chemistry courses, they found that regardless of academic experience, gender, or life experience, students performed better in an intensive course format than in a traditional 15-week term. In fact, there were more A, B, and C grades and no failing grades as compared to a traditional course. Their findings corroborated those of prior studies in other academic areas, as well.

Singh and Martin (2004) investigated student attitudes toward accelerate course formats and found those that students who worked preferred them, while full-time students did not.

Singh and Martin also discovered that students who paid for school themselves were not in favor of the accelerated format; Singh and Martin assumed this to be related to how close together their tuition payments would be for intensive courses. Their findings overall suggested that admission to such programs should be limited to those who view the format favorably: working students whose employers cover the cost of the classes. This suggests that the format of the MEC works well for service members.

Last, the MEC's format as implemented by the University relied heavily upon a collaborative learning and team-based model. Favor and Kulp (2015) found the majority of students in on-campus, accelerated programs reported that working with a team of 2-5 other learners was beneficial to their learning. Students earning a bachelor's degree reported that they preferred the collaborative learning format (41%) and felt that working in a team had a positive impact on their learning (52%). Those numbers were still favorable for graduate students, with ratings of 46% and 52%, respectively. In accordance with Favor and Kulp's findings, the 4- person teams implemented by the University for the MEC worked well.

Description of the Practice

During the first phase of the MEC, students enroll in three in-person courses: LEAD 300: Leadership Theory and Application, ID 460: College Teaching and Learning, and ID 465: Instructional Strategies and Technology Integration. The second phase consists of two online practicum courses, one in leadership, the other in instructional design. This discussion of

practice focuses on the LEAD 300 course and our pedagogical insights. To prepare for this accelerated course, curriculum had to be modified to fit into six intense days while providing the correct amount of activities and assessments, balanced so as to not overload students and accomplish the course's learning outcomes. The students' backgrounds also were a primary consideration as they had varying familiarity with higher education, ranging from having taken no courses to almost completing a bachelor's degree. Also factoring into the curriculum development was the students' leadership knowledge, as all had extensive practical leadership experience and some formal education via the Army's professional development and courses. All students had an extreme sense of duty and would accomplish all required course work as per the work ethic instilled in them by the Army. All these factors created unique pedagogical challenges and opportunities.

Discussion of Outcomes/Results

The Master Educator Course (MEC) program implemented the following objectives:

LEAD 300: Introduction to Leadership Theory and Practice

- ***describe, comprehend at deeper levels, and apply*** basic leadership theories and concepts to develop leaders of character for USAA ROTC;
- ***analyze and compare*** behaviors of effective leaders to increase self-awareness;
- ***describe and apply*** leadership theories and models through in-class exercises;
- ***understand, compare, and contrast*** tools available for measuring and improving leadership effectiveness;
- ***recognize*** differences between leadership behaviors across time periods and cultural dimensions;
- ***utilize*** the knowledge and experiences gained from this course to continue developing their understanding of a typical college campus, its stakeholders, and key influencers;
- ***apply*** gained leadership knowledge to various contexts and situations.

LEAD 400: Leadership Capstone/Practicum

- ***analyze and compare*** various leadership constructs then select one construct to develop
- ***gain an understanding*** of strategies to develop personal leadership constructs
- ***understand, compare, and contrast*** tools available for developing a strategy to gain an entry-level leadership role within an organization
- ***utilize*** the knowledge and experiences gained from this course to continue developing their leadership competencies

Two additional leadership courses from the Joint Services Transcript (JST) will be used to complete the certificate track for the soldiers.

Program Assessment

Dr. Silvie Huang from the Univeristy conducted three focus groups with the students of the MEC: one at the beginning, one in the middle, and one at the conclusion. These focus groups reviewed the expectations, allowed for questions, and discussed future improvements in the program and courses. Dr. Huang analyzed the data from the focus groups via standard

qualitative analysis procedures and compared it with course evaluations completed by the students and their grades. The number of students who completed the certificate and enrolled in bachelor degree programs is included in the assessment. Additionally, the University Joint Undergraduate Master's Program (JUMP) is an opportunity for those who have a 3.0 GPA and wish to take 12 hours of graduate courses during their undergraduate program, and students who participate in JUMP are also included in the assessment.

Reflections of the Practitioner

Working with the military creates unique opportunities and enhances the learning experience on both sides of the lectern. Through engaging with non-traditional students in an intensive course setting, the six-day course allowed the students to apply the theories of leadership via practical in-class exercises. While there was tension and anxiety on day one, this drastically decreased as we used their experiences as soldiers to teach the theories and practices within the curriculum. All three instructors agreed that the caliber of students was unlike any other they had interacted with in prior teaching experiences. The students were well prepared, focused, and willing to discuss any and all topics and engage in any activity assigned. One shared that unlike a traditional classroom, teaching this course, an undergraduate leadership foundations course, in the MEC was similar to leading a discussion with leadership experts who have experienced every aspect being taught, having experienced the aspect multiple times, and having experienced it in the most austere and challenging environments. While the students were not the best at written communication, with feedback on each assignment, they improved tremendously over the short six days of instruction. Group assignments worked well as all participated, and little social loafing occurred. In the two hours after class time concluded for the day and while the building remained open, many of the groups chose to stay and draft out ideas for the day's group assignments before going back to their housing to decompress and dine and then return later to polish the work together before submission. This is a true advantage of the residential, living-learning community-style environment the Army provided for the MEC program.

Additionally, students were not afraid to voice concerns—with the curriculum content, the instructors, or each other—in a respectful way. Discussions with these students was always hearing the unvarnished truth. A challenge each instructor encountered was trying to limit the discussions but not stifle them so that the day's objectives could be accomplished rather than teasing conversations out of the students, which is more the norm for the same classes when offered in a traditional environment.

The intense in-person course setting coupled with the online practicum created an opportunity for both modalities to be implemented seamlessly for our soldiers. The organization of the MEC created an opportunity to improve and enhance one instructor's teaching experience of LEAD 300 in particular, and she has implemented the lessons learned through teaching the MEC in her offering of the traditional face-to-face courses on campus.

Recommendations

While the students achieved all outcomes in the initial offering of MEC, all three instructors felt that more time, at least another day, is needed to achieve learning outcomes properly. The students made good suggestions of how to improve the closed assessments, some of the case studies, and other writing assignments, and the instructors realized the post-class discussion boards were redundant since all of the topics planned for those were covered in the lively in-class conversations. They will be replaced with reflection journals for each

day. Guest speakers would complement the curriculum, particularly those in leadership positions at Fort Knox and at the University, and we hope to offer that as part of the next MEC offering. Last, we offered a series of Lunch and Learn events, but these were not well-received as the information conveyed sometimes conflicted with what the instructors had shared in class. Ideally, these would be done in the classrooms and not *en masse*.

We feel, too, that the living-learning community arrangement and collaborative learning techniques of this accelerated program contributed to the success of it. Students sat in class in teams of their choosing, most of which were formed based on living arrangements—many roommates paired up and then paired with those next-door or across the hall from them to make collaboration easier in the evenings. This unique ability for these cohorts of non-traditional students to easily be in contact with those they needed to work with was a key to their success.

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Teaching Leadership in a Management Course: Using Q Methodology to Engage Students in Theory Building

Abstract

Teaching leadership within the parameters of a management course can be a daunting task. It is imperative for students to have an understanding of the perceived differences in leadership and management, but such instruction requires a delicate balance between teaching theory and illustrating practical applications. This article shares how the often under-utilized Q methodology has been used to create a leadership teaching exercise that encourages participants to construct their own sense of leadership theory using the insights of established theories but unrestricted by just one framework.

Introduction

Teaching leadership within the parameters of a management course can be a daunting task. It is imperative for students to have an understanding of the perceived differences in leadership and management, but even this introductory work requires a delicate balance between theoretical and practical applications of a variety of definitions. As Toor and Ofori stated: "Although many scholars have attempted to provide a distinction; there is a common confusion that leadership is similar to management and leaders are similar to managers" (2008). For the purposes of our work, we embrace the notion that leadership is different from management and that it springs from a robust body of theories that can be used, as Sinclair (2007) put it, "to model and experiment with leadership as emergent and socially constituted in the classroom."

It is no secret that sharing leadership theories presents challenges given the literally millions of publications that propose to share guiding principles, best practices, intervention techniques and other insights that are designed to make the aspiring and emerging leader better at the tasks of leadership. Within the parameters of a management course, it is also necessary to present the leadership material in ways that do not subsume the entire course.

In this article we share how the often under-utilized Q methodology has been used to create a leadership teaching exercise that actually encourages participants to construct their own sense of leadership theory using the insights of established theories but unrestricted by just one framework that they might choose to adopt or the instructor might favor. The exercise produces outcomes from these personal deliberations that are facilitated through the subjective focus of Q methodology, which allows the outliers, innovators and resistors to have a voice.

This is in contrast to the conversations that normally arise from consensus-building conversations and means-focused regression analyses. Q methodology offers a powerful alternative to surveys and traditional statistical analyses of participants' perspectives which typically generate conversations on the consensus of a specific leadership theory and not on the uniqueness of subjective thought. Q methodology allows participants' voices to emerge and coalesce across the wide-ranging net of leadership theories.

Review of Related Scholarship

In our work with aspiring leaders, especially students and emerging community leaders, we are confronted with the task of sifting through the widely diverse thoughts presented in the literature regarding leadership theories and attempting to select the most current, the most relevant, the most useful theories of leadership that will help our aspiring leaders move beyond simple classifications (e.g., Great Man Theory, Trait Theory, Behavioral Theories, Role Theory, Participative Leadership, Lewin's leadership styles, Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership, Contingency Theories, Transactional Leadership and Transformational Leadership) [See for examples: Dumdum, Lowe, & Avolio, 2013; Goethals, Sorenson, & Burns, 2004].

Each of these broad classifications require considerable time to demystify and provide guidance on how these various theories apply to one's personal leadership journey. Fortunately, our primary task in this manuscript is not to summarize the vast amount of important literature that focuses on leadership. In this innovative practice paper, we have the more modest goal of sharing how the use of the much underutilized aspects of Q methodology (Watts & Stenner, 2012) allow students in a management course to be engaged personally and subjectively in theory building. Q methodology is a mixed methods approach to studying subjective perspectives that combines statistical rigor with emergent qualitative insight. Although it has been around since its founder first published the approach in 1935 (Stephenson), it has not been widely adopted like traditional quantitative and qualitative approaches, resting, as it were, in a mixed methods space before mixed methods were recognized as valid (Ramlo, 2011). Nevertheless, researchers have used this approach in studies related to public policy, marketing, psychology, political science, education, and other fields interested in uncovering the perspectives of participants to inform decision-making or theory-building (Watts & Stenner, 2012). Additionally, the use of Q methodology in the classroom as an instructional tool is growing with the development of real-time analysis tools to support classroom engagement with the statistical outcomes (Walker & Lin, 2017).

Meta analyses tend to seek convergence of findings. Alternatively, Q method analyses allow the individual voices of the participant to emerge rather than to be sorted in a researcher-defined framework. Stead (2014) commented that all leadership is a sociocultural construct that reflects the people who make it. The unusual aspects of the approach presented here is that the sociocultural makeup of the room is immediately reflected in the uniqueness of each individual Q sort. Walker and Aritiz (2015) suggested that gender affects how leadership is seen and enacted by people working. In the approach presented here, gender and other idiosyncratic variables need not be isolated as modifiers but are automatically embedded in how each participant presents her (his) statements of leadership theory.

In order to prepare the subject matter material needed for participants to engage in Q methodology, we reviewed the literature with a specific focus on carving out key learning outcomes that would be most useful to students. These aspiring leaders are the primary target of the authors' leadership work in the classroom and communities. In Q methodology it is important to identify a study's concourse, or the universe of communication around a given subjective topic (Watts & Stenner, 2012). The concourse represents the conversational possibilities around a topic, or the population of things that could be said about a given topic

or issue. This development of statements that make up the concourse is in fact the literature search that must be done for the Q methodology. Markus (2001) also helped inform our search with his observation that practitioner based leadership programs, the typical focus of survey classes, are most successful when participants co-create their own conceptualization of leadership. Subject matter experts are relied upon to provide the necessary scholarly material that gently guides and facilitates the personal discovery of key principles that make sense to the participant's own leadership journey.

Because of our direct interest in finding theoretical statements that represent what we expect leaders to do, we used "leadership competencies" along with "leadership theories" to help guide the literature review. The former search term produced over 165 scales and inventories that propose to measure desirable competencies of leaders. We define competencies as an underlying characteristic of an individual that is causally related to effective or superior performance in a job (Boyatzis, 1982). Using competency as a defining need, it is the researcher's task to set limits on how broad the selection of statements that make up the concourse ought to be to include questions around competencies thought to be most likely useful to successful leaders. As part of the limit setting process, the authors also relied heavily on their over three decades of teaching experiences to map out the major theoretical frameworks that are most frequently used in our ongoing teaching practice of helping aspiring leaders understand the attributes of successful leadership.

Description of the Practice

Q methodology involves participants operationalizing their subjective view point of a topic by sorting (Q sort) stimulus items. Each person's final Q sort is then correlated with every other person's Q sort and factor analyzed to generate statistically significant perspective groups. Traditionally in Q methodology researchers interpret the perspective groups, but in our flipped-classroom pedagogical application, we use one classroom setting to invite students into the analysis of their own viewpoints to generate rich discussion that leads to their own individual and collective in-depth analysis of leadership theory.

Leadership is the subject matter focus of this intervention, but our keen interest is demonstrating how a relatively innovative use of a unique methodology, is remarkably effective in stimulating rich and personal discussion that lead to a personal creation of 'leadership theory' that is both grounded in the literature and reflects the personal insights into the subject matter by the participants. In using Q methodology in a flipped classroom model, participants in a survey lecture or workshop on leadership explore and articulate more clearly what leadership means to them personally. The innovation here is that students are **not** given a prescribed theory with its inevitable consensus behavior patterns derived from the summaries of numerous Likert-like scales responses. Instead, they are invited into a deeper reflection and expression of their own subjective understanding of their own concept of leadership.

This exercise has been used in hundreds of classes and leadership workshops, but to illustrate more explicitly how it can work, we explain how it was deployed in a single upper-level management course at a state university during the fall 2017 semester. Students were provided a link to log in to the exercise and given approximately one week to complete the

sorting task. However, the students were charged with completing the sorting exercise in one sitting rather than saving their work and returning to it later. The entire sorting process takes less than a half hour. Once logged in, the students were taken to an exercise home page that presented 36 statements as "cards." The students were instructed to quickly read each of the cards and to consider each statement not as what they are or what others might think of them, but based on what they aspired to be. Following time for such consideration, the students then dragged and dropped each card into a box labeled "disagree," "neutral," or "agree." Once the students had rated all 36 cards initially, they were taken to a larger grid where they sorted the statements in a grid continuum from "most disagree" to "most agree," with one card in each of 36 spaces on the forced distribution grid. The grid only allowed for three statements to be sorted as most disagreed and for only three statements to be sorted as most agreed. See Appendix A for a complete list of the 36 statements included in the sorting assignment. See Appendix B for a visual depiction of the sorting process.

Once the sorting of the statements was completed, the students were directed to a summary screen that showed each of the three statements most agreed with and each of the three statements most disagreed with. The students then wrote a brief (a couple of sentences) explanation of why they agreed or disagreed with a statement. To more fully document the basis for each of the leadership statements, Appendix C provides a macro overview of the leadership competencies framework. The concourse of leadership statements needed to explore leadership theory building and take advantage of the Q methodology should include representative statements from each analytical frame.

The Analytical Competencies described in the first column of Appendix C would be developed as statements with which the aspiring leader could agree or disagree without the benefit of theoretical labels that might curtail embracing by the participant because of the constraints of the theoretical frame. The Q concourse or collection of theory based statements without reference to a given theory allows and encourages the participants to embrace a statement as part of his or her personal view of what skills are needed to be a successful leader. Participants may freely embrace statements based upon the tenets of all three columns and begin to rationalize what is really important to his or her leadership success in terms of competencies.

The authors first developed statements, often taken directly from leadership theories that fit into the analytical frameworks as described in Appendix C. For example, these frameworks include the transformational theory of Posner and Kouzes (2007) or Adaptive theory from Heifetz (2009) and his colleagues or the transitional theory espoused by Joseph (2015). Subject matter experts were then surveyed to help confirm that the concourse of statements actually represented established principles in the major competing leadership theories of today (without the benefit of theory labels). The comments of the subject matter experts were strong advisories as to the adequacy of the concourse, consistent with the framework. Thus, participants had the benefits of both the literature and practicing subject matter experts that provided the guard rails within which each participant could begin to personally select his/her personal sense of what competencies are needed for effective leadership that resonates personally with him/her. Our beliefs is that this approach offers leadership development from the inside out, encouraging

individuals to become more fully conscious of their own approach to leadership and that is consistent with that internal sense of self and their personal values.

While individuals may choose to engage as leaders (or followers – which in community is co-leadership) in a variety of settings, each act of leadership requires an individual effort to move beyond the narrow confines of self into a larger, more public, commitment to a future whose character is more or less uncertain. Individuals experience progressive stages of development that fosters the energy and confidence to move across the columns of Appendix C and engage in deeper and more complex acts of leadership.

Discussion of Outcomes/Results

Sorting the statements as a class exercise provided results that demonstrated where the students had common ground and where there were differences. In aggregate, the class ranked the following statements as the ones most agreed with:

- Leaders get diverse groups to work together toward a common goal.
- Leaders treat everyone with respect.
- Leaders learn from their mistakes.

In aggregate, the class ranked the following statements as the ones most disagreed with:

- Leaders prefer autonomy.
- Leaders are born with certain leadership traits.
- Leaders determine what a community needs/wants.

Moreover, the results profoundly demonstrated for the students how different perspectives co-existed within their class of 35 students. Overall, seven statistically distinct perspective groups emerged from the sorting process each representing a different perspective on an approach to leadership. Two groups emerged by strongly agreeing that leaders learn from their mistakes, and strongly disagreeing that leaders are born with certain leadership traits with these distinct differences. However, one of these groups focused on the importance of diversity and respect and disagreed that leaders take risks or find ways around obstacles. Interestingly, the other group put respect in the "neutral" zone.

Two more groups emerged from the sorting process by strongly agreeing that leaders should encourage and influence others instead of commanding them to act and should treat everyone with respect. These two groups strongly disagree that leaders are driven by success or are born with certain leadership traits, but even these groups have these distinct differences: one group (the largest) emphasized teamwork and collaboration. They were not comfortable with ambiguity and confusion, and were not risk takers or driven by success. The other group in this category emphasized diversity and ethics, but they do not use that belief to model the way others should act.

Two additional groups strongly agreed that leaders should model the way others should act, but they had the opposite opinion on how leaders should act to make the world a better place. One of these groups felt leaders should sacrifice self-interest for the greater good, stimulate renewal in mind, body and spirit, and create social transformation for a better world. The other

group put all of those statements in the negative column, and instead was the only group that agreed strongly that leaders are born with certain leadership traits. Finally, the last group was the only one that represented a perspective that was comfortable with ambiguity and confusion. They want to act to make the world a better place and they see change as a source of vitality and opportunity. But, interestingly, they did not challenge the way things have been done. The sorting exercise clearly illustrated for the students the complexities of leadership theory and how leadership perspectives can vary widely even within a relatively small group where many of its participants would have considered themselves to be homogenous thinkers prior to the exercise.

Reflections of the Practitioners

The methodological interest in an alternate to the R scale is to allow participants in a survey workshop or class on leadership to experience eureka moments as they engage in a self-developed sense of leadership theory that features their personal perception of what leadership means to them. Our experiences with this methodology suggest it encourages much more than the memorization of the various theories of note, as useful as that may be in some circumstances.

The approach suggested here allows participants to co-create their own principles of leadership by selecting statements that describe leadership behaviors that subjectively represent their own view of leadership. The rich discussion that follows this intimate involvement in subjective theory development is the outcome that sets the Q methodology innovation apart from the traditional emphasis on rote learning and parroting back the work of other theoreticians. The Q sort and online tool for reflection allows participants to bring their perspectives to the forefront, allows them to reflect on theory without being overwhelmed by it. The discussion that ensues encourages discussions on why each statement was selected and eventually what constitutes a subjective view of leadership competencies perceived to be needed for success. This dynamic construction of a personal perception of important leadership competencies is the reward for using the Q methodology model in the leadership context.

Recommendations

Use of Q methodology and its attending outcomes and participant centered norms, steers around mere theory sharing but is by no means research free. Faculty or designated instructors/facilitators have the responsibility to do the ground work research that identifies the statements and principles embedded in the major theories of interest. From this foundational work, participants can then select their own collection of theoretical statements that represent their preferred view of leadership behavior and thus, co-create their own leadership theory-in-practice.

We are focused on leadership theories here, but the process can be adapted to any field of interest. Meta analyses tend to seek convergence of findings. Q methodology analyses tend to allow the individual voice of the participant to emerge because they ascribe meaning to each stimulus item, not the researcher. The prerequisite and unavoidable research to identify the leading theories in the field of interest provide the guardrails that contain the parameters from

which the participants will make their subjective selection of theoretical statements (independent of a theoretical label) that resonate with how they perceive leadership.

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Appendix A

A list of the 36 statements sorted in the exercise example:

1. Leaders get diverse groups to work together toward a common goal.
2. Leaders are born with certain leadership traits.
3. Leaders have a powerful effect on followers.
4. Leaders determine what a community needs/wants.
5. Leaders decide what is most important and what can wait for action.
6. Leaders challenge the way things have been done.
7. Leaders learn from their mistakes.
8. Leaders inspire a shared vision.
9. Leaders enable others to act.
10. Leaders model the way others should act.
11. Leaders encourage others through praise and recognition.
12. Leaders create social transformation for a better community.
13. Leaders act to make the world a better place.
14. Leaders are comfortable with ambiguity and confusion.
15. Leaders encourage & influence others rather than commanding them to act.
16. Leaders are calm in the face of adversity and criticism.
17. Leaders treat everyone with respect.
18. Leaders stimulate renewal in mind, body and spirit.
19. Leaders are ethical.
20. Leaders are courageous.
21. Leaders see the big picture.
22. Leaders stand up for what is right.
23. Leaders foster teamwork, cooperation, and collaboration.
24. Leaders see change as a source of vitality and opportunity.
25. Leaders have a strong sense of what is going on around them.
26. Leaders seek consensus.
27. Leaders enjoy the success of their team over their own success.
28. Leaders are open about their limitations and weaknesses.
29. Leaders take risks.
30. Leaders sacrifice self-interest for the greater good.
31. Leaders strive to understand and empathize with others.
32. Leaders are driven by success.
33. Leaders see the future.
34. Leaders are innovative.
35. Leaders prefer autonomy.
36. Leaders find ways to get around obstacles.

Appendix B

Step 1: Students sort (by dragging and dropping) each of the 36 leadership statement cards into one of three piles: disagree, neutral, and agree.

Step 2: Students choices for each pile of disagree, neutral, and agree appear at the bottom of the screen. Students sort each card onto a 36-space grid offering a continuum from most disagree (- 4_ to most agree (+4).

Step 3: Once all cards are sorted onto the grid, they have a completed grid and click the "I'm Done!" button.

Step 4: Students are shown their top three most agree choices and their top three most disagree choices, and asked to explain why they made each choice. This generates a pdf worksheet for students to save and bring to class for discussion and debriefing.

Appendix C*: Framework for Flow of Leadership Competencies*		
Analytical Competencies	**Transformational Competencies**	**Transitional Competencies**
In his/her roles, the Leader's skills are focused on: (a) analyzing, understanding and performing needs assessment at individual and group level; (b) careful observations in determining what a community needs and/or/wants; (c) evaluating which items for his/her community of interest are the most important and which items can wait for action. **In his/her roles, the Leader's skills are focused on:** (a) being effective in getting groups from different segments of the community to work together; (b) being a skilled communicator who can effectively discuss his/he analyses with team members with different efficacies and use multi modes to communicate to different segments of the community **In his/her roles, the Leader's skills are focused on being** (a) an	**In his/her roles, the Leader's skills are focused on**: (a) being receptive to and leading change; (b) supporting and leading innovations; (c) accepting and managing risks; (d) learning from mistakes; (a) understanding how culture impacts behavior; (b) stimulating conversations on values that might be shared by all in his/her group or community. **In his/her roles, the Leader's skills are focused on:** (a) developing a shared vision that is uplifting and appealing to the shared values of the followers; (b) role	**In his/her roles, the Leader's skills are focused on**: (a) creating social transformation for a better community; (b) stimulating renewal of mind, body, and spirit; (c) continuously exhibiting a values based approach to all decision making; (d) constantly demonstrating courage and self-re-creation; (e) emphasizing a 'flat table' philosophy over hierarchy. **In his/her roles, the Leader's skills are focused on:** (a) being and demonstrating comfort with ambiguity and confusion; (a) modeling respect for all; (b) supporting positive change; (d) sharing leadership based upon skills and access and not titles;

effective **p**roblem solver; (b) being transactional in getting followers and others to agree on what is to be done; (c) effective at overseeing programs designed to meet community needs. **In his/her roles, the Leader's skills are focused on being:** **(a)** relationally proficient and able to identify sources of personal and positional power in others and explains how that power can create change; (b) able to explain the utility of social and political capital and	modeling that builds a relationship between the leader and the followers; (c) recognizing and applauding team and individual accomplishments that support the shared vision and shared values; (d) providing encouragement and support for actions that advance the shared vision. See Posner and Kouzes, the LPI instrument: also see: Hunt, J. (1999). *Transformational/charis*	(e) using soft power over hard power. **In his/her roles, the Leader's skills are focused on**: (a) being effective at influencing behavior; (b) not demanding or commanding behavior from followers; (c) humble but insisting on accountability and results from his/her team; (d) demonstrating calmness in the face of adversity and criticism; and, (e) issuing a call to action but characterized by the counterintuitive… "Don't
successfully encourage use thereof; (c) skillful in getting diverse groups to work together toward a common goal. See Karnes, F. A., Chauvin, J.C. (1985). *Leadership Skills Inventory: Administration manual and manual of leadership activities.* DOK Publishers; Strand, G. (1981). *Community Leadership Competencies In the Northeast US: Implications for Training Public Health Educators*. American Journal of Public Health, 71, 4, 397-402.	*matic leadership's transformation of the field: An historical essay*. The Leadership Quarterly, 10, 2, 129-144; Banks, G., McCauley, K., Gardner, W, & Guler, C. (2016). Leadership Quarterly, 27, 4, 634-652; Heifetz, R. & Linsky, S. (2007). *Leadership on the line*. Harvard Press, Cambridge: MA Barnard Bass (1985) who were significant thought leaders for this framework approach.	just act…sit there!" See Joseph (2015); Alfonso Montuori, Transformative *Leadership for the 21st Century* in ReVison, Vol. 30, #3 and 4.

RESEARCH PAPERS

Matthew Sowcik, Assistant Professor; Austin Council, Graduate Assistant; Jenn Wert, Graduate Assistant, University of Florida

Developing 21st Century Leadership Skills in County Extension Directors: Exploring Design, Implementation and Evaluation of an Online Leadership Development Program

Matt Sowcik, Assistant Professor, University of Florida; Matt Benge, Assistant Professor, University of Florida; Jera Niewoehner-Green, Assistant Professor, Ohio State University

The Doctoral Candidacy Process: Assessment and Reforms

James R. Martin, Jr., Assistant Professor; Candace Bloomquist, Assistant Professor, Creighton University

Prevailing over qualitative-quantitative schisms

Dr. Karin Klenke, Chief Leadership Development Officer, Leadership Development Institute (LDI) International

Strengths Based Assessment: Predicting Student Success in an Online Graduate Leadership Program

Leah Georges, Assistant Professor, EdD Program in Interdisciplinary Leadership, Creighton University

Understanding Relationships between Race, Gender, and Postsecondary Student Leadership Development: A Critical Literature Review

Jasmine D. Collins, Assistant Professor, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign

Examining and Explaining the Relationship Between Generativity and Socially Responsible Leadership

Lindsay Hastings, Clifton Professor in Mentoring Research and Director, Nebraska Human Resources Institute, University of Nebraska; Hannah Sunderman, Graduate Assistant & Associate Director, Nebraska Human Resources Institute

Is it worth it? A case study exploring volunteer leaders' perceptions of leadership training

Carley C. Morrison, Visiting Assistant Professor;
Laura L. Greenhaw, Assistant Professor; Janiece Pigg, Undergraduate Student, Mississippi State University

Evidence-based Student Learning Outcomes from Curriculum Alignment of the Research Process and Complex Systems

Amber Manning-Ouellette, Lecturer of Leadership Studies; Katie Friesen, Graduate Assistant, Iowa State University

An Examination of Leadership Development and Other Experiential Activities on Student Resilience and Leadership Efficacy

Abstract

Leadership development programs have become widespread in higher education; over 1500 different programs had been registered with the International Leadership Association as of 2012 (Owen, 2012). Given the prevalence of these programs and the substantial institutional investments they require, examination of their purported impacts is a valid area of investigation. Using the used Multi-Institute Study of Leadership, the current study explored the impact of experiential development programming on two of the instrument's key outcome variables, resilience and self-efficacy. Results found a significant positive relationship between leadership development programs and self-efficacy, but not for resilience. Additional analyses found that other experiential activities (e.g., on-campus jobs, study abroad, etc.) had essentially the same (significant) impact on self-efficacy as did intentionally leadership development ones. Interpretations and implications are discussed.

Introduction

Experiential learning and related activities have become critical components of the student collegiate experience; in fact, they have become a core mission for many institutions of higher education to prepare their students to meet the demands of the more complex college environment and world beyond (Cantor, 1997). This influx of intentional experiential education initiatives warrants an investigation into their actual effectiveness in fulfilling the programs' intended objectives. The current study explores the impact of these experiential activities, with a particular emphasis on leadership-oriented development programs and how they compare to other experiences. More specifically, these experiential programs are compared in terms of each of their relative impacts on two key outcomes that are related to leadership success: self-efficacy and resilience. To the extent that this study others can more precisely assess the validity of experiential programming, the more informed institutions and researchers can be in terms of designing programs to prepare students to be effective leaders in the roles they hold and will assume in the future.

Background

Experiential Education & Undergraduate Leadership Development Experiences

Experiential education has become the heart of many institutions of higher education to help meet the demands of the more complex college environment and world that college students face (Cantor, 1997). A growing host of such experiences offered to college students that extend beyond the classroom range from community service, to study abroad programs, to undergraduate research, to internship and practicum experiences, and beyond. While these offerings are popular among students, administrators and educators must appropriately ask legitimate questions as to whether these programs are indeed creating meaningful learning opportunities and are not just hobbies or diversions from classroom learning.

In general, these experiences appear to have a wholly positive impact on students. Studying abroad and spending a significant amount of time being educated in a foreign country is a prime example of this. In a survey of over 6,000 college students, the most frequently chosen "most impactful experience" was their study abroad experience (Paige, Fry, Stallman, Josić, & Jon, 2009). Some of its positive relationships with individual and educational outcomes may include increased self-confidence, changed worldview, decreased stereotypes, general intellectual and cognitive knowledge development, and an overall desire to learn for the sake of learning (Stone & Petrick, 2013). Sroufe, Sivasubramaniam, Ramos, & Saiia (2015) conducted a separate study that supports an increase in leadership capabilities as a result of experiential learning through study abroad, specifically the development of socially responsible leadership. Students who study abroad also tend to refine globally competent leadership skills, gaining a greater sense of cross-cultural understanding and responsibility (Montgomery & Arensdorf, 2012). Internship experiences, or paraprofessional experiences in a field to help prepare for future professional work, have also been shown to provide students with a clearer self-concept and value set (Taylor, 1988). Service-learning opportunities, which connect content and time in the classroom with work in the community, allow for students to learn about and consider how their actions can directly help others while also serving as a learning experience for themselves, mirroring some of the important facets of socially responsible leadership (Furco, 1996). If a student learns about the issue of hunger in a classroom setting, they may understand theoretical concepts; however, when coupled with going into a food-insecure community and directly assisting those in need, concepts transform into tangible behavior, and thus can inspire the actions of a socially responsible leader. These collegiate experiences all provide substantial benefits for students, ranging from general social skills to directly leadership-related outcomes.

The primary focus of the present investigation, however, is formal leadership development programming. Concurrent with the creation of Multi-Institutional Survey of Leadership (MSL) has been the rise of formal student leadership programs; over 1500 different programs had been registered with the International Leadership Association as of 2012 (Owen, 2012). These leadership programs have been found to have a strong influence on students' socially responsible leadership abilities, especially when compared to students who have had no prior formal leadership training (Dugan & Komives, 2010). There is substantial research supporting the effectiveness of these leadership development programs for helping students discover their own leadership capacities and enhance their abilities, including collaboration, authenticity, giving and receiving feedback, along with several other critical leadership skills (Eich, 2008). In an intentionally structured program such as an outdoor leadership ropes course, students participate in hands-on activities with peers. Upon completion of activities, a robust debrief as well as feedback and deeper reflection of the purpose of the activities occurs. This type of engaging activity that is created with specific positive leadership outcomes in mind can be highly effective. The nature of the program and its components, as well as the specific institutional environment has a direct impact on the students' leadership development (Owen, 2012). Some of these variables include the different types of co-curricular leadership programs available such as outdoor leadership programs and emerging leader programs, the physical existence of a leadership center on campus, and a long-term institutional commitment to leadership both address the institutional context issue (Owen, 2012).

Self-Efficacy

Much of the foundational work on self-efficacy stems from Bandura's (1997) framework, in which he defined the construct as an individual's belief in their ability to reach achievement goals; these beliefs have a critical effect on attitudes, motivations, and behaviors (Bandura, 1997). If an individual is presented with a task that they have never seen before, they will be more likely to be willing to tackle it head-on if they believe that they can succeed in accomplishing it. Domain-specific self-efficacy simply refers to perceived efficacy in a more specific context, such as leadership (Gregerson, Hoper, & Nienhaus 2014). Much research supports the important role of generalized self-efficacy in several areas. If an individual does not ascribe to the belief that they will be able to reach the performance level that they determine to be successful, then motivation to continue with these actions when facing obstacles, or even to initially engage in these actions, is significantly lowered (Alessandri, Borgogni, Schaufeli, Caprara, & Consiglio, 2014). Self-doubt can be overcome with a higher self-efficacy, while also leading to a stronger use of known competencies (Bandura, 1986). Higher self-efficacious individuals tend to exhibit higher work engagement, greater work performance, and have better overall health outcomes and well-being (Alessandri et al., 2014; Gregerson, Hoper, & Nienhaus 2014). When a student believes that they will succeed in their classes, they tend to do much better and view their work in healthy way; contrastingly, the self-fulfilling prophecy of anticipated failure in a class often leads to increased stress and decreased performance.

In addition to these extensively studied positive outcomes of strong self-efficacy, negative outcomes associated with a lower self-efficacy have been identified. Individuals with low self-efficacy have a greater likelihood of developing depression, having lower job satisfaction, and experiencing burnout (Gregerson et al., 2014). Moreover, whereas individuals with greater self-efficacy may equate demands to challenges, individuals with lower self-efficacy equate tend to equate demands to threats because of their own uncertainty (Gregerson, et al., 2014). From motivation to performance, the positive outcomes of a higher generalized self-efficacy have robust support.

Leadership self-efficacy refers to one's internal confidence in their skills, knowledge, and abilities to successfully navigate the challenges of leadership (Hannah, Avolio, Luthans, & Harms, 2008). A myriad of positive associations have been found with leadership self-efficacy, including leader effectiveness, performance, creativity, ethical leadership, transformational leadership, and collective follower efficacy and performance (Cho, Harrist, Steele, & Murn, 2015). When a student is leading an organization, having confidence in their leadership abilities prevents them from depleting critical cognitive resources on self-doubt and hesitation. Instead, positive energies are channeled towards inspiring and empowering followers, pursuing innovative and challenging initiatives, and generally leading the organization forward with a sense of excitement and vigor. It has also been found that leadership self-efficacy plays a central role in mediating personality differences between leaders and followers, conflicts which can often derail performance and satisfaction if they are not overcome (Cho et al., 2015). In a demanding position, a leader who does not have high confidence in their leadership skills may not feel equipped to lead and inspire a follower who might be more challenging, especially if this follower has serious doubts about their own and the leader's abilities. Having high leadership efficacy can minimize the potential problems of such follower issues.

In another examination of leadership in a university context, Dugan and Komives (2010) found a positive, significant relationship between leadership self-efficacy and socially responsible leadership capacity. Another study showed the strong correlation between leadership self-efficacy and the inclination to even attempt to position oneself in a leadership role (McCormick, Tanguma, & Lopez-Forment, 2002). Leadership self-efficacy has a clear, essential impact on leadership capacity and other primary leadership behaviors. This is especially applicable to college students, who are going through a formative experience where strong confidence can allow for healthy risk-taking and exploration of different facets within the university setting. Without a belief that they can succeed, college students can very easily evade responsibilities with little accountability, and fail to benefit from significant opportunities for growth.

Resilience

Although there are several definitions of resilience, a generally accepted definition from Connor and Davidson (2003) refers to it as a set of characteristics that allow an individual to overcome threats of adversity, as well as a how successfully one deals and copes with stress. Another conceptual definition is an ability to recover from negative affect and experiences and to gain certain adaptability to varying circumstances (Hu, Zhang, & Wang, 2015). A positive correlation with positive mental health indicators, as well as a negative correlation with negative mental health indicators, is a marked characteristic of resilience (Hu et al., 2015). Studies have also indicated that resilience is a producer of positive emotions; likewise, short-term cognitive effects of positive emotions help generate long-term resilience (Cohn, Fredrickson, Brown, Mikels, & Conway, 2009). Clearly, resilience is a powerful skill for both defending against adversity and increasing well-being.

The role of resilience in effective leadership has also been investigated, with research suggesting that a positive relationship exists between the two variables (Maulding, Peters, Roberts, Leonard, & Sparkman, 2012). This relationship manifests itself in an effective leader's ability to adapt to dynamic human behavior and structures while negotiating difficult situations that almost certainly do not proceed in easily anticipated manners (Heifetz & Linsky, 2002). Within the context of an organization, survival and progress are contingent upon leadership being able to adapt when the initially laid-out map leading to the execution of a vision is at best, uncertain (Mumford, Zaccaro, Harding, Jacobs, & Fleishman, 2000). Moreover, as a leader, creating a resilient environment for your followers can lead to increased adaptability, well-being, and decreased burnout (Hatler & Sturgeon, 2013).

Much of the current literature supports resilience as a critical contributor to self-efficacy and leadership efficacy. Bandura (1997) noted the importance of having resilient self-efficacy, which allows individuals to remain persistent and thrive in the face of threatening circumstances. When facing obstacles, leaders tend to exhibit a temporarily lowered leadership self-efficacy; however, with a resilient self-efficacy, individuals are more likely to stay motivated and confident in their abilities to learn and succeed despite having weaker beliefs about their current leadership skills (Machida & Schaubroeck, 2011). Furthermore, there is a significantly decreased chance of an exponential downward spiral in leadership self-efficacy when the leader has a strong resilient self-efficacy. This research is also supported by a study done by one of the primary MSL researchers on the relationship of resilience and leadership self-efficacy in Asian-American

college students, where a strong correlation was found between resilience and leadership self-efficacy development (Kodama, 2014).

High resilience is typically found in exceptional leaders; however, resilience has been thought of as an integral skill for employees and leaders alike in order to truly learn from and think critically about failure and obstacles (Rothstein & Burke, 2010). Although there is quality research on the role of resilience in leaders, resilience and its relationship with formal leadership development programming has not been explored (Dugan, Houze, LeBlanc, & Odegard, 2014). Student leaders are facing a variety of obstacles because of the turbulent time college can be for students, both emotionally and in other psychological areas. Striving to lead others during a time of intense self-discovery and potential failure and learning requires strong resilience, and it is imperative to discover what the most valuable methods are for students to succeed in this capacity.

Integration & Rationale for Hypotheses

As colleges and universities strive to prepare their students for future success, it is imperative that they evaluate their offerings and identify the optimal methods for fully educating and preparing them during the typical four-year window. Having confidence in one's own leadership abilities and being able to bounce back from failure and obstacles are both desired outcomes of the college experience. Investigating the nature of these relationships offers many fruitful benefits, and a much deeper understanding of the complex interactions between variables and a clearer image of how to best reach maximum student development.

Resilience has been found to be a key tool for effective leaders; as such, it would be logical for effective leadership development programs to develop it in its students. Moreover, increased leadership efficacy is a desired primary outcome for several types of leadership development programming, so the same positive relationship should exist. The present study has a specific focus on experiential programs that are specifically designed and formally defined by its institution as 'leadership'. While an assumption is that other experiential programs will have positive impacts on leadership efficacy and resilience, it is believed that leadership programs will have stronger ones given their nature and purpose. In reviewing the leadership-oriented activities measured by the MSL, it was determined that some of them were more directly linked to formal academic programming where as others were more experiential in the traditional sense. As such, two categories of leadership programming (academic and experiential) were created to examine the relative and comparable benefits of each.

It was predicated that there would be a significant, positive relationship between both types of formal leadership development programming and resilience and leadership efficacy, due to the cross-section of skills gained through leadership development related to these two outcomes. It is also hypothesized that the relationship between the experiential programs and resilience and leadership efficacy will be stronger than the one between academic programs and these two outcomes. Despite these potential differences, because of the intentional focus on resilience and leadership efficacy as outcomes, it is hypothesized that both types of formal leadership development programming will have stronger relationships than non-leadership or 'other' collegiate experiences. In summary, the formal hypotheses for the current study are as follows:

Hypothesis 1: Both experiential and academic leadership programming will have positive relationships with resilience.

Hypothesis 2: Both experiential and academic leadership programming will have positive relationships with leadership self-efficacy.

Hypotheses 3: Both experiential and academic leadership programming will have stronger positive relationships with resilience than will other collegiate experiences.

Hypothesis 4: Both experiential and academic leadership programming will have stronger positive relationships with leadership self-efficacy than will other collegiate experiences.

Hypothesis 5: Experiential leadership development programming will have stronger positive relationships with resilience and leadership self-efficacy than will academic leadership development programming.

Method

The data source for all of the variables in this study was the Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership (MSL). With an increasing interest in student leadership, the need for a large-scale comprehensive study was clear; the launch of Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership (MSL) in 2006 was developed to address this need. The theoretical foundation for the MSL is the Social Change Model of Leadership Development (HERI, 1996), which was created specifically for college students (Dugan & Komives, 2007). The MSL survey has been utilized by over 250 colleges and universities worldwide (Dugan, Kodama, & Correia, 2013). Containing over 400 items, the survey measures dozens of variables including a host of college experiences and student outcomes (MSL Design, 2015).

Participants and Procedure

The MSL in its entirety was distributed online via the Survey Sciences Group, LLC in February 2012, to a mid-sized university in the southeastern United States. A randomly selected student population of 4,000 was generated by the institution's Office of Institutional Research and served as the original potential participant pool. All potential participants were e-mailed three times in one week intervals, as a reminder to complete the survey. In this personal email, basic information about the study, consent, confidentiality, and the survey link itself were shared. Participation was voluntary, and participants did not receive any form of compensation. In addition, anonymity was ensured. MSL raw institutional data was returned to the institution in an Excel spreadsheet and from there imported into SPSS for subsequent analyses.

A total of 2,028 participants completed the survey, which yielded a response rate of 50.7%. Of these, 85.6% self-identified as White, 7.1% as Black, 3.9% as Hispanic, 2.8% as Asian, .4% as Indian, and .2% as Pacific Islander. Of those respondents who completed the MSL, 68.1% were female and as 31.9% were male; this breakdown generally mirrored the overall gender makeup of the institution, with females in the sample being a few percentage points higher than in the larger population. In terms of class breakdown, 36.3% were freshmen, 20.9% sophomores,

21.2% juniors, and 21.8% seniors. Participants represented a wide variety of majors, with the top three majors being business (20.6%), communications (18.5%), and social sciences (15.5%).

Measures

Resilience. The ten items for resilience were taken from the MSL and focused specifically on students' resilience since coming to college. Using a Likert-type scale that ranged from 1 (not at all true) to 5 (true nearly all the time), participants were asked to indicate to what extent they agreed with a particular statement as it they applied to them in the last month. An example item is, "*I am able to adapt when changes occur*." The overall mean for the resilience scale was 39.34, and the standard deviation was 6.14. Cronbach's alpha for the scale was .89.

Leadership Self-Efficacy. The leadership self-efficacy scale contained four items that were also treated as post-matriculation to college. Using a Likert-type scale that ranged from 1 (not at all confident) to 4 (very confident), participants were asked to indicate how confident they were that they could be successful in a certain activity; one example is *"taking initiative to improve something."* The mean score of this scale was 12.79, with a standard deviation of 2.40. Cronbach's alpha for the scale was .82.

Leadership Development Experiences. From the collection of leadership development-related items on the MSL, two separate scales were created for the current study. This was done to note the differences and potential outcomes associated with these distinct categories.

Experiential Leadership Development Programming. The first of these scales, which was labeled 'experiential' included activities that would be described as co-curricular, leadership action-oriented, and generally more focused on the student physically engaging in or practicing leadership or some dimension of it. The MSL items that were assigned to this category were done so through two researchers' rational judgment. The six such leadership development-experiential included attending a leadership retreat, participating in a positional leader training program, living in a leadership learning community, participating in an emerging or new leader program, participating in an outdoor leadership program, or working on peer leadership educator team. Using a Likert-type scale that ranged from 1 (never) to 4 (often), participants rated the extent to which they participated in each of the six engagement activities. A total score for leadership development-experiential was computed by summing each participant's score across these items. The mean for this measure was 10.09, with a standard deviation of 3.40.

Academic Leadership Development Programming. The second leadership development experience scale was created to reflect activities that were, although experiential, less 'hands-on' and instead reflected more of an academic or traditional course-based learning approach. Three such items were identified and combined to create the leadership development-academic scale for the study. These items included participating in a leadership certificate program, participating in a leadership capstone experience, or taking classes in a leadership studies minor. For each of these activities, participants selected either 0 (not involved) or 1 (involved) to reflect their participation. Overall, 19% of students completed a leadership-certificate plan, 12% a leadership capstone course, and 19% a leadership minor. These experiences were summed for each student to create a scale score (M=.49, S.D.=.82).

Other Collegiate Experiences
A separate scale was created to assess the extent to which participants engaged in other non-leadership-specific experiential activities. These items did not comprise a unique scale on the MSL; rather, they were culled by the researchers from different sections of the instrument and that were known to be offered at the participants' institution. Six of the activities were 'traditional' collegiate experiential offerings, and included (percentage of students who participated in them): Community service (55%), study abroad (39%), internship/practicum (46%), living/learning community (13%), research with mentor (16%), and living in a learning community (30%). Two additional activities were included in this scale, off-campus work (13%) and on-campus work (31%). Although not typically formally identified as an experiential activity per se, these work items were included based on the rationale that a work setting indeed offered real hands-on experience that could enhance a student's overall growth and development. For each of these eight items, participants simply indicated 'yes' or 'no' as to whether they had engaged in it and a sum was calculated. The mean of the composite for Other Collegiate Experiences measure was 2.41, with a standard deviation of 1.67.

Analyses and Results

A series of bivariate correlations were computed to test the hypotheses. The correlation between resilience and leadership efficacy was statistically significant ($r=.47$, $p<.05$), suggesting some overlap between the constructs but at the same time providing evidence that they are indeed distinct.

Hypothesis 1 predicted that there would be significant positive relationships between both types of leadership development programming and resilience. To test this, separate bivariate correlations were computed between resilience and each type of leadership programming. Unexpectedly, no statistically significant relationship was found for resilience with either experiential or academic leadership respectively ($r=.06$ and $r=-.02$, ns) at the $p<.05$ level. As such, Hypothesis 1 was not supported. Hypothesis 2 anticipated significant, positive relationships between both types of leadership development programming and leadership efficacy. The results indicated a significant positive relationship of $r=.23$, $p<.05$, between leadership efficacy and experiential leadership development programming. Similarly, a significant positive albeit weaker relationship was found between leadership efficacy and academic leadership development programming $r=.12$, $p<.05$. As such, Hypothesis 2 was supported.

Hypothesis 3 postulated that formal leadership development programming overall (both academic and experiential) would have stronger relationships with resilience than would other collegiate experiences. Analyses indicated a significant, positive relationship of $r=.13$, $p<.05$, between other collegiate experiences and resilience. However, neither type of leadership development programming was found to have a statistically significant relationship with resilience. Thus, Hypothesis 3 was not supported.

Hypothesis 4 stated that both types of leadership development programming would have stronger relationships with leadership efficacy than would other collegiate experiences. Results indicated that all three types of experiences did indeed have statistically significant relationships. The correlations relationship between leadership efficacy and academic leadership development programming and experiential leadership development programming were both statistically

significant (r=.12 and r=.23, respectively, p<.05). However, as the relationship between leadership efficacy and other experiences (r=.22, p<.05) was actually higher than leadership efficacy's relationship with academic leadership and not significantly lower than its relationship with experiential leadership, Hypothesis 4 was not supported.

Finally, Hypothesis 5 stated that the relationship between the experiential leadership development programs and resilience and leadership efficacy will be stronger than the ones between academic programs and these two outcomes. As expected, when examining the results regarding leadership efficacy, the experiential leadership development (r=.23) was indeed a better predictor than academic (r=.12). However, it was unexpectedly found that neither leadership programming significantly predicted resilience. Given these mixed results, Hypothesis 5 was partially supported.

While no formal hypotheses were stated about them, all individual leadership activities on the scales and their relationships with resilience and leadership efficacy were examined for exploratory interest; these results are displayed in Table 1. In general, more items were found to be significantly related to leadership efficacy. Among the highest were position leadership training (r=.23, p<.05), leadership retreat (r=.20), and internship/practicum (r=.19). Other than completing a leadership capstone experience or participating in a living-learning retreat or community, all other activities had significant albeit smaller correlations in the .05-.15 range. In terms of resilience, being a member of a peer leadership educator team was the best predictor (r=.15) followed by internship/practicum (r=.11). Off-campus work (r=.10) was also statistically significant at the p<.05 level, as were on-campus work, study abroad, and community service (r=.05 for all). The leadership minor was statistically but negatively related to resilience. However, its small magnitude might suggest random error.

Discussion

Summary and Interpretation of Findings

Generally speaking, these results suggest that, other engaging collegiate experiences are just as effective at reaching the outcome of leadership efficacy as experiential leadership development programming, and even better than academic leadership development experiences. Furthermore, when it comes to the outcome of resilience, both types of formal leadership development programming appear to be less impactful when compared to the effectiveness of other collegiate experiences. This runs counter to the study's hypotheses. From a logical perspective, one would expect that because they are purportedly intentionally designed to specifically enhance leadership skills, these programs would be superior to other experiences.

There are several potential reasons some hypotheses were not supported. First, although most of the other collegiate experiences may not be intentional in reaching certain objectives, most of the experiences may be considered more immersive than some leadership development activities. This has the potential to have a stronger influence on the individual, and give them the ability to have a more reflective, impactful experience. Resilience is an experience-based trait that is perhaps more difficult to develop solely through dialogue and hypotheticals; perhaps more 'real' experiences and the emotions that come with them are required. Things like study abroad or significant community service may thus just naturally have a greater effect on individuals than

the more structured leadership development programs. Another possible reason for the lack of relationship between resilience and formal leadership development programming is because resilience is not often cited as a formal goal of many programs (Eich, 2008), and may be viewed more of an indirect objective of programs. In terms of leadership efficacy, it may be the case that leadership programs are just as good as other collegiate experiences simply because leadership efficacy is a broad idea that can be the product of any sort of situation where one's self-esteem is increases as a function of working with others (Hannah et al., 2008).

It is also important to note that experiential leadership development programming overall were found to have much more robust correlations with the two outcomes of interest than academic leadership development programming. This supports Hypothesis 5, and is aligned with much of the body of literature about experiential education and its stronger impact on learning objectives than more static educational mediums (Cantor, 1997). The items on the experiential leadership development programming scale, such as a retreat or positional leadership training, are much more immersive and hands-on than academic programs like a minor of certificate program, and therefore tend to be more effective in reaching outcomes that heavily rely on experiences like resilience and leadership efficacy.

On one hand, these results are a positive sign for universities as a whole because schools have been moving increasingly towards experiential learning (Cantor, 1997). If experiential learning overall is shown to be correlated with higher resilience and leadership efficacy than purely academic methods, and the type of experience does not change that, then students have a multitude of options when working towards reaching these outcomes. A student could study abroad, participate in a leadership retreat, take a service-learning class, engage in an outdoor leadership program; all of these different experiences would help contribute to important leadership outcomes. These various programs allow for students of all different interests, personalities, and collegiate goals to grow and improve themselves, instead of a more limited approach of one-program-fits-all.

However, formal leadership development programs should represent a premier leadership development opportunity at an institution of higher education in terms of strategic, objective-based learning. So long as leadership programs are viewed as a distinct from other student development programs, it is incumbent that evidence exists to support that claim. Leadership development programs may need to be more intentional about what methods they are using to get to specific outcomes. A comprehensive re-evaluation of a program on its objectives and the activities being used to reach those objectives should occur to see if the two are in alignment. Although this should be something that programs do regularly, one question to be asked is whether leadership development programs *should* be expected to have a stronger effect on resilience/efficacy than these other experiences – or is that an unfounded assumption? Just because those are variables that have strong correlations with effective leadership, does not mean that the programs being analyzed in the MSL explicitly focused on them as desired outcomes, especially resilience.

Limitations, Implications, and Directions for Future Research

There are several limitations to this study. As a self-report survey, the MSL is susceptive to social desirability and other participant response biases. In addition, the data was collected at a

single point in time from one institution thereby limiting external validity. While the institution's leadership programming is generally well-regarded within the institution and by others outside of it, this study did not involve a specific assessment of its components. As such, it is possible that the institution's leadership programming was not sufficiently robust to stimulate students' self-efficacy or resilience growth.

As noted above, one implication is that institutions should re-evaluate whether their leadership development programs are sufficiently strong enough to tap into and enhance students' self-efficacy and resilience. Taking into account the significant correlations these variables had with other experiences, perhaps universities might consider borrowing best practices from other programming activities and applying them to leadership development programs. Another idea would be to combine elements of some of these other experiences and create a hybrid sort of leadership development program. For instance, creating more service-learning within a leadership program, or even creating a partnership with study abroad programs to amplify that relationship with resilience. One other potential avenue is to add more offerings that force students into obstacles and failure, which are directly related with resilience. Leadership development programs certainly have the potential to offer great value on their own. However, they simply have several potential paths going forward to enhance the student experience. Before a path is decided on, however, it should be determined that resilience is indeed an explicit objective of these programs. To fail, grow, and succeed in the college context and beyond, resilience must be built and refined, and leadership development programs can offer a deep contribution in this area.

Regarding next research steps, a longitudinal study would provide a much deeper exploration of how the different variables interact, and if resilience and leadership efficacy are maintained after these experiences of if there needs to be a continued participation in these types of engaging activities. It would be beneficial to replicate this study, whether in a longitudinal manner or not, at various types of institutions to bolster the external validity. This type of research can also be conducted in an organizational setting to investigate other ways of enhancing resilience and leadership efficacy in an engaging matter. There are also other mediating factors that can be examined, such as different personality traits such as positivity. Positive affect allows for individuals to think and feel in a manner conducive to goal-attainment, in that the individual feels as if they are successfully progressing towards a goal and have sufficient resources (Elliot & Thrash, 2002). When individuals have a positive outlook on life, they tend to continue to strengthen their resources and relationships, or maintain the same level of positive energy. Variables such as previous educational experiences, personal mental models of leadership, and fields of study could all be potentially interesting mediators as well.

Research concerning the effectiveness of leadership development programming and other collegiate experiences in general must continue to be completed if we want to gain a better understanding of the best ways to reach desirable outcomes for college students. As universities allocate precious resources, staff, and funds into various programs, it is imperative to do this in an informed, research-based manner. Different types of programs work for different types of students, so it is critical that we are knowledgeable on what tends to work for certain types of students in order to maximize student success. Continued research in the field allows us to

recognize the tremendously nuanced relationships between a myriad of factors, furthering our understanding of the ever-dynamic world of higher education and experiential learning.

Table 1
Correlations Between Development Experiences and Resilience and Leadership Efficacy

Item	Resilience	Leadership Efficacy
Academic Leadership Development		
Leadership Minor	-.08*	.10*
Leadership Capstone Experience	.06	.07
Leadership Certificate Program	.00	.10**
Experiential Leadership Development		
Leadership Retreat	.07	.20**
Positional Leader Training	.06	.23**
Emerging/New Leaders Program	- .02	.13**
Living-Learning Leadership Program	- .02	- .05
Peer Leadership Educator Team	.15**	.12**
Outdoor Leadership Program	- .03	.11*
Other Collegiate Experiences		
On-Campus Work	.05*	.14**
Off-Campus Work	.10**	.07**
Research with Mentor	.04	.08**
Living/Learning Community	.04	.01
Learning Community	.05	.05*
Internship/Practicum	.11**	.19**
Study Abroad	.05*	.14**
Community Service	.05*	.13*

Note. **Indicates significance at the p<.01 level; *indicates significance at the p<.05 level

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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SELF-EFFICACY AND EFFECTIVE FEMALE LEADERSHIP

ABSTRACT

Perceptions regarding the expected leadership behaviors have often prevented women from realizing their full leadership potential. This mixed-method study explored the relationship between self-efficacy and the ability of women to overcome expected leadership behaviors and become more effective leaders. The study was guided by two research questions: What are the expected behaviors of women leaders in the banking industry? What is the relationship between self-efficacy and the ability of women leaders to overcome expected behaviors and become more effective leaders? Three hundred potential respondents were included in the quantitative (survey) portion of the study, and 10 participants were randomly selected from the group of qualified respondents to participate in the qualitative (interview) portion. The correlation of coefficient for the survey results ($r = 0.9252$) indicated that a strong relationship exists between self-efficacy and effective leadership. Findings from the interview portion of the study identified four main themes: a) the attributes necessary for effective leadership were not gender-specific, b) self-efficacy increased with knowledge and experience, c) strong self-efficacy beliefs helped participants overcome expected leadership behaviors, and d) overcoming expected leadership behaviors increased the leadership effectiveness of participants.

INTRODUCTION / LITERATURE REVIEW

Effective leadership is an essential element in an organization's formula for success. Individuals who can lead their teams and manage their activities are valuable resources that must be selected and developed because of their talents and not their gender. Excellent companies have success formulas that include the development and placement of outstanding leaders. Leaders are important in creating excellence because few organizations offer environments that are safe, familiar, or authentic. Effective leaders give employees a sense of safety, authenticity, and familiarity that is often missing, especially during times of change (Caimes, 2012). Successful organizations hire and retain effective leaders who are willing and capable of performing various leadership functions.

Of the more than six million employees in American banking, 61% are female. These women tend to settle at the bottom and fail to move up proportionately. According to a 2009 analysis conducted by the Institute for Women's Policy Research, 45% of the women working in banking and finance received entry-level wages below $34,999; only 7% earned $100,000 or more. At the 79 finance and insurance companies listed in the Fortune 500 in 2009, Catalyst, a top think tank on women's workplace issues, found that on average, women held just 2.2 board seats out of an average of 13.2 seats, or fewer than one in five. For the same institutions, from 1,428 corporate officers, only 17.9% were female (Graff, 2011). In contrast, nationwide statistics indicate that about one in 18 women working full time in 2009 earned $100,000 or more, which is an increase of 14% in 2 years (Morello, 2010). The fact that women in banking have advanced in finance and banking positions, but not in positions of leadership, made them the perfect focus for this study.

According to Graff (2011), believing in one's capabilities and acting on those beliefs is an important aspect of success that often eludes women. Women often work hard, but do not bring attention to their accomplishments; they wait for a raise instead of making the case for one, and when they run into barriers, they doubt themselves instead of directly confronting issues. This often leaves them unprepared to manage their careers with maximum effectiveness (Graff, 2011). This type of behavior makes the study of self-efficacy in women more relevant and more appropriate, especially within the context of leadership.

There have been perceptions regarding the ability of women leaders to be as effective as their male counterparts when placed in a leadership role. Effective leadership is equated with the male gender, while a sense of community and caring is equated with the female gender (Bass, 1990). While the typical female is ascribed traits associated with compassion and caring, the typical male is ascribed traits associated with power and intellect. Females are less likely to be perceived as successful or effective leaders because they are expected to exhibit female leadership behaviors but are evaluated on established male leadership behaviors (Williams & Best, 1990). This quagmire can be challenging for the prospective female leader.

When dealing with these challenges, a leader's belief in their leadership capabilities plays a key role in determining whether he or she can overcome perceptions regarding expected leadership behaviors and become a more effective leader. According to Bandura (1977), the belief that one is capable provides the foundation for the behavior needed to successfully complete a task, achieve a goal, or overcome an obstacle. This central construct in Bandura's social cognitive theory is known in psychological research as *self-efficacy*. Individuals must believe that they have the talent and capability necessary to complete a task before doing so. Arriving at this conclusion is a minor aspect of the entire social process involved in the

development of a belief in oneself, but according to Bandura, it is an important one. This does not mean that women who believe in their leadership capabilities do not face other important challenges.

Perceptions regarding the acceptance of males as effective leaders and women as ineffective leaders have established standards that continue to prevent women from attaining leadership positions (Indvik, 2004). The differentiation of the roles that men and women play and the exaggeration of differences between male and female leaders has created a hierarchy that favors men for positions of leadership. Leadership is a desired personality trait that has been considered a masculine characteristic, even though both feminine (e.g., interpersonal and communal skills) and masculine traits (e.g., assertiveness) are needed for successful leadership (Reskin & Padavic, 2002). Women who exhibit male leadership behaviors are often perceived to be ineffective leaders because their actions are not in line with expected female leadership behaviors.

Although women are being placed in CEO and other top leadership positions, the percentage of those at the top remains small. Only 4% of the world's major corporations are run by women, while 96% are run by men. Most of the advisors of these men are also men, which leaves the number of women executives and corporate officers at 15% and the number of men at 85%. In developed countries, women still earn 80 to 85 cents for every dollar made by men and do not get promoted as often or as quickly as men. A man must show that he has the potential for performing at the next level, but a woman must already be performing at that level to get promoted into it. The result is that equal numbers of men and women are at the bottom of the ladder, but fewer women end up at the top rung (Goudreau, as cited in Forbes, 2012). Moving up the corporate ladder is still more common for men than for women.

DESCRIPTION OF PRACTICE / METHODS

Research was conducted by using two forms of data collection: a multiple-choice, Likert scale survey and structured interviews. The survey was distributed to a random sample from a target population of 575 female banking professionals. Randomizer software was used to randomly select the survey participants from the target population, which was obtained from the Mortgage Bankers Association. Questions were included in the survey to calculate an overall survey score that was used to determine whether a respondent was eligible for placement in a pool of potential interview candidates. Those respondents who met the minimum survey score were selected as part of the target population for the interview portion of the study; the interview sample of 10 participants was randomly selected by using Randomizer software. The duration of the study was 3 months and was based on the availability of the participants to complete the survey and, if selected, participate in the interviews. Interviews were conducted face-to-face; the researcher recorded and transcribed each interview.

A mixed-methods research design was selected because the collection and analysis of both quantitative and qualitative data helped to triangulate the data and minimize errors and biases of the quantitative (survey) or qualitative (interview) research design. Sequential data collection procedures enabled the collection of quantitative data from the survey, followed by the qualitative data collection from the interviews (Creswell & Clark, 2007). Quantitative data from the survey results was used to calculate a qualifying score that would place the respondents in the potential pool of interview candidates. Once the interview participants were selected, demographics were identified to determine trends and make suggestions for future research.

Qualitative data from the interview provided a clearer understanding of the relationship between self-efficacy and expected leadership behaviors through the experiences of the

participants and their feelings regarding their capabilities (i.e., self-efficacy). Using the results of the qualitative data analysis to build upon the results of the quantitative data analysis provided a more complete understanding of the construct of self-efficacy as it relates to the expected behaviors of female leaders.

OUTCOMES / RESULTS

Survey

The results of the survey data analysis were directly connected to the two research questions. The purpose of the first question was to identify the expected behaviors of women leaders in the banking industry. The purpose of the second question was to explore the relationship between self-efficacy and the ability of women to overcome behavior expectations and become more effective leaders.

Research Question 1. What are the expected behaviors of women leaders in the banking industry? The leadership section survey responses addressed this research question; a review of the responses identified several trends in the data:

- There were 238 strongly agree or agree responses, which was 54% of the 440 total responses. There were 160 strongly disagree or disagree responses, which was 37% of the 440 total responses.
- None of the responses indicated that any of the respondents had ever been told that they were not a good leader because of their gender.
- None of the responses indicated that any of the respondents were uninterested in attaining a leadership position.

These trends were indicative of strong opinions regarding leadership, leadership attributes, and the role of women as leaders. Responses are from the total number of respondents (44) from the sample of 300 that were sent the survey. The total responses for the leadership section of the survey are displayed in Table 1.

Table 1

Total Survey Responses for Leadership Section

Leadership Section	Strongly Agree (4)	Agree (3)	Strongly Disagree (2)	Disagree (1)	Neither Agree or Disagree (0)	Total
Leadership qualities should be the same for men as they are for women	12	14	0	8	10	44
It is possible for a woman to develop her own leadership style	38	6	0	0	0	44
Effective leadership involves the use of both male and female leadership qualities	22	14	0	2	6	44
An effective leader is assertive	10	22	0	4	8	44
An effective leader is compassionate	8	32	0	0	4	44
Women leaders should not act differently than male leaders	6	6	6	20	6	44
Women leaders should not be afraid to exhibit male leader behaviors (e.g. assertive, decisive, in control)	20	22	0	0	2	44
I have been told that I am not a good leader because of my gender	0	0	18	13	0	44

I have been told that I do not possess the qualities necessary for effective leadership	0	6	18	10	0	44
I am not interested in attaining a leadership position	0	0	20	9	6	44
Totals	116	122	62	49	42	440

Research Question 2. What is the relationship between self-efficacy and the ability of women in banking to overcome expected leadership behaviors and become more effective leaders? The self-efficacy survey responses addressed this research question; a review of the responses identified several trends in the data:

- There were 316 strongly agree or agree responses, which was 72% of the 440 total responses. There were 98 strongly disagree or disagree responses, which was only 23% of the 440 total responses.
- None of the responses indicated that any of the respondents disagreed with the statement regarding capability in determining their future and their success.
- None of the responses indicated any of the respondents disagreed with the statement regarding their qualities for necessary leadership.
- None of the responses indicated that any of the respondents felt incapable or ineffective as a leader.
- None of the responses indicated that any of the respondents were afraid to perform the tasks associated with a leadership role.
- None of the responses indicated that any of the respondents disagreed with setting goals that challenge them or their abilities.

These trends demonstrated high self-efficacy in the survey respondents and strong opinions regarding their capabilities and their control of their position and place in life as a leader. The responses to the self-efficacy section of the survey are displayed in Table 2.

Table 2
Total Survey Responses for Self-Efficacy Section

Self-Efficacy Section	Strongly Agree (4)	Agree (3)	Strongly Disagree (2)	Disagree (1)	Neither Agree or Disagree (0)	Total
I am capable of determining my future and my success	14	30	0	0	0	44
I have the qualities necessary for effective leadership	20	24	0	0	0	44
I have sometimes felt that I am not a good leader because of my gender	0	2	24	16	2	44
I am confident that I have the qualities necessary for effective leadership	20	24	0	0	0	44
I am a capable, effective leader	20	24	0	0	0	44
I am not afraid to perform the tasks associated with a leadership role	26	16	0	0	2	44
I normally set goals that are based on what I am comfortable with	0	10	2	24	8	44
I normally set goals that challenge me and enhance my abilities	8	34	0	0	2	44
I do not rely on the opinions of others when assessing my capabilities	4	6	2	28	4	44
If I do not succeed at something, I keep trying until I do	10	24	0	2	8	44
Totals	122	194	28	70	26	440

Tracking the number of responses for each item in the survey provided the foundation to statistically determine whether there is a relationship between self-efficacy and leadership. This required the calculation of the values for all responses. The value for a response was multiplied by the number of respondents that selected it for a specific statement. The total values of the responses for each section were added together for the leadership and self-efficacy variables and entered in a spreadsheet to display the final results. These results are displayed in Table 3.

Table 3
Total Value of Survey Responses

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree or Disagree
Leadership	464	366	124	49	0
Self-efficacy	488	582	56	70	0

*Totals based on number of responses multiplied by the response value

Coefficient of correlation. The focus of the study was the relationship between leadership and self-efficacy. The sample coefficient of correlation was computed by entering the total value for each of the Likert scale responses into the PHStat2 statistical software template. These values were for the variables of leadership and self-efficacy and are displayed in Figure 1.

This value was calculated by taking the total number of selections for each response and multiplying that number by the value of that response. The total number of selections for each survey response is displayed in Table 1. For example, there were 122 selections made for the strongly agree response in the leadership section of the survey. Multiplying 122 by the value of the strongly agree response (4) results in the final calculation of 464 and is displayed in Figure 1. Making the same calculation for the number of selections for the agree response resulted in a final calculation of 366 (122 selections x 3). The same calculations resulted in the totals under the leadership and self-efficacy columns. Each number of selections for a specific response was multiplied by the value of that response and placed in the PHStat2 spreadsheet. The final calculations are displayed in Table 4.

Table 4

Coefficient of Correlation Calculation for Survey Responses

Responses	Leadership	Self-efficacy	$(X\text{-}XBar)^2$	$(Y\text{-}YBar)^2$	(X-XBar)(Y-YBar)
Strongly Agree	464	488	45475.5625	35721.0000	40304.2500
Agree	366	582	13282.5625	80089.0000	32615.7500
Strongly Disagree	124	56	16065.5625	59049.0000	30800.2500
Disagree	49	70	40703.0625	52441.0000	46200.7500
		Sums:	115526.75	227300	149921.0000

Calculations	
XBar	250.75
YBar	299
n-1	3
Covariance	49973.66667
S_X	196.2369
S_Y	275.2575
r	0.9252

Based on the calculations in the above table, responses from the leadership section are positively correlated to the selections in the self-efficacy section of the survey. This means that respondents who strongly agreed with statements regarding effective leadership in the leadership section also strongly agreed with statements in the self-efficacy section of the survey. The strength of this correlation was demonstrated by the coefficient of correlation, which was r = 0.9252. This indicated that there is a linear relationship, or association between leadership and self-efficacy. The strength of this relationship is indicated by the closeness of the coefficient of correlation to a +1. This positive correlation indicated that an increase in leadership ability (the first variable) corresponds to an increase in self-efficacy (the second variable), which implies a direct relationship between the two (Anderson, Sweeney, & Williams, 1981).

Interviews

The values for the individual survey responses were added and divided by the highest possible score, which was 80 points. Respondents with a score of 60 or higher (75% of the highest possible score) were selected for the prospective interview pool. The 10 participants were randomly selected from this pool using the Randomizer software. The survey scores for the 10 participants for the leadership section are displayed in Table 5.

Table 5

Leadership Survey Scores for the Interview Participants

Leadership Section Scores	Part 1	Part 2	Part 3	Part 4	Part 5	Part 6	Part 7	Part 8	Part 9	Part 10
Leadership qualities should be the same for men as they are for women	0	0	4	4	4	3	3	4	3	3

It is possible for a woman to develop her own leadership style	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	4
Effective leadership Involves the use of both male and female leadership qualities	4	4	4	4	3	4	3	4	4	4
An effective leader is assertive	0	2	4	4	3	4	3	3	4	3
An effective leader is compassionate	4	4	4	4	3	4	3	3	4	3
Women leaders should NOT act differently than male leaders	0	2	1	1	3	4	4	4	3	3
Women leaders should not be afraid to exhibit male leader behaviors (e.g. assertive, decisive, in control)	4	0	4	3	4	4	3	3	4	3
I have been told that I am not a good leader because of my gender	2	4	1	1	2	2	4	2	2	2
I have been told that I do not possess the qualities necessary for effective leadership	2	4	3	1	2	2	4	3	2	2
I am not interested in attaining a leadership position	4	1	1	4	2	0	2	2	2	2
Subtotal	24	25	30	30	30	31	32	32	32	29

The survey scores for the 10 participants for the self-efficacy section are displayed in Table 6. The total for both sections is displayed under the self-efficacy section scores.

Table 6
Self-Efficacy Survey Scores for the Interview Participants

Self-Efficacy Section	Part 1	Part 2	Part 3	Part 4	Part 5	Part 6	Part 7	Part 8	Part 9	Part 10
I am capable of determining my future and my success	4	4	4	3	4	3	3	3	3	4
I have the qualities necessary for effective leadership	4	4	4	3	4	4	3	3	4	4
I have sometimes felt that I am not a good leader because of my gender	2	2	1	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
I am confident that I have the qualities necessary for effective leadership	4	4	4	3	4	3	2	3	4	3
I am a capable, effective leader	4	4	4	3	4	3	3	3	4	3
I am not afraid to perform the tasks associated with a leadership role	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	3
I normally set goals that are based on what I am comfortable with	2	1	1	2	2	2	2	2	1	2
I normally set goals that challenge me and enhance my abilities	4	4	4	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
I do not rely on the opinions of others when assessing my capabilities	4	4	1	4	2	2	4	1	1	4
If I do not succeed at something, I keep trying until I do	4	4	3	3	3	3	3	4	3	3
Subtotal	36	35	30	30	32	29	28	28	29	31
Total Score	60	60	60	60	62	60	60	60	61	60

All interview participants met the criteria of 60 as the total survey score. All interviews were recorded and transcribed verbatim to ensure that none of the data was excluded or missed. Field notes were taken during each interview to ensure that the transcription of the interview did not miss any key points identified by the researcher during the interview. Each interview transcript was reviewed by the researcher to develop an initial understanding of the data that was collected.

A correlation of coefficient of $r = 0.9252$ for survey data indicated a strong positive relationship between leadership and self-efficacy. This relationship does not imply causation, but it does indicate that there are tendencies in the data (Levine, 2008). The inference is that if an individual has high self-efficacy, effective leadership will also increase. The r value of 0.9252 was close to +1, which indicated that the two variables of leadership and self-efficacy are almost perfectly related. This relationship was also supported by the interview data analysis, which identified four main themes:

- The attributes necessary for effective leadership were not gender-specific.
- Self-efficacy increased with knowledge and experience.

- High self-efficacy helped participants overcome gender-specific behaviors.
- Overcoming gender-specific behaviors increased the leadership effectiveness of the participants.

These themes supported the research questions and the importance of future studies relating to self-efficacy and women as leaders. The research questions and emerging themes are discussed from the standpoint of theories relating to the construct of self-efficacy and the practical implications of this construct as an essential element of effective leadership.

ANALYSIS / DISCUSSION

Participants felt more empowered and more effective as leaders and as employees because of their ability to overcome challenges they faced in the workplace. This result is consistent with the locus of control theory (Rotter, 1990), which suggests that cognitive factors determine how people react to environmental forces. An internal locus of control orientation means that an individual believes that the outcomes of one's action are contingent on individual actions rather than events outside of one's control. Participants felt that their actions made them more effective leaders and did not feel that the situation controlled or determined their capabilities.

All participants said their leadership effectiveness was enhanced by their experiences, regardless of whether they remained in their jobs or quit the company. Even if they were not able to resolve the situation at the time it occurred, the experience and knowledge that was gained went with them to new jobs and new opportunities.

The women leaders in this study had definite opinions about the attributes of effective leaders, regardless of gender. They also understood the importance of knowledge and experience as a means of increasing their self-efficacy, overcoming gender-specific leadership behaviors, and becoming more effective leaders. The responses of the participants indicated high self-efficacy, a willingness to learn from their experiences, and the self-confidence to realize the difference between a lesson learned and a failure. They all learned a lesson from their experiences, added it to their list of capabilities, and felt more effective and more resilient as women leaders.

The inference of a relationship between leadership and self-efficacy does not eliminate the relevancy of other variables on leadership development or on the ability of women leaders to overcome expected leadership behaviors. The results of this study do not imply that an increase in self-efficacy *causes* an increase in leadership effectiveness. They do infer, however, that when self-efficacy increases, the tendency to embrace and participate in leadership activities also increases. Previous studies have focused on external elements, such as the glass ceiling, gender stereotypes, and organizational culture. The study of self-efficacy as an internal element reinforces an approach to leadership that combines the traits of male and female leaders, focuses on feeling capable as the pre-cursor to action, and gives value to the lessons that leaders learn from their experiences, regardless of the outcome.

For the women in this study, the effect of their self-efficacy on their ability to overcome their challenges and become more effective leaders was unquestionable. These women were not prevented from attaining leadership positions because of gender stereotypes or the glass ceiling, but they were treated differently once they attained these positions. Participant 1 was subjected to inappropriate and sexually explicit comments by the men who were on the board of directors with her, which she felt was an overt way of letting her know that if she wanted to *work* with the big boys, she had better be able to *play* with them. She was not asked to change her behavior, but she was also given the message that no one else was going to change theirs. Participant 5 took

time off for maternity leave, and even though she came back to work sooner than necessary, part of her bonus was taken from her because she did not work the entire year. Even though she could not prove it, she felt that she was unfairly treated because of her gender. Participant 8 was challenged at every turn by a micromanaging male manager who was intimidated by her knowledge and plagued by his own insecurities. She felt that he would have never spoken to a man the way he spoke to her. Participant 9 was told point blank by her direct manager that the only reason he had issues with her was because of her gender. She taped his conversations to prove how she was treated and eventually left the organization.

The emergence of this theme indicates that the plight of women as leaders has not yet been fully resolved. While only one of the participants (10%) was asked to act differently because of their gender, nine of the participants (90%) were treated differently because of their gender. These were women who had attained positions of leadership, but were still being treated as if they were still subordinates or incompetent. Their self-efficacy helped them to overcome the situations they described, but the implication of their experiences is that the workplace is still an uneven playing field for women leaders, who must still fight to be accepted as effective, competent individuals who just happen to be working with men.

Their experiences also indicate that women perceive themselves as effective leaders and view their experiences as a positive element in this process. Women see themselves as capable, knowledgeable individuals who are just as effective in a leadership role as their male counterparts. Although self-efficacy is not the only element that can affect the success of women leaders, it is the catalyst that drives women to pursue the challenge of being an effective leader and the perception that will continue to break down the barriers that challenge women in a leadership role.

REFLECTIONS / RECOMMENDATIONS

Results of this study indicated that there is a strong relationship between self-efficacy and the ability of women leaders to deal with challenging situations and perceptions regarding their capabilities and effectiveness in the workplace. Women in this study overcame their challenges and felt that they became more effective leaders in the process. Both quantitative and qualitative data supported the relevance of self-efficacy for women leaders who were faced with challenging situations and overcame them. These results do not imply that there is a causal relationship between self-efficacy and effective leadership, but they do suggest that there is a relationship between the two constructs of self-efficacy and leadership and opportunities exist for further study.

One opportunity for study is individual motivation and the effects of self-efficacy on the ability of employees to perform the actions necessary for task completion and goal attainment. Specifically, does an increase in self-efficacy increase motivation or does motivation increase self-efficacy? This aspect of motivation could be studied in relation to the confidence and productivity of both subordinates and managers. The key element would be the effects of internal elements (i.e., self-efficacy) on the motivation of employees. What motivates an individual to complete a task, but more importantly, what de-motivates an employee? Looking at the internal elements of motivation provides insight into one aspect of motivation.

Another aspect of motivation is the effect of external elements on self-efficacy, especially the manager and the organization (e.g., culture, policies, benefits, etc.). Studies that involve the effects of these external elements could enhance the fields of management and leadership, especially when the external elements are de-motivating and self-efficacy is high. Managers are expected to work for the interests of the organization and the organization expects its managers

to be loyal, but what effect does the organization or management have on employee motivation? In other words, when an external element de-motivates an employee (i.e. a micromanager), what internal element becomes the catalyst that re-motivates them, how does it work and why? The research could then look at why some people are motivated by these external elements and others are not. Future research could look at the motivational aspect of leadership, not only for the leader, but for the employees who work for them.

Another opportunity is to study the relationship between self-efficacy and effective leadership in male leaders, especially since the male leader is assumed to embody all the traits required for effective leadership. Are men as confident in their leadership roles as perceptions make them out to be? Are men just as mistreated as women because they are expected to be the type of leader that women can only hope to become? A comparison of the expected leadership behaviors of both genders would add to motivation, self-efficacy, and leadership effectiveness studies.

Future studies could also focus on the ability of men to overcome expected leadership behaviors and the effects of self-efficacy on leadership effectiveness. The literature supports the fact that women have faced challenges when attempting to exhibit leadership attributes associated with male leadership (e.g., assertiveness, decisiveness, control). A study that focused on the ability of men to overcome perceptions regarding expected male leadership attributes, especially if they exhibited some of the expected behaviors of females (e.g., understanding, compassionate, generous) that are out of sync with the *think-manager/think male* paradigm. The point of view of the manager, his peers, his superior, and the organization would prove relevant in this type of gender-specific study.

Another potential area for research is the inclusion of participants with different demographics, especially since the demographics of the participants in this study were all within a certain range as far as age group, race, banking experience, income and education. All participants (100%) in the study were White, eight of them (80%) were from 35 to 64 years of age, and nine of them (90%) had at least 15 years of experience in banking. Results from different races, age groups, income and education levels, and less years of experience in banking could then be compared to the results of this study.

Since the focus of the organization is productivity, metrics, and dollars spent or saved, future studies relating to these issues could benefit organizations by comparing productivity levels for employees with high self-efficacy who work for managers with a specific dominant leadership style. Insight into these areas would bring to light the importance of management or leadership style as a motivating factor for employees.

The literature review for this study indicated that while some women overcame expected leadership behaviors, others did not. Another study could focus on the self-efficacy of women who were unable to overcome expected leadership behaviors to see if external factors played a more prominent role than anticipated. In other words, was the level of self-efficacy too low to motivate these women to overcome expected leadership behaviors, or was the existence of a micromanager or other external elements too strong?

Since experience and knowledge were both connected to the self-efficacy rating of many participants, the relationship between these constructs and increases in self-efficacy warrants further study. Why do some people look at a bad experience as a failure, while others look at the same type of experience and regard it as a lesson learned? How does this difference in attitude regarding experiences affect an individual's self-efficacy?

The ability of the human experience to develop, strengthen, and mold the psyche is an aspect of management and leadership that cannot be ignored. Studies that focus on the various internal and external elements that affect human behavior would benefit employees and managers and the organization as the fabric that holds it all together. Developing these studies for industries other than banking would enable researchers to determine the universality of the issues studied and the applicability of subsequent findings.

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Harmony and Help: Recognizing the Impact of Work-Life Balance on Women Leaders

Abstract

For women in leadership, managing work and life obligations is essential. This study examined social support and work-family integration/blurring to determine how women in leadership perceived these dynamics. Surveying STEM women leaders, this research explored work-life strategies and support resources used by women leaders to balance their work and non-work domains and promote their roles as leaders. Women leaders indicated difficulty delineating between work and personal roles and recognized emotional support as most significant within their STEM group. Findings revealed that most support came from spouses/significant others, female co-workers, and mentors outside the organization, respectively. These sources provided the emotional and informational support needed to maintain and progress in their roles as women leaders. Findings from this study are helpful with women leadership coaching/training initiatives.

Introduction

Many women seeking career advancement successfully manage multifaceted roles and responsibilities; however, despite these abilities, women continue to face hurdles advancing into senior leadership position (Boatwright & Egidio, 2003; Ely, Ibarra, & Kolb, 2011; Fine, 2009; Place & Varderman-Winter, 2018; Tessens, White, & Web, 2011). The relationship between work-life balance and women in leadership roles is complex and should be examined in light of identifying, understanding, and managing these leadership role development hurdles (Guillaume & Pochic, 2009; Kalysh, Kulik, & Perera, 2016; Powell & Greenhaus, 2010). The extent to which sex affects work-life balance has been an area of critical research (Emslie & Hunt, 2009; Gröpel & Kuhl, 2009; Powell & Greenhaus, 2010); however, limited research has been conducted on how social support and work-family integration initiatives affects women in leadership (Kalysh et al., 2016), especially within occupations traditionally dominated by men.

Powell and Greenhaus (2010) suggested sex differences and gender roles affect workplace role entry, work participation, and work exit decisions. Analyzing work-life balance issues between men and women, Emslie and Hunt (2009) discovered that women frequently view their work-life balance through the lens of juggling a variety of roles while men view work-life balance issues in the context of childrearing. Emslie and Hunt also suggested diversity among men, some of whom subscribe to the notion that they 'work to live' while others 'live to work'. Female perspectives also vary as some women view themselves in relation to their family while others consider themselves independent of their families (Emslie & Hunt, 2009). Comparatively, women experience higher levels of work-life imbalance because of different biological and physiological responses to stress, gender socialization, and role identity expectations (Gröpel & Kuhl, 2009); however, similarities emerge among genders as both men and women constructed themselves as pragmatic and functional workers (Emslie & Hunt, 2009).

Differences exist regarding work-life balance discord within working men and women (van Daalen, Willemsen, & Sanders, 2006). Focusing on four sources of social support including emotional, instrumental, appraisal, and informational support, research by van Daalen et al.

revealed the connection between work-family conflict, and imbalance varies for men and women as women note a lack of social support from their peers and supervisors while men report a notable beneficial support/resources from peers and supervisors. van Daalen et al. (2006) reported men in general receive greater social support from their spouse than women and women tend to receive more support from relatives and friends than men. Even though men and women seem to differ in their sources of social support, both seem to benefit from this support in reducing work-family imbalance and conflict (van Daalen et al., 2006). While some research (Eng, Moore, Grunberg, Greenberg, & Sikora, 2010; Julien, Somerville, & Culp, 2011) revealed that social support at work reduces work-family conflict and social support at home reduces family-work conflict, other research reveals only social support at home reduce family-work conflict (Liao, 2011; van Daalen et al., 2006).

Distinctly evident for women leaders is the impact of work and non-work role obligations on their success as a business leader. Increasing the overlap between work and non-work domains has resulted in a spectrum of outcomes ranging from failing to manage competing work-family demands to mutually benefiting role participation within each domain (Michel & Clark, 2009; Michel, Mitchelson, Pichler, & Cullen, 2010; Winkel & Clayton, 2010). Poorly managed work-family conflict (WFC) has resulted in a decreased perception of work-life balance, employment satisfaction, and professional growth as well as an increased time pressure conflict and cognitive dissonance between role demands (Hilbrecht, Shaw, Johnson, & Andrey, 2008). Work and non-work domains have increasingly overlapped as employees progressively feel the effects of conflict between personal lives, family, and work (Lazar, Osoian, & Ratiu, 2010).

The purpose of this study was to explore perceived social support and work-family integration/blurring within women leaders to understand the impact of these dynamics on women in leadership. The objective was to clarify the social support and work-family integration/ blurring for women leaders within STEM (Science, Technology, Engineering, and Mathematics) fields. Survey questions were drawn from two established scales in order to determine participants' perceptions regarding the work-life balance constructs of social support and work-family integration/blurring. Examining sources of social support, Parasuraman, Greenhaus, and Granrose's (1992) social support scale content was used to assess the emotional, instrumental, appraisal, and informational types of support provided by the STEM group as well as valued by women in their STEM leadership roles. The Work-Family Integration-Blurring scale developed by Desrochers, Hilton, and Larwood (2005) was used as a basis of questions in order to examine how participants integrated leadership, work, and family roles.

Theoretical Framework

Work-life balance encompasses the harmony and interference that occurs between paid work and non-work domains (Chang, McDonald, & Burton, 2010). Work-life interference, also called work-life conflict or WFC, is composed of two distinct yet linked concepts: work interfering with family and family interfering with work (Chang et al., 2010; Moreno-Jiménez et al., 2009). Work-life imbalance has been identified as an antecedent to organizational employee wellness issues including stress, professional burnout, poor organizational citizenship behaviors, turnover, and absenteeism (Al-Qutop & Harrim, 2011; Chang et al., 2010; Maertz & Boyar,

2011; Steinmetz, Frese, & Schmidt, 2008; ten Brummelhus & van der Lippe, 2010). In order to promote improved quality of life, work performance, and organizational commitment and minimize job dissatisfaction, work fatigue, and absenteeism, organizational leaders have initiated work-life policies aimed at offering support through improved scheduling flexibility, child and adult care services, and peer/supervisor emotional support (Breaugh & Frye, 2008; ten Brummelhuis & van der Lippe, 2010). While these initiatives have proven valuable (Quick, Henley, & Quick, 2004), women in leadership often aspire to their leadership role because they want to make a deep meaningful impact on the organization (Fine, 2009). Additionally, women in leadership often feel that they must justify their leadership role contribution by demonstrating technical mastery, proving competency, and sustaining a level of work greater than their male leader counterparts (Ely et al., 2011). With the expansion of women in STEM fields, determining if women leaders, especially within male dominated science career fields were impacted by social support and work-family integration/blurring is an area of necessary research.

Work-life Balance

Managing work and family role obligations is considered an imperative labor force issue (Carlson, Kacmar, & Williams, 2000). Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) initially suggested the attainment of work-life balance requires resources, energy, time, and commitment distribution across work and non-work domains. Later, Clark (2000) defined work-life balance as the successful performance and function between home and work. Hilbrecht et al. (2008) added that work-life balance discussions should examine the consuming nature of work including the quantity of work hours, the intensity of the work schedule, and the control of work obligations in order to minimize of role conflict. Hilbrecht et al. (2008) concluded that work-life imbalance resulted in the abandonment of critical relationships and obligations as well as the harmful increase of physical, mental, and emotional quality of life issues.

Gregory and Milner (2009) described work-life balance as the cultural and innate bond between work and non-work time and space; an equilibrium between these two roles increased the flexibility and independence of an individual balancing their interest, time, and physical presence in both work and home domains. Grzywacz and Carlson (2007) added to this concept by suggesting that work-life balance involved the achievement of domain related expectations that became mutual and managed between an individual's work and family roles. Carlson, Grzywacz, and Zivnuska (2009) inferred from these definitions that work-life balance did not suggest that an individual exceled in both the family and work domains; however, effective work-life balance occurred when individuals maintained mutually agreed upon requirements in each role, met essential domain responsibilities within each role, and released perfectionistic needs, which demanded high levels of success or effectiveness in both or either role (Carlson et al., 2009).

Integration versus Segregation Approaches

While some individuals prefer organizational strategies, which promote better separation of their work and personal lives, other employees prefer initiatives, which facilitate the integration of their work and family roles. Employees utilize various boundaries when managing the demands between work and family life (Kreiner, Hollensbe, & Sheep, 2009); employees

utilize four general strategies of boundary work tactics when managing work-life balance issues including behavioral, temporal, physical, and communicative boundaries (Kreiner et al., 2009). These tactics help create an employee's individualized work-home style of either segmentation or integration. Kreiner et al. (2009) classified segmenters as individuals who maintain work-life balance by segregating work and home activities through behaviors such as separate calendars for family appointments and work obligations; conversely, integrators consist of individuals who combine home and work activities by sharing home and work calendars, inviting co-workers to their home, or keeping family photos at work.

Other researchers (van der Klis & Karsten, 2009) specifically examined segregation versus integration issues within traditional commuter families, where the commuter, typically a male and the primary breadwinner, viewed himself with strong role identification and became defined by traditional gender division of labor. Conversely, in egalitarian family types, both income earners participate in work activities and share home responsibilities. Participants reported integration of work-life balance strategies involved both work and family sacrifices but offer significant enrichment opportunities (van der Klis & Karsten, 2009). Professionals who favor segmentation were more likely to be satisfied and committed to their work when offered family-friendly options such as flextime, job sharing, and part-time hours; employees who preferred integration were more likely to seek work-life balance options such as on-site child care, gym facilities, and company-sponsored family picnics (Kreiner et al., 2009).

Conservation of Resources (COR) Theory

When considering work-life balance concerns among women leaders, COR theory provides a valuable systems perspective on the connection between work and life domains. Initially developed by Hobfoll (1989), this theory provides a new perspective on stress management by integrating environmental and cognitive models of stress; Hobfoll (1989; 2001) suggested goal-seeking individuals pursued positive reinforcements and strove to obtain and maintain supportive resources in their goal achievement. Additionally, COR theorists suggested impending resource forfeiture increased stress and frequently prompted individuals to act in such a way to avoid further loss (Hobfoll, 2001). This psychological model drew upon two perspectives: primarily, people instinctively sought resources that brought them pleasure and positive reinforcement, and moreover, the threat of resource loss, the net loss of resources, or the lack of resource gain lead to increased stress (Hobfoll, 1989). Hobfoll (2001) through COR predicted increase stress when individuals experienced resource deficiencies. Consequently, resource acquisition was of critical importance when individuals depleted their resource assets (Hobfoll, 2001). Resource depletion and resource support had a predictive nature in stress management considering the biological, cognitive, and social stress responses (Hobfoll, 1989).

With a desire to obtain, preserve, and develop cherished resources (Halbesleben, 2010; Hobfoll, 1989, 2001; Seiger & Wiese, 2009), individuals frequently devoted efforts to safeguard against resource loss and sought opportunities to promote resource attainment (Hobfoll, 2001). All individuals are affected by the scarcity paradigm, meaning the availability of personal energy, stamina, and resources operate under limited confines (Schneider, Macey, Barbera, & Martin, 2009). Furthermore, individuals who expended a substantial amount of drive, effort, energy, and resources at work were left with a limited or depleted supply of resources or energy

at home while individuals who were supported at home possessed greater resources and stamina to perform better at work (Halbesleben, Harvey, & Bolino, 2009).

Posited from a scarcity of resources as well as COR theory, Odle-Dusseau, Britt, and Greene-Shortridge (2012) suggested perceived stressors forecasted increased strain while social support resources indirectly predicted improved organizational outcomes and reduced WFC. Conversely, Greenhaus and Powell's (2006) Work-Family Enrichment theory submitted that work and family roles directly influenced organizational outcomes, however, not through reduced WFC as suggested by Odle-Dusseau et al. (2012) but through amplified perceptions of work-family enrichment. Despite these varied perceptual lenses, a linkage exists between organizational and family resources and subsequent employment success (Odle-Dusseau et al., 2012). Odle-Dusseau et al.'s research indicated that organizational support, such as a supportive supervisor, was a more significant predictor of improved organizational outcomes rather than family supportive organizational perceptions. Irrespective of the dynamic or the support type, COR provided an established model of the impact of work-family integration/blurring and social support and offered an operational framework as to how women in leadership managed work-life stress, bolster support, and prevent resource loss.

Within the COR theory, social support and social-capital resources offered key components to working individuals aimed at reducing role stressors and buffering the relationship between family and work (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Michel et al., 2010). Social support frequently acted as a moderator by directly influencing WFC (Seiger & Wiese, 2009). Spousal support acted as social support often providing emotional backing to the working professional (Werbel & Danes, 2010). Conversely, spousal demands, family constraints, and the inability to manage work and family responsibilities acted as a resource drain on the professional (Werbel & Danes, 2010).

Research Questions

The intent of this study was to explore perceived social support and work-family integration/blurring on women leaders to determine how women perceived these work-life balance dynamics. Two generalized research queries were used to guide this study. First, what type of social support impacts women leaders? Secondly, how do women leaders integrate/segregate their roles? Discerning the integral relationship between social support and work-life balance with women leaders can provide greater insight for women leadership education and coaching.

The stress that women leaders feel operating in work and non-work domains is significant (Kalysh et al., 2016). Social support, which eases this stress, can take several forms. Emotional support (empathy, care, concern, and trust), instrumental support (time, money, resources, responsibility, and energy), appraisal support (assessment, consideration, approval, and opinion), and informational support (advice, insights, and suggestions) are essential in reducing WFC and increasing work-life balance (van Daalen et al., 2006). The concepts of emotional, instrumental, appraisal, and informational supports have not been investigated within a STEM women leadership context. Understanding how these support tactics help or hinder women in leadership may help further perpetuate leadership growth.

Research Methods and Design

The intent of this derivation study was to utilize established survey instruments to gather data on women leaders. Self-reporting surveys were used to seek information regarding work-life balance constructs and analyze the nature of the relationship among social support and work-family integration/blurring within women leaders. Utilizing COR theory (Hobfoll, 1989) as a foundational theoretical framework as well as drawing from Parasuraman et al.'s (1992) social support scale and Desrochers' et al. (2005) Work-Family Integration-Blurring scale, this study analyzed survey results from women in STEM leadership roles.

For this research, 39 women leaders who were a part of a STEM initiative group in western Oklahoma were identified as potential respondents in the study. The STEM group consisted of women STEM practitioners and educators, whose mission was to expand the growth of young women in science, technology, engineering, and mathematics fields. After obtaining research approval, participants were electronically directed to a Qualtrics website to complete the survey. The first two questions of the assessment were designed to establish the respondent's participant criteria and document their willingness to participate in the study. Narrow demographic information was captured including group membership role and longevity with the STEM group; 10 quantitative questions were asked regarding types of perceived social support and work-life integration/blurring strategies. A final qualitative question was asked regarding perceived support and role integrations. The survey was available for 4 weeks during December of 2017.

Social Support

Social support was measured based on a scale developed by Parasuraman et al. (1992); this scale focused on the four categories of support initially conceptualized by House (1981) including emotional, instrumental, appraisal, and informational. Social support of the women leaders was measured with the following questions: (a) to what extent are members of the STEM team willing to listen to your work problems (instrumental support), (b) to what extent is the STEM team concerned about your welfare (emotional support), (c) to what extent does the team provide you information regarding work (informational support); and (d) to what extent does the STEM team provide you praise for your accomplishments (appraisal support)? For this research, scores were considered continuous interval variables; responses from individual questions ranged from 1 (a great deal) to 5 (none at all). Additionally, participants were ask two ranking questions: (a) rank order the individuals who provided you the most support in your role as a women leader and (b) rank order the types of social support in which you perceived as most helpful as a women leader.

Work-Family Integration/Blurring

The Work-Family Integration-Blurring Scale of Desrochers et al. (2005) was utilized to evaluate the integration of work and family roles. This four-question assessment allowed participants to compare the separation or integration of work and family domains. Questions included: (a) it is difficult to tell where my work life ends and my family/non-work life begins; (b) I tend to integrate my work and family/non-work duties at home; (c) I tend to integrate my

work and family/non-work work duties at work; and (d) in my life, there is a clear boundary between my career and my non-work roles. Similar to our social support scale, responses from a 5-point Likert scale were analyzed.

A final open-ended question was asked to allow participants the opportunity to provide additional feedback regarding support and work-family integration/blurring within the STEM group or within roles of women leaders. This question allowed participants to clarify or elaborate on dynamics that were meaningful to them.

Results

Of the 39 group members who were invited to participate, 21 opened and voluntarily completed the survey, indicating a response rate of 54%.

Social Support

Parasuraman et al.'s (1992) social support scale was used to examine sources of social support of the women within this STEM organization. Respondents were asked four questions, which addressed the extent other STEM group members were willing to listen, were concerned about their welfare, provided helpful information, and praised their accomplishments, and responses were based on the following Likert scale: 1=A great deal, 2= A lot, 3=A moderate amount, 4=A little, and 5=none at all. The mean scores for each support category include: emotional support 2.14, instrumental support 2.19, appraisal support 2.19, and informational support 2.29.

Participants were also asked to rank order individuals who provided them the most support within their leadership position and to rank order the type of support which is most helpful to them. Options of individuals who provide support included spouse, significant other, family member, children, women supervisor, male supervisor, mentor within the organization, mentor outside the organization, women co-worker, male co-worker, professional friend, and other. Rank order types of support included Parasuraman et al.'s (1992) types of support including emotional support (empathy, care, concern, and trust), instrumental support (time, money, resources, responsibility, and energy), appraisal support (assessment, consideration, approval, and opinion), and informational support (advice, insights, and suggestions). An average composite ranking was calculated for each source of support on weighted preference (first choice was weighted 5, second choice was weighted 4, third choice was weighted 3, and forth choice was weighted 2, and fifth choice was weighted 1) and types of support (first choice was weighted 4, second choice was weighted 3, etc.). Figure1 and 2 display participant data from perceived sources of social support and the perceived helpfulness of social support types.

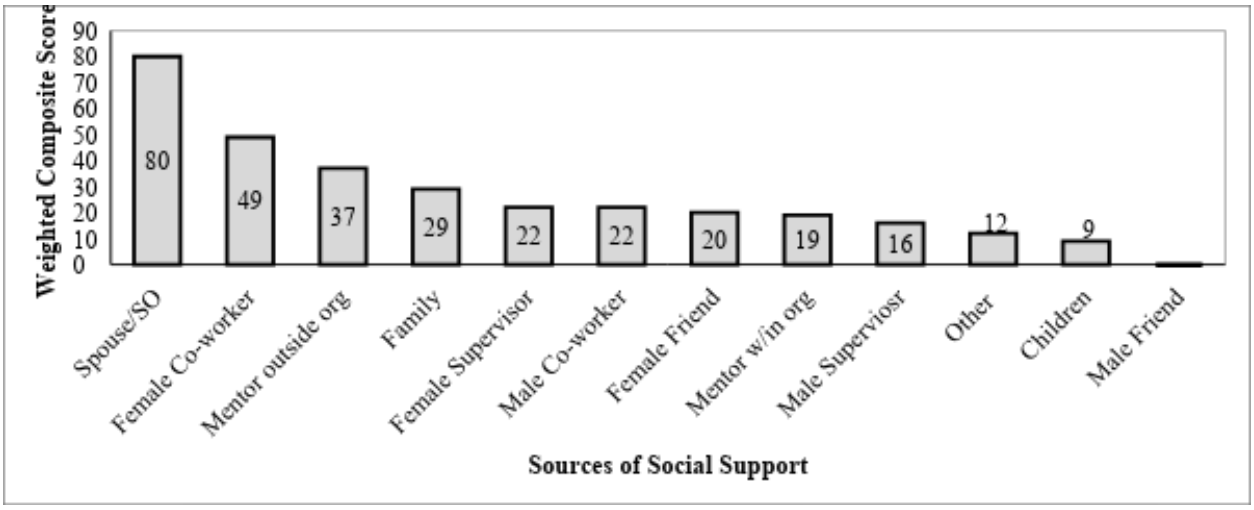

Figure 1. Sources of Social Support in Women Leaders

Regarding sources of support, spouse (62 combined weighted score) and significant other (18 combined weighted score) were merged to reveal a weighted composite score of 80. Thirteen of the 21 respondents indicated that their spouse or significant others were their primary source of support. Female co-workers were the second highest score with a composite weighted score of 49; however, no respondent selected female co-workers as their most significant source of support. Of the respondents, seven listed female co-workers as second highest, three listed this as third highest, and 6 listed this as 4th highest. Female coworkers outranked male coworkers 49 to 22. Female supervisors outranked male supervisors 22 to 16. Mentors outside the organization outranked mentors within the organization 37 to 19. Female co-workers outranked female supervisors 49 to 22. Four participants ranked "other" as one of their sources of leadership support and provided a description of this option. Three of the four options were associated with a religious individual, including priest and pastor, and one participant indicated a fellow professional volunteer as a source.

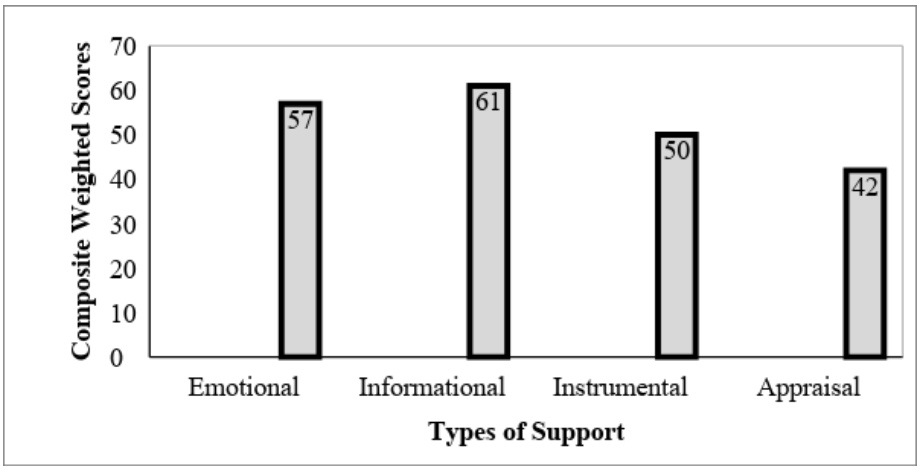

Figure 2. Value of Social Support in Women Leaders

When asked, participants noted each type of support was valuable to leadership development; however, composite weighted scores revealed that informational support (n=61) as the most valuable and appraisal support (n=42) as the least valuable. Informational and emotional support was noted as the most constructive while instrumental and appraisal was noted as the least beneficial.

Chi-square tests were conducted on the helpfulness of support types and support sources to determine the null hypotheses of independence, that there were no differences between various types and sources of support. Identifying a significance level of 0.05, a *p* value of 0.000013 occurred when comparing the value of emotional, informational, instrumental, and appraisal support. A *p* value of 0.000000046 occurred when comparing the sources of support including spouse/significant other, female coworker, mentor outside the organization, family member, female supervisor, and male coworkers. Both chi-square tests indicated that the difference between leaders' perception of types of support and sources of social support were not due to randomness. The null hypothesis was rejected as there was a statistically significant difference in the four types of support as well as the recognized sources of support.

Work-Family Integration/Blurring

The Work-Family Integration-Blurring Scale of Desrochers et al. (2005) was used to evaluate the integration of work and family roles. This four-question assessment allowed participants to compare the separation or integration of work and family domains. Responses from a 5-point Likert scale were evaluated where 1=strongly agree, 2=somewhat agree, 3=neither agree nor disagree, 4=somewhat disagree, and 5=strongly disagree.

When asked if it is difficult to tell when work ended and non-work began, a mean of 2.8 revealed that 52% of respondents indicated they strongly/somewhat agree and 38% indicated they somewhat/strongly disagree with the statement. When asked if they tended to integrate work and non-work duties at home, the mean was 2.71, with 52% of respondents indicating they strongly/somewhat agree and 33% indicating they somewhat/strongly disagree. When asked if they tended to integrate work and non-work duties at work, the mean was 2.71, with 52% of respondents indicating they strongly/somewhat agree and 33% indicating they somewhat/strongly disagree. When asked if there was a clear boundary between their work and non-work roles, participants indicated a mean of 2.81, with 48% of respondents indicating they strongly/somewhat agree and 38% indicating they somewhat/strongly disagree.

The final qualitative question allowed follow-up information to be collected; seven participants included additional thoughts regarding support received and role integration. Statements focused on personal experiences regarding a lack of female mentors, an absence of safe environments in which to share, and trust deficits which can result in women not receiving peer support. Women felt that sharing with others about their "business" without a safe environment made them feel vulnerable and overly exposed. Additional comments focused on the difficulty of managing a busy workload which included caring for their personal life, work, and family while still supporting other women. One participant wrote that she "struggles with work-life balance a lot", confirming that this is a needed topic of discussion.

Evaluation of Findings

Social Support Implications

Participants recognized emotional (n=2.14), instrumental (n=2.19), appraisal (n=2.19), and informational (n=2.29) support within the STEM group, which indicates that each type of support was present in this organization and emotional support was slightly more perceived than other sources of support. As participants were associated through diverse professional fields and organizations, yet connected through the common goal of developing women in STEM careers, they recognized the care, concern, responsiveness, and camaraderie felt under their joint mission.

Additionally, participants received support from a variety of sources and weighted composite rankings indicated that spouses/significant others (n=80), female coworkers (n=49), mentors outside the organization (n=37), and family members (n=29) were the most significant sources ranked in order of importance. With the exception of female coworkers, the top sources of social support were individuals outside of their current employment. Additionally, informational (n=61) and emotional (n=57) support was the most valuable to participants, respectively. Appraisal (n=42) support, including agreement, approval, and praise was the type of support least valued by the participants. Indicating a desire for guidance, insights, and counsel as well as care, compassion, and concern, participants acknowledge the informational and emotional support needed in their development as a women leader in STEM. Spouses/significant others, female coworkers, mentors outside the organization, and family members have created safe and functioning spaces and opportunities to address the informational and emotional needs of participants within this research. Qualitative responses confirmed this by indicating "trust is always a big issue" and "who you can share with that will not put your business out there for everyone to know" are of importance to women leaders.

Findings from this research confirmed DiRenzo, Greenhaus, and Weer's (2011), Hecht and Boies's (2009), and Matthews et al.'s (2010) research by suggesting that individuals value the perceive support and encouragement from family members and spouses regarding their work obligations. Deepening van Daalen et al.'s (2006) research, findings confirmed that women benefit from informational, emotional, instrumental, and appraisal support when managing various role obligations and acknowledge a lack of social support from peers and supervisors. Individuals outside their employment, including spouses/significant others, mentors and family members provided the greatest perceived support. While female coworkers provided an acknowledged source of support, no participant indicated any coworker (male or female) or female supervisor as their primary source of social support.

Work-Family Integration/Blurring Implications

Within this sample, women in STEM leadership positions appeared bimodal in their integration or segregation of roles. Of the respondents, an average of 52% indicated they had difficultly delineating between where their work life ended and their personal life began, and 38% indicated they had clear and established boundaries between work and non-work role obligations. As a probable motivational factor for women leaders and an innate desire to appear competent within their leadership role, women may seek validation and opportunities to

demonstrate their positive work ethic (Ely et al., 2011). Relying on "'substance rather than form' as a more 'authentic' strategy than their male counterparts", women in leadership roles seek to prove their technical and business acumen over the long term (Ely et al., 2011, p. 478), which may impact how they integrate or segregate their role obligations.

Extending Halbesleben, Zellars, Carlson, Perrewe, and Potondo's (2010) findings that suggested role integration and spousal instrumental support reduced emotional exhaustion, as well as COR theorists who suggested cross-domain support and integration improved success in both domains (Odle-Dusseau et al., 2012), the highly integrated work and family roles of women in leadership may allow for easier and repeated resource support and transmissions between domains; however, when boundaries are permeable, domains can become blurred. Winkel and Clayton (2010) suggested that when boundaries are permeable, individuals who have less control over work demand increases often experience increased WFC. While women in leadership may have notably greater control over their work environment, they often may not utilize or have access to resources available to male leaders. Thus, women in leadership may appear to juggle multiple tasks and integrate their roles. Halbesleben et al. (2010) alternatively suggested that role integration and permeable boundaries facilitated trans-role support and assistance. Within this research, women in leadership presented as integrators of work and family roles. This integration of work and family roles could result in increased work family conflict; however, social support could act as mitigating resources reducing work-life imbalance.

Limitations, Recommendations, and Future Research

Limitations within this study may influence research findings. While the response rate was 54% for this study, the sample size of 21 participants was small and could affect the generalizability of findings to other women leaders. While the nature of the study was investigatory, a more expansive investigation of types and sources of support could provide additional insights to this dynamic.

Despite these findings, women leaders should acknowledge that sources of social support provide valuable resources in their development as organizational leaders. Seeking informational and emotional supportive resources can help in their development and effort as leaders. Finding individuals who can provide a trusted, supportive, and functioning connection is a critical element within leadership development. Future research should determine if the desire for informational support is a dynamic unique to women leaders in STEM occupations or if the desire for advice, information, and suggestions is highly desired for other women leaders. Findings from this research revealed that role integration can result in cross-domain support as women leaders attempt to manage multiple role obligations. Women leaders should be aware of work-life balance dynamics including support and role integration, which can influence their leadership success.

Whether formally discussed in leadership education or considered as a part of leadership coaching, the impact of work-life balance within leadership development is a necessary conversation. Women in leadership must be aware of the effect of boundaries between roles and the generative influence of supportive resources on their success. Future research should examine other work-life balance dynamics including work-family conflict and work-life

initiatives in order to future understand this dynamic. Additionally, determining the criteria used by women leaders when evaluating the value of support sources and types could further enhance researchers' understanding.

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What the Best Leadership Educators Do:

A Sequential Explanatory Mixed Methods Study of Pedagogical Use

Abstract

The purpose of this mixed methods sequential explanatory study was to identify the best pedagogical practices of leadership educators by obtaining quantitative data from surveying 836 leadership educators about their pedagogical choices and then following up with qualitative interviews of 13 leadership educators recommended as "exemplary" by their peers to explore those results in more depth. In the first, quantitative phase, discussion-based pedagogies, case studies, and group projects/presentations were found to be the most frequently used pedagogies. In the qualitative follow up phase, rich data related to specific pedagogical groups and five themes related to participants' pedagogical choices emerged. The quantitative and qualitative findings from the two phases are integrated and discussed with reference to prior research and implications and recommendations are provided.

Introduction

Little is known about the pedagogical choices of leadership educators in higher education outside of recently published quantitative studies (Jenkins 2012, 2013, 2016, 2018) and a review of the sources of learning in undergraduate leadership programs (Allen & Hartman, 2009; Eich, 2008; Zimmerman-Oster & Burkhardt, 1999). As the number of leadership programs surpasses 2,000 globally (ILA Program Directory, 2018), so does the need for scholars to study the pedagogical habits of leadership educators. For the more that is known about how leadership is taught, the more possibilities emerge for targeted and relevant leadership educator professional development programs and resulting student learning.

Additionally, the literature related to the experiences of leadership educators, particularly through qualitative and mixed methods research designs, is scant. Only recently have scholars explored leadership educators' journeys becoming and being leadership educators (Jenkins, 2017) and the factors that shape their professional identities (Priest & Seemiller, 2018; Seemiller & Priest, 2015, 2017). This study was proposed to examine specifically leadership educators' experiences "doing" leadership education and further understand how they approach their craft.

Aims

The overarching aims of the study were to:

1. Identify the instructional and assessment strategies leadership educators use most, and
2. Explore in-depth leadership educators' pedagogical habits and decision-making processes.

Methods

Study Design

A follow-up explanations variant of the sequential Explanatory mixed methods design (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018) including a (a) survey of leadership educators to identify the frequency of use of instructional and assessment strategies, and (b) qualitative interviews with recommended "exemplary"

leadership educators exploring their experiences teaching leadership were employed. Integration (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018) occurred during the interview protocol development process which was informed by the results from the initial quantitative phase with the aim of investigating survey results in more depth. The results of both phases were integrated to develop a more robust and meaningful snapshot of the pedagogical practices of leadership educators (see Appendix A for a diagram of the mixed methods sequential explanatory design procedures in the study). Correspondingly, this paper is organized in the following order per Creswell and Plano Clark (2018): (a) Quantitative Phase—data collection and analysis; (b) Qualitative Phase—data collection and analysis; (c) Results—Quantitative and Qualitative Phases; (d) Discussion; (e) Implications and Recommendations; and (f) a Conclusion.

Quantitative Phase

Data Collection

For the first, quantitative phase, a web-based survey was used. The survey questionnaire was modeled after the approach used by Jenkins (2012, 2013) to collect data identifying the most frequently used instructional strategies for teaching undergraduate face-to-face leadership studies courses. Here, the survey was used to identify the most frequently used pedagogies for teaching leadership studies courses and profile study participants.

The analyzed survey data was collected from a web-based questionnaire through an international study that targeted thousands of leadership studies instructors through three primary sources from March 31, 2013, through May 3, 2013. The first source was the organizational memberships or databases of the following professional associations/organizations or their respective member interest groups: (a) the ILA; (b) the Association of Leadership Educators (ALE); (c) NASPA, Student Leadership Programs Knowledge Community (NASPA SLPKC); and (d) the National Clearinghouse for Leadership Programs (NCLP). The second source was the attendee list of the 2012 Leadership Educators Institute (LEI). The third source was a random sample of instructors drawn from the ILA Directory of Leadership Programs.

While the first and second sources were more so "shotgun approaches," they were also more likely to include ideal participants. While the ILA member database, ILA Directory of Leadership Programs, and LEI Attendee list provided access to members or attendees respectively, the researcher did not have access to the individual e-mails for the NASPA SLPKC, ALE, and NCLP groups. And, while the listserv managers did send out invitation e-mails to participate in this study's survey to their respective listservs, return rates are not available due to the undisclosed number of recipients. Nonetheless, the return rates for the ILA member directory (12.57%), ILA Directory of Leadership programs (11.25%) and LEI (25.08%) were promising. Overall, these data collection procedures provided the researcher with the best possible sources to generalize to the population.

Participants. Survey respondents were 836—390 graduate-level (GL) and 446 undergraduate-level (UL)—instructors who self-reported teaching an academic, credit-bearing face-to-face leadership studies course in the previous two years. This is the largest reported study of these populations to date. After participants' eligibility was confirmed (i.e., they had taught a course within the previous two years), they identified one specific corresponding GL or UL academic credit-bearing course and were asked to use that course as a reference point when completing the survey.

Data Analysis

Descriptive statistics were used to analyze the means and standard deviations of the item responses indicating frequency of instructional strategy use as well as the overall percentages of assessment strategy use. Participants were asked to describe their frequency of use of the instructional strategies listed in Table 1. Frequency of use of each instructional strategy was ranked using the following scale: (a) 1 = Never; (b) 2 = Rarely; (c) 3 = Occasionally; (d) 4 = Frequently; and (e) 5 = Almost Always / Always. The rating scale for assessment strategy use included the strategies listed in Table 2 and was designed to capture the overall weight instructors placed on each strategy with respect to students' overall grades in their courses. Accordingly, participants reported the level of weight toward a student's final grade each assessment strategy was given in their courses using the following scale: (a) 1 = 0%, I do not use this type of assessment in my course; (b) 2 = 1-10%; (c) 3 = 11-20%; (d) 4 = 21-30%; (e) 5 = 31-40%; (f) 6 = 41-50%; and (g) 51% or more. For a complete list of the definitions of instructional and assessment strategies provided to survey participants, see Appendix C. Also, for a comparison of the differences between undergraduate and graduate leadership educators, please see Jenkins (2018).

Qualitative Phase

Qualitative Research Design

Participant Selection. A snowball sample of 13 leadership educators—eight men and five women—from four states and 11 universities, participated in the qualitative phase of this 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. Thus, 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 research funds. Next, 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. Interviews took place between January and April of 2015 at each participant's university 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.

Data Collection. 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 Appendix B). No incentives were provided. Then, each participant was asked to verbally respond to the semi-structured interview protocol questions, guided by open-ended questions that lead into topical areas including assessment procedures, course design, learning outcomes, and intentionality. Accordingly, the following questions and sub questions related specifically to participants' pedagogical use and are reported in this study: (a) What instructional strategies do you find that you use more than others? Why? (b) What instructional strategies do you tend to avoid? Why so? (c) Describe one of the most effective activities you've ever facilitated in a leadership course. What contributed to its effectiveness? What did the students report learning? (d) Describe one of the least effective activities you've ever facilitated in a leadership course. What contributed to its ineffectiveness? What did the

students report learning? (e) Describe one of the most effective assignments you've ever designed for your leadership students. What contributed to its effectiveness? What did the students report learning? (f) Describe one of the least effective assignments you've ever designed for your leadership students. What contributed to its ineffectiveness? What did the students report? (g) How do you feel the subject matter, e.g., ethics, organizational theory, social change, etc., affects the type of instructional or assessment strategies you use? and (h) Do you find that you prefer particular instruction/assessment strategies for particular subjects? Does instructional/assessment strategy use vary significantly by class type, e.g., Intro, Capstone, Teams, etc.?

Qualitative Analysis. The process of qualitative data collection and analysis occurred iteratively (Creswell & Poth, 2018). 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 interview 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 leadership educators' pedagogical habits and developed clusters of meaning from these significant statements into themes (Creswell & Poth, 2018).

Results

Quantitative Phase

Demographic Information. Demographic information was collected from participants in the survey to better understand the educational and preparatory experiences of leadership educators. Additionally, questions related to participants' home institution, program, and department offerings were also included (see Table B2).

Table 1

Instructional Strategy Use of Leadership Educators

Instructional Strategy	*M*	*SD*
Class Discussion	4.73	0.48
Interactive Lecture/Discussion	4.19	0.87
Small Group Discussion	4.00	0.93
Self-Assessments & Instruments	3.50	1.13
Media Clips	3.43	0.92
Case Studies	3.42	1.02
Problem-based Learning	3.25	1.09

Teambuilding	3.24	1.23
Lecture	2.97	1.18
Guest Speaker	2.84	1.02
Icebreakers	2.81	1.14
Stories or Storytelling	2.77	1.23
Student Peer Teaching	2.76	1.34
Role Play Activities	2.67	1.14
Debates	2.56	1.13
Games	2.53	1.11
In-Class Short Writing	2.48	1.14
Simulation	2.39	1.17
Service Learning	2.33	1.40

Note: Of the 836 survey participants, only $N = 622$ (Graduate: $n = 272$; Undergraduate: $n = 350$) progressed through the survey to the questions represented in Table 2.

Table 2

Assessment Strategy Use of Leadership Educators

Instructional Strategy	*M*	*SD*
Research Projects/Presentations	3.33	1.68
Short Papers	3.25	1.94
Major Writing Project/ Term Paper	2.94	1.57
Student Peer Assessment	2.69	1.87
Group Projects/Presentations	2.56	1.89
Skill Demonstration	2.48	1.57
Self-evaluation	2.36	1.67
Class Participation/Attendance	2.33	1.59
Read and Respond	2.07	1.49
Individual Leadership Development Plans	1.86	1.32
Observation/Interview of a Leader	1.80	1.33
Portfolio or evidence collection	1.76	1.40
Video Creation	1.71	1.22
Reflective Journals	1.66	1.36

Exams	1.51	1.01
Quizzes	1.43	1.12

Note: Of the 836 survey participants, only $N = 606$ (Graduate: $n = 263$; Undergraduate: $n = 343$) progressed through the survey to the questions represented in Table 2.

Qualitative Phase

The analysis of the 13 participant interviews yielded rich data related to instructional and assessment strategy use in specific pedagogical groups as well as five themes related to participants' experiences teaching pedagogical decision-making. Descriptions of the pedagogical groups and five themes follows.

Instructional and Assessment Strategy Use.

Most frequently used instructional strategies. Interview participants echoed much of the results from the quantitative phase, underlining discussion-based instructional strategies, group work, and reflection. And, while case studies, self-assessments & instruments, and media clips did come up in conversation, either the instructional strategy was embedded in another theme (e.g., case study as part of group work) or the frequency or depth provided by participants were not rich enough to generate a standalone theme.

Discussion. Participants described discussion as the "centerpiece of every class I teach" (D1) and offered multiple ways in which they engaged students in discussion. Discussion strategies ranged from interactive discussion that included brief five- or ten-minutes lectures concurrently with prompting questions or provocation statements as well as mixing up the size of the discussion groups (e.g., pairs, small groups, or the entire class) and duration of the discussion. The constructive and engagement factors of discussion seemed to be tantamount to choosing this instructional strategy:

> H1: *I'm a big fan of the interactive discussion. Because I think talking is generative. I think you get ideas from stating them*

> M1: *So, lots of interactive discussion. I would say that's probably the majority here's a five-minute lecture, 10-minute lecture and now I'll throw out some prompting questions. Once you discuss this with your neighbor for 5 minutes and then let's talk about what you came up with. I tend to do that a lot.*

> R1: *Can inviting students to share both their perspectives about the curriculum and how they see the curriculum playing out in their life? It is founded upon the idea that if they can't translate what we are talking about in the class to what their life is like they are never going to be able to implement it and talking helps people.*

Group work. Participants emphasized various strategies of group work in their courses including think-pair-share, impromptu small group work such as creating a short presentation or skit around content, peer feedback, case studies, and teambuilding and team-based challenges or competitive learning activities. Participants stressed the social aspects of pairing and grouping students as well as skill development around communication and feedback:

M2: *It forces them to engage in the material from multiple directions and it also provides context for them to learn from each other and learn how to work together.*

B1: *...so I am trying to mediate and mitigate that by having the small groups that are having di-ads or they are processing through so everyone has to talk and participate, and they don't all have to choose to report out but at least and I walk around and I kind of listen in on the different conversations that are happening. So very frequently it is just sticking some discussion words up on the screen, ... having them chat through those and then coming back as a large group and comparing the different conversations that occurred.*

L1: *And I think generally that's been pretty effective hearing from a peer like I don't get it, it's a lot more powerful than me saying I don't get it you know, or I sort of get where you're going but I want you to explain it better. Whereas a peer maybe doesn't get where you're going, and you really do have to explain it better.*

Reflection. Participants shared a variety of reflection-based teaching strategies ranging from journals, short papers, reactions to self-assessments and instruments, daily blogs or observations, and semester-long self-reflections. Participants stressed the connection between reflection and developing students' personal narratives, critical self-reflection, and meaning making:

R2: *...it's just as important for them to reflect on how their understanding of leadership is changing throughout the semester… as much as it is for them to learn the material*

D1: *I think sometimes that's a deep reflection exercise and that's really about critical self-reflection and then sometimes it's more an analytical process. I would say narrative becomes huge, so, I try and use narrative … and bring that into the classroom… because constructing and creating a space for narrative feels pedagogical if people don't do that naturally, but the actual use of narrative feels like the content.*

Least used instructional strategies. Here as well, interview participants echoed the results from the quantitative phases, highlighting their avoidance of tests and quizzes, simulation, role-play, and games, and lecture-based methods. Traditional assessment (i.e., tests and quizzes) and lecture were cited for being irrelevant to the type of learning leadership education was intended to deliver and simulation, role-play, and games were avoided due to the often overly-complicated preparation and/or facilitation required to use them.

Tests and quizzes. Participants explained how traditional assessment such as tests, quizzes, and exams were inappropriate for types of learning outcomes they had established for their courses. Further, they often avoided rote memorization in favor of applied or "relevant" learning outcomes and activities.

M1: *I almost never quiz them … I almost never test them on knowledge for the sake of, like knowing material just for the sake of knowing it. They always have to write it in a way that how would you apply this.*

B1: *Because I think that is one way to just memorize something and forget it. I mean a lot of what I read about learning is not sort of indicative or assessed well from the test especially the kind of content that I think we are teaching in leadership. I don't really need them to memorize these different aspects of the situational leadership model, I need them to learn how to apply it. And so if I was going to give a test it would be very like here is a case, analyze it using a leadership theory and then we do a lot of that in class so I know they can do it.*

M2: *I don't think exams effectively measured the kinds of things that I'm trying to accomplish.*

L1: *I don't tend to like high stakes assessments, but I do tend to try to have an array of assessments across the term that give a gauge on progress, so that I'm not stuck, and the students not stuck here being so much weight on one moment in time. I don't particularly think that that is reflective of life.*

*Lecture***.** Participants shared several reasons why they avoided lecture and its media counterpart PowerPoint. Most often cited were passive nature of lecture, its non-experiential roots, and how it seemed impractical for teaching leadership.

O1: *I tend to avoid the chalk and talk. I almost never do the power point of content, never almost never; almost never do I do the power point of content. Almost everything is going to be experiential or practical based. I'll do content but it's almost to get them up to speed, to be able to get to the experiential practical piece.*

D1: *I hate lecture—I just hate it.*

H1: *I really try to avoid PowerPoint or any of that Prezi, it's very helpful when preparing for class it's not that helpful I find to deliver--its boring,*

S1: *I tried to avoid straight lecturing, behind the podium I don't think I hardly ever do that anymore… I just have to make sure I know the material and I'm out in front of things and I'm working the class and we are talking. I'm not saying that I never do it, but for the most part it's really very rare when I talk from that kind of a thing vantage point.*

Role-play, simulation, and games. Participants denoted that highly experiential learning activities such as role-play, simulation, and games were usually hit or miss, costly, complicated to prepare for and facilitate, and sometimes did not invoke long-term learning.

G1: … *we were taking them on the proverbial ropes course and they would come back and say, 'That was great, I had a lot of fun, I learned one or two things', I mean they really were happy with the experience, it was not a dissatisfier to them and then you would ask them a week or two later what did you learn from that experience and there wouldn't be a whole lot of traction*

L1: *I'm not real keen on games, I will say. I have some colleagues who are really good with games. Games aren't my thing, they aren't my jam.*

Effective and ineffective activities and assignments. The following themes emerged from participants' descriptions of learning activities they deemed most effective or ineffective as well as the experiences (e.g., emotional response) and factors (e.g., student learning, positive or negative feedback) that led to their reported outcomes.

Intentional, relevant, and meaningfully connected to experience. Participants recounted exemplar learning activities that sparked dialogue among students around individual and shared perspectives, ways of being, context, and identity, and provided opportunities for students to connect content to past experiences (i.e., reflection) or apply it to and create new experiences (e.g., an applied project). In both cases, the ensued dialogue was the vehicle for making the content relevant for students.

D1: *I think trying to create experiential opportunity that situates someone's lived experience in the content… there's this awesome connection between academic learning and emotional learning… and then it gives them an inroad to say, it's okay if I resist this content or I am not my past experiences, or I can like something despite having bad experiences in the past… like it troubles all of that. Like it's almost like saying it's gonna be okay that this is gonna be a contested terrain that we're exploring all semester.*

L2: *I try to design an activity that inherently represents what it is we're talking about. So, if we're talking about power then I'm going to try to create a set of activities where people actually exercise power within the activity, in the case of choice the same thing.*

R2: *especially working with undergrads… the theory … the concept … which is so heavy for them, that they need something tangible as an example to kind of point to and say oh I get it now, like that's how this concept shows up in real life*

S1: *...coming up with a big problem on campus and then having them get a small team and help develop some strategies as leader… leading social change. So, they're developing business plans and presentations for this competition and we do all kinds of skill building, again it's very intense and intensive and, but the end product is if they win the grant then they need to implement this and so, part of their planning is how to sustain it and where they're going to get support once the class ends and sometimes that's from me, but in, many other times it's from other members of the community…*

B1: *...anything ethics, I want them to feel an ethical dilemma… how you reconcile a real dilemma that means something to you…. if you make it personal then they can really dig into it… if you don't design something that they can relate to then it is not going to be as meaningful.*

M2: *…it's a matter of figuring out the most effective way to hook them into it such that they are going to engage it more deeply… how can I get you to take this seriously and think about, where this leadership theory is, or this created problems of the process or this particular skill. So, I think it matters in the sense of you have to contextualize it individually in terms of the content.*

R2: *I want them to understand that what we're talking about is applicable to their lives after they leave … and that's rooted in why I became a leadership educator in the first place… the more ways that I can get them to apply the theory and the models to their own lives right now the more likely they are to then see the connections even after they leave my class… from a student development standpoint … teaching students how and analyze and synthesize information and apply it to various situations, that's part of my duty… It's… why… the college experience exists … applying the leadership content is important… From a practical standpoint I think them learning how to work with different people that have different perspectives from them that approach projects differently than they do… that's important… the really very meaningful connections that they made between their formal leadership learning and how they had seen that unfold throughout their college experience.*

Skill development. Participants reported long lasting and high levels of student learning from skills-based learning activities. Learning outcomes ranged from various "how to's" to coaching, assessment, conflict resolution, and communication strategies.

R1: That process needs to be practiced the same way that football players can sit in a lecture hall talking about blocking schemes but until you get out on the football field, it doesn't matter, or it does matter, you don't know if it is going to work. So, practice… in class like its class practice, leadership practice is these experiential activities

M1: *They learn how to speak up, they learn how to resolve conflict… I'm going to really ding them on it then they'd rather really work out their differences they can't just give something that pleases everybody regardless of how ridiculous the answer is so, that forces them to… resolve their difference… effectively as a team they have to do things to get everybody's input.*

Creativity. Participants described meaningful outcomes from their experience and the feedback received from students around learning activities that synthesized content into creative activity, particularly when integrated with media and art.

B1: *… 'Life of You' paper… about their life and where they are headed, and they have to come up with some creative way to present the content… I have had students sing songs … do spoken word and … tap into your creativity and show me the content of your paper*

R1: *... act out a two act play that demonstrates their assigned Tuckman stage. At the end of Act 1 what does the leader do… someone needs to step up to get the group to start transitioning from your assigned stage to the next stage. ... we bring bags of popcorn, ... you play up all that stuff... I love that activity. Some of the students hate it, very few of them hate it at the end…*

Ineffective activities and assignments.

Challenges around team-based learning. While participants seemed to value team-based learning (TBL), they shared myriad challenges stemming from students' past experiences in TBL, group conflict, and having to provide group processes for students to follow.

D1: *like everyone I've had bad group project experiences, so I didn't… as much in a leadership class which is asinine because you have to do group projects… so how do you structure those in a way that is meaningful… and provide opportunity for feedback*

O1: *…we're talking about these skills in class but you're not applying them ... so then I'm like well I can't not do a group project, so I try to put these mechanisms in place…*

Structure and expectations. Participants reported challenges resulting from the overall structure (e.g., timing, limitations of class meetings or term length) of highly experiential learning activities, particularly with respect to students' developmental readiness (e.g., students' ability to mentor, coach, facilitate professional relationships with community partners) to participate and whether or not realistic expectations had been set.

S1: *It was all logistical stuff and poor planning, great idea poor execution.*

L1: *I expected the students to journal and they had really superficial contributions… and I remember trying to make mid-course corrections and none of them worked. ...whether it was giving them strict prompts, whether it was giving it open ended just write what you feel like writing. I think because the expectations weren't clearly stated upfront, it didn't work.*

R2: *I either expected too much or expected too little of my students…*

L1: *I tried to get them to create a training, like a skill training workshop. And I think they couldn't do it because they didn't know enough, and I thought they did.*

Discussion

The purpose of this mixed methods sequential explanatory study was to identify the best practices of leadership educators' instructional and assessment strategy use. In the quantitative phase, discussion-based pedagogies, case studies, and group projects/presentations were found to be used most frequently and that instructors avoided tests, quizzes, role-play, simulation, and games. The qualitative follow up

revealed explanatory data related to instructors' reasoning for choosing particular instructional or assessment strategies over others and offered evidence from their own experiences of factors that contributed to exemplar as well as chaotic learning activities. Notably, the mixed methods approach has been seldom used to study leadership education.

Factors Related to Instructional and Assessment Strategy Use

The primary findings from this study was that the data from the qualitative phase confirmed the results from the quantitative phase. In particular, the instructional and assessment strategies emphasized in the quantitative phase we confirmed and expounded upon in the qualitative phase. This is especially confirmatory since the interview protocol questions did not identify specific instructional or assessment strategies as benchmarks.

The integration of results from the quantitative and qualitative phases of this study suggest that the "best" leadership educators are very intentional in their pedagogical choices. For example, discussion-based pedagogies were a clear favorite in both phases of the study and participants in the qualitative phase had no trouble sharing illustrative examples of when they used discussion, what forms of discussion they used (e.g., small group, interactive) and why they used it. Similarly, group work was integrative in that it was used to both provide multiple perspectives for learning and for applying course content—oftentimes through project- or problem-based learning or creative activity—as well as an opportunity to build leadership skills such as working with others toward a common goal. Nonetheless, participants did note the myriad challenges associated with TBL and sought out strategies to proactively address them. Comparably, reflection was more metacognitive in nature, whether students were jotting down reactions to self-assessments or refining personal vision statements, participants stressed the constructivist, pragmatic, experiential, and meaning making components of these learning activities.

Equally, study participants were intentional in avoiding particular pedagogies. For example, while none flat out rejected the criticality of leadership theories, models, and concepts, they did feel strongly that tests and quizzes were not the right pedagogical methods to measure students' learning of such material. Consequently, applied and experiential methods for learning critical content were preferred. Likewise, participants avoided lecture and passive media to deliver course content for the same reasons.

Interestingly to this researcher was the confirmation of avoidance of the highly experiential instructional strategies role-play, simulation, and games. While their value is chronicled across the college teaching (Cherney, 2008; Stevens, 2015; Svinicki & McKeachie, 2014) and leadership education literature (Guthrie & Jenkins, 2018; Jenkins & Cutchens, 2012), instructors remain stubborn in their perceptions of either the cost or challenges associated with preparing for and facilitating these learning activities. Relatedly, the logistics of many learning activities in these realms leave much to factors outside the instructors' control such as students' motivation to participate, attendance, cost of materials, and developmental readiness. Accordingly, this researcher echoes Jenkins' (2012) and Jenkins and Cutchens' (2011) declarations that there ought to be more workshops on best practices in leadership education, particularly those related he use of critical reflection and experiential learning.

Implications and Recommendations

Perhaps the most noteworthy quantitative finding was that discussion emerged as the signature pedagogy for both UL and GL leadership educators (Jenkins, 2012, 2018). And while discussion-based pedagogies,

case studies, and group projects/presentations—among others—were used most frequently by leadership educators and test and quizzes, simulations, and games were used least, the quantitative findings left the researcher craving additional explanation. Accordingly, the qualitative analysis focused on leadership educators' motivations for using one or more pedagogical strategy more or less as well as the decision processes they utilized. Arguably, the most effective leadership educators were intentional in their pedagogical choices and focused on deep-level and relevant—aligning with students' contexts or developing specific skills—learning activities and outcomes. Moreover, these leadership educators were constructivist in their pedagogical approaches, providing opportunities through creative and reflective learning activities for students to develop and make meaning of their experiences.

Leadership educators can benefit by understanding the process of intentional leadership program design (see Jenkins & Allen, 2017) and understanding that effective leadership education is a complex and dynamic process, which goes beyond merely talking about leadership or assessing students' content knowledge recall. Program administrators and future research should consider the factors related to leadership educators' professional development and academic credentialing. Successful programs may include learning outcomes related to teaching and learning, course and curriculum design, assessment, and facilitation skills.

Conclusion

This study provided only two perspective of leadership educators' pedagogical choices—that of the survey participants who opted to participate in quantitative phase and the interviewees in the qualitative phase who were recommended by their peers as exemplary. Being the only research on leadership educators' pedagogical choices, this study leaves some unanswered questions and opens a door for future research of leadership education program design. In-depth exploration and/or observation of leadership educators in their instructional spaces (e.g., classrooms, service learning) may provide even richer data. The results would be productive for leadership educators and program administrators.

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Appendix A

Study Diagram

Phase	Procedure	Product
	• Web-based Questionnaire (*N* = 836)	• Numeric data
	• Data screening • Frequencies • Means scores • SPSS quan. Software v. 24	• Descriptive statistics, missing data, linearity
	• Participant selection based on snowball sampling method • Developing interview questions	• Interview protocol
	• Individual in-depth face-to-face interviews with 13 participants	• Interview transcripts • Short written questionnaires
	• Coding and thematic analysis • Within-case and across-case theme development • Cross-thematic analysis • NVIVO qualitative software	• Codes and themes • Similar and different themes and categories • Cross-thematic matrix
	• Interpretation and explanation of the quantitative and qualitative results	• Discussion • Implications • Future research

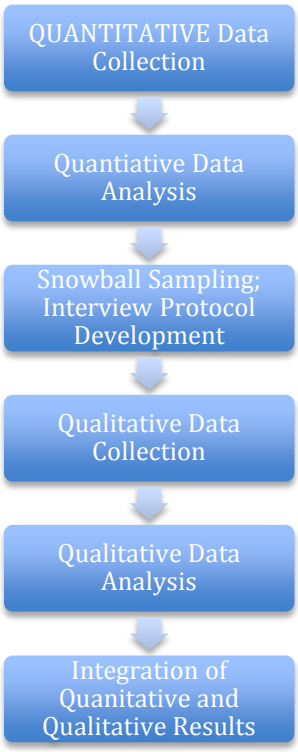

Figure A. Visual Model for Mixed Methods Sequential Explanatory Design Procedures

Appendix B

Quantitative and Qualitative Phases: Participant Demographics

Table B1

Qualitative Phase: 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 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	Asst. Prof.; Counseling and Higher Education	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
L2	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 B2

Quantitative Phase: Demographic and Educational Majority Survey Data

Question	Graduate Instructors	Undergraduate Instructors
Gender	56.5% “Male”	51.2% “Female”
Race/Ethnicity	79.1% “White/Caucasian”	83.9% “White/Caucasian”
Age	35.2% “55 to 64”	23.8% “55 to 64”
Location of Institution	77.1% “USA” (5.7% in both “Canada” and the “UK”)	88.9% “USA” (4.4% “Canada”)
Institution Type	54.6% “4-year Private University”	58.4% “4-year Public University”

Question	Graduate Instructors	Undergraduate Instructors
College where Leadership course was located	32.3% "Business or Management" (25.0% "Education")	18.8% "Business or Management" (12.2% "Academic Affairs, College-wide, General Education, or no affiliated college")
Academic Department where Leadership course was located	27.5% "Leadership, Organizational Leadership, or Leadership Studies" (25.0% "Management")	19.6% "Leadership, Organizational Leadership, or Leadership Studies" (7.3% "Management")
Course Type	12.1 % "Special/Multiple Topics" (6.9% "Organizational/Groups/Teams")	14.8% "Introductory Leadership" (11.4% "Special/Multiple Topics")
Leadership Degree Offered	45.9% "Master's" (20.3% "M.B.A.")	36.8% "Minor" (33.2% "Baccalaureate")
Primary Activity at Institution	58.1% "Full-time faculty" (15.8% "Part-time faculty or adjunct")	45.5% "Full-time faculty" (23.2% "Full-time staff/administration)
Years in Current Position	32.4% "more than 10 years"	35.6% "1-3 years"
Average Class Size of Course Indicated	58.5% "15 – 29 students"	59.5% "15 – 29 students"
Terminal Degree	84.2% "Doctorate"	60.7% "Doctorate"
Degree Area	12.7% "Leadership" (12.0% "Management")	10.5% "College Student Affairs, Development, or Personnel" (9.0% "Higher Education")

Appendix C

Instructional and Assessment Strategy Use: Pedagogy Survey-Item Descriptions

Table C1

Face-to-Face Instructional Strategies: Survey-Item Descriptions

Instructional Strategy	Description
Case Studies	Students examine written or oral stories or vignettes that highlight a case of effective or ineffective leadership.
Class Discussion	Instructor facilitates sustained conversation and/or question and answer segment with the entire class.
Debates	Student teams argue for or against a position using course concepts, evidence, logic, etc.
Games	Students engage in interactions in a prescribed setting and are constrained by a set of rules and procedures. (e.g., Jeopardy, Who Wants to be a Millionaire, Family Feud, etc.)
Guest Speaker	Students listen to a guest speaker/lecturer discuss their personal leadership experiences.
Icebreakers	Students engage in a series of relationship-building activities to get to know one another.
In-Class Short Writing	Students complete ungraded writing activities such as reflective journals or responses to instructor prompts designed to enhance learning of course content.
Interactive Lecture/Discussion	Instructor presents information in 10-20 minute time blocks with period of structured interaction/discussion in-between mini-lectures.
Lecture	Students listen to instructor presentations lasting most of the class session.
Media Clips	Students learn about leadership theory/topics through film, television, or other media clips (e.g., YouTube, Hulu).
Problem-based Learning	Students learn about leadership through the experience of problem solving in specific situations.
Role Play Activities	Students engage in an activity where they act out a set of defined role behaviors or positions with a view to acquire desired experiences.
Self-Assessments & Instruments	Students complete questionnaires or other instruments designed to enhance their self-awareness in a variety of areas (e.g., learning style, personality type, leadership style, etc.).
Service Learning	Students participate in a service learning or philanthropic project.

Simulation	Students engage in an activity that simulates complex problems or issues and requires decision-making.
Small Group Discussion	Students take part in small group discussions on course topics.
Stories or Storytelling	Students listen to a story highlighting some aspect of leadership; often given by an individual with a novel experience.
Student Peer Teaching	Students, in pairs or groups, teach designated course content or skills to fellow students.
Teambuilding	Students engage in group activities that emphasize working together in a spirit of cooperation (e.g., setting team goals/priorities, delegating work, examining group relationships/dynamics, etc.).

Table C2

Face-to-Face Assessment Strategies: Survey-Item Descriptions

Assessment Strategy	Description
Class Participation/Attendance	Students are given points for active participation in course activities.
Exams	Students complete tests or exams that last the majority of the class period intended to assess subject matter mastery.
Group Projects/Presentations	Students work on a prescribed project or presentation in a small group.
Individual Leadership Development Plans	Students develop specific goals and vision statements for individual leadership development.
Major Writing Project/ Term Paper	Students write a significant paper exploring course content or research (such as a literature review) as a major course assignment.
Observation/Interview of a Leader	Students observe or interview an individual leading others effectively or ineffectively and report their findings to the instructor/class.
Portfolio or evidence collection	Students document their own learning through the creation of a course portfolio.
Quizzes	Student complete short graded quizzes intended to assess subject matter mastery.
Read and Respond	Students develop written reflections on their experiences or understandings of lessons learned about course content.
Reflective Journals	Students are graded on their responses to questions generated by the instructor or from the end of the text chapter for the purpose of allowing students to explore specific ideas or statements in depth and breadth.
Research Projects/Presentations	Students actively research a leadership theory or topic and present findings in oral or written format.
Self-evaluation	Students respond in writing to criteria set for evaluating their learning.
Short Papers	Students author one or more short papers (ten pages or less in length) exploring course content.
Skill Demonstration	Students physically represent learning through problem solving ability in relevant contexts.
Student Peer Assessment	Students critique other students' work using previously described criteria and provide specific suggestions for improvement.
Video Creation	Students create short video presentations to be shown in class.

Leadership Education and Nonnative English Speaking Classrooms

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Abstract

Leadership education seeks to develop leadership knowledge, capacities, and skills for a universal student body. Specific challenges to learning arise in the English-speaking classroom when the student population is comprised entirely of nonnative speakers. Innovative experiential instructional activities that accommodate multimodal concepts of learning may better facilitate the transfer of knowledge and provide much needed context in light of a significant lack of English proficiency. This explanatory sequential mixed methods research investigates the effectiveness of non-traditional leadership classroom activities targeting nonnative English speakers in two different modalities. Participants drawn from China and Costa Rica who completed undergraduate-level leadership studies courses with an English language curriculum, reported their preferences and retention resulting from engagement in experiential learning instructional activities. Results of the initial survey clearly suggested experiential teaching strategies such as art in the classroom, simulations, and "low ropes" group activities enhance the transfer of knowledge related to leadership concepts and themes, and improve student learning. Students also reported these activities as most valuable to their leadership education.

Leadership Education and Nonnative English Speaking Classrooms

The world has seen a recent increase in the presence of United States colleges and universities through International Branch Campuses (IBCs) (Lane, 2011), United States-accredited universities in foreign countries (Altbach, 2003; Altbach & Knight, 2007; Bourgeois, 2017), and other importations of US higher education. Similarly, leadership education curricula has become "one of the most widely taught subjects… around the world" (Collinson & Tourish, 2015: 576). While leadership, as an academic discipline has been described as having universal appeal (Northouse, 2013), the proliferation of the transfer of Western concepts has been referred to as "neocolonialism," and potentially inappropriate (Nguyen, Elliott, Terlouw, & Pilot, 2009). Ethical arguments aside, teaching western concepts, definitions, and theories of a leadership education curriculum in English to students who are nonnative speakers presents unique challenges in the classroom. The academic language—the language used to convey abstract concepts and complex ideas—can be especially challenging for nonnative speaking students (Zwiers, 2006).

There is much literature regarding the comprehension of nonnative English speakers in the classroom, however, very little research has been conducted to test the level to which these nonnative speaking students learn an academic discipline such as leadership. A heavy majority of the extant literature dealing with nonnative speaking learning focuses on language acquisition. This project investigates the level of comprehension of nonnative speaking students in leadership courses conducted in an international setting in English, and employing various pedagogical methods such as group work, art in the classroom, "low ropes" group activities, and a variety of other learning strategies.

Literature Review

While the extant literature includes much research regarding the teaching of leadership (Kellerman, 2012), and extensive studies of teaching strategies in nonnative speaking classrooms (Long, 1983), studies with a focus on teaching leadership in English to nonnative speaking students are far less present. A brief review of the literature will expose a significant gap in the literature addressing the bridge between teaching leadership and teaching nonnative speaking students.

Teaching Leadership

Higher education institutions are actively engaging in leadership development in order to prepare their students for the opportunities and challenges arising from a changing world. Various methods are employed in the teaching of leadership (Yukl, 2010): from behavioral approaches, to transition points, and case-based education (Mumford, Peterson, Robledo, & Hester, 2012), however, the effects of these methods in international classrooms is scarce. One study endorses pedagogy that embraces critical thinking and reflection to bring to attention the process of leadership reflected in our actions, belief systems, relationships, and environment (Cunliffe, 2009).

Social Learning Theory. Research has also used social learning theory to understand how leadership development, particularly cross-cultural leadership development, relates to global leadership activities (Caligiuri & Tarique, 2009). Social theory posits that the learning occurs through three components: attention, retention and reproduction. The attention phase occurs when the person observes a new behavior, either in another person or in himself; the retention phase occurs when the person remembers and practices the new behavior; and the reproduction phase occurs when the person changes his behavior. In one study, Caligiuri, & Tarique found

that cross-cultural leadership development is higher when high contact cross-cultural leadership development experiences are used (2009).

Case-Based Methodology. Another method that has been associated with high leadership cognition is the case-based method. Researchers have found the ability to forecast how events will develop on specific situations, particularly crisis situations, is associated with a high leadership cognition (Mumford et al., 2012). Aligned with the ability to forecast, Parks (2005) suggests leadership must be taught in a way that participants practice seeing all of the multiple systems at play in a given situation.

The case-based methodology uses past experiences from people or organizations and demands students to make sense, formulate a solution based on incomplete information, and forecast a possible outcome. The case-in-point methodology uses the foundation of the case-based method in drawing on practical experience, but it adds past and present experience of the student. A main difference between the traditional case-based methodology and the case-in-point, is that in the case-in-point, the instructor must be aware of emerging issues and topics in the class and link the experience to the course content (Parks, 2005).

Effective Strategies for Teaching Nonnative Speakers

Research regarding teaching and learning in classrooms with nonnative speakers has been conducted for decades, but has revealed a shift to a more student-focused model (Long, 1983; Pica & Doughty, 1985).

Although much of the literature in this theme gravitates to the teaching and learning of English, there is mention of specific classroom strategies identified as effective in teaching certain academic disciplines. In the health fields, for example, instructional activities such as conversation circles have been cited as particularly helpful in teaching nonnative speaking students (Caputi, Engelman, & Stasinopoulos, 2006). Similar collaborative exercises have been suggested in other academic disciplines. Technology and verbal interaction have been cited as especially valuable in getting students actively engaged with the course content (Egbert & Simich-Dudgeon, 2001).

Experiential Learning Techniques

A proliferation of research has emerged on modalities of learning and the benefits of active, experiential learning (Tate, 2013). The way students learn and retain information has been found to be enhanced through combining concrete experience and abstract conceptuality, students more easily grasp classroom knowledge (Kolb, Boyatzis, & Mainemelis, 2001). Using a variety of experiences can "take advantage of the way brains acquire information" (Tate, 2009: 44). Experiential learning activities such as artwork, movement, role plays and simulations, are specifically noted as most affective to the transfer of knowledge (Tate, 2013).

Conclusion

As mentioned in the opening of the literature review, research on the teaching of leadership to nonnative speakers is sparse. There is ample justification for the investigation of leadership education in the nonnative English speaking environment. The themes explored in this review help to guide and inform research of this unique facet of leadership education. Additional study will serve to add to the literature relative to university leadership education, which may assist in understanding the transfer of leadership knowledge in environments where culture and language may inhibit learning via traditional teaching strategies. This research may also prove useful in encouraging creative pedagogical approaches in the traditional classroom where students have high levels of English proficiency.

Conceptual Framework

Employing pedagogical strategies that include experiential learning and reflection have been endorsed as key to facilitating leadership education (Guthrie & Jones, 2012; Tate, 2013). Further, intercultural considerations have been prioritized in providing essential context in teaching leadership theory and concepts (Collinson & Tourish, 2015). Similarly, there has been recommendation for experiential learning in the teaching of nonnative speaking students to encourage active involvement (Egbert & Simich-Dudgeon, 2001). Kolb's Experiential Learning Theory which suggests the structure of a class and the inclusion of instructional experiences improve student learning (Healey & Jenkins, 2000), along with the aforementioned concepts, guide this investigation into the value and effectiveness of combining active academic instruction techniques in leadership classrooms with English as the language of instruction and students who are nonnative English speakers.

Research Questions

This study addresses the lack of empirical evidence regarding experiential teaching strategies employed in the leadership education of nonnative speaking students. The questions guiding this explanatory sequential mixed methods research are:

I. To what extent do nonnative speaking students in a leadership class taught in English using various experiential learning pedagogy learn leadership theory and concepts?

II. What specific types of experiential instructional activities do these students cite as particularly meaningful and effective in their leadership classroom experience?

Methods

An Explanatory Sequential Mixed Methods design was chosen for this project because of the researchers' aim to "find out more about the target sample" and for "further in-depth investigation of the research problem" (Hesse-Biber, 2010: 71). Figure 1 illustrates the progression of the implemented explanatory sequential research design.

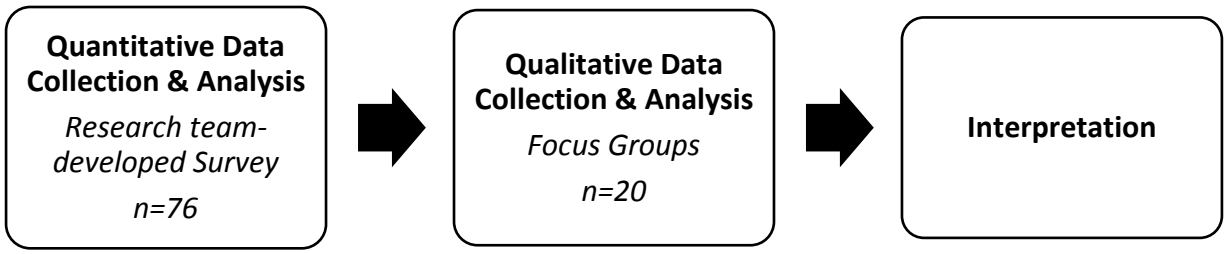

Figure 1. The order of progression and components of the explanatory sequential design (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011).

Phase One Data Collection

In the first phase of the Explanatory Sequential design, a research team-developed survey instrument (Appendix A) gathered data regarding lessons and concepts of which students maintain comprehension. The survey was administered through a web-based software in which students were invited to the survey using the site's QR code access and email invitations.

Survey instrument. The survey was distributed to a number of students who successfully completed an English-taught project-based leadership course in which a number of experiential methods were employed. Students were asked to respond to a number of questions investigating their individual experience and reflection on non-traditional teaching strategies. Finally, participants chose from a list of most memorable and most meaningful learning activities from their experience.

With the understanding that language competency of participants may expedite survey fatigue for some participants, and being mindful that "length above all other considerations, is a huge cost of being a respondent" (Dillman, Smyth, & Christian, 2014: 32), the survey was designed with brevity and simple language in mind. Comprehension of the survey was of paramount importance in encouraging participants to complete the entire survey, so all questions included translations in the native language. As such, nearly all of the questions were formatted as multiple choice-- allowing a single unique response, or multiple responses. Drop-down menus were also used in the design of questions for participants to choose from a limited set of responses (Dillman et al., 2014).

Participants. The participant sample for the initial phase of the current study consists of students in Leadership Studies courses in China, facilitated by faculty of a university in the United States, as well as students in an online program at a Central American university that maintains US accreditation. Specifically, participants successfully completed a lower-division leadership course, having passed the course with at least a grade of C or higher. Both courses were taught by instructors educated and trained at institutions in the United States. While the participant sample included students in Costa Rica and China, data was analyzed as a single group of "nonnative speakers," rather than representative of two different cultures or locations.

Standardized English scores. In both of the programs sampled in this study, students are required to demonstrate prescribed proficiency on a standardized English examination. For students in the Costa Rica sample, all of the students are required to take either the TOEFL or the TOEIC. While 450 is the minimum scored in the TOEIC to graduate, 20% of the participants in the focus groups had not taking any test, yet.

Across the Pacific, students enrolled in the US-based course in China had all reached level 4 English proficiency in the College English Test (CET)—a China-based exam. Additionally, the US university requires successful completion of a hybrid exam following the successful completion of 13 credit hours in the program. While the mandated language of

instruction is English, instructors in the program frequently include basic translations in PowerPoint slide decks and other course materials.

Phase Two Data Collection

A second, qualitative, design was employed to further investigate the meaning making of the experiences of students. Merriam (2009), endorses qualitative inquiry to uncover meaning in a particular experience or phenomena. The qualitative phase consisted of semi-structured focus group interviews, in which a subset of survey participants from Phase One of this study were invited to engage in discussion regarding their experience. Questions and conversation prompts guided students in an exploration of the results from the initial quantitative survey. Participants expanded survey results of a heightened level of meaning and effectiveness of learning relative to their respective leadership course experience.

Data Analysis

Use of the SPSS Statistical Software package facilitated the analysis of the quantitative findings. In addition to applying descriptive statistics to ascertain means and frequencies, inferential analysis, such as scatter plots and correlations provided insight into the relationships between the use of experiential methods, personal identifiers, and final grade achievement. Data collected during the initial quantitative survey informed the development of the qualitative interview protocol. Following the implementation of both phases of research, findings were again integrated, or "mixed," in the data analysis stage. Coding and analyzing qualitative using the Dedoose web-based research software reveal common themes across participant experiences, competencies, and demographics.

Results

The first phase of the current study yielded 76 completed surveys by participants at both sites. An analysis of the Phase One data led to the development of an interview protocol used in four focus groups with a minimum of five students in each group. Focus groups during the second phase of the study included students who completed the survey instrument, and reflected diversity in each program regarding class standing, gender identity, and language proficiency.

Phase One Results

Relying, initially, on descriptive statistics, an analysis of the collected data indicated simulations and other experiential learning activities were reported by students as valuable in the learning of leadership. The results of this study reveal that experiential learning techniques enhance leadership education when the language of learning differs from the native language of the students, and simulations provide the necessary context for them to understand various leadership concepts and behaviors.

Even as most respondents disclosed having studied English for five years or more , and having reported passing minimum levels required to continue with the leadership studies program, a strong majority of participants rated their English speaking, writing, listening, and reading abilities (reported separately) as "average,". Similarly, Costa Rican students expressed a preference for reading theory and completing simulations in Spanish, rather than in English, even with having studied English for more than seven years. Despite the potential language barriers, grades for the classes included in this study were frequently reported as "a little better," or "much better" than in other courses.

Nonnative speaking students in both China and Costa Rica reported overwhelming favorability to experiential learning activities such as "low-ropes" group activities, simulations, watching films, and art activities. Additionally, despite finding the leadership course investigated in this study as more difficult, than other leadership classes, students reported these classes as more enjoyable compared to other courses they had completed.

Phase Two Results

Focus group interview protocol aimed at discerning which specific teaching strategies students found to be most valuable. While those who participated were given indication regarding the phase one survey results for context and premise, their respective individual responses were not solicited. Additionally, participants were asked to recall certain lessons and activity goals to confirm the acquisition of leadership knowledge during the activities. Focus groups were conducted in English, however participants frequently conversed in their native language before conferring individual responses.

In general, participants acknowledged the uniqueness and difference of the courses in which nontraditional teaching strategies were employed. They recognized higher levels of interaction with the instructors, and found increased levels of peer support resulting from working collaboratively with classmates on specific tasks and assignments. When describing the Leadership class in China, for example, participants chose words such as "special," "creative," "attractive," and "interesting." Similarly, Costa Rica participants chose words like "challenging," "interactive," and "practical"

Simulations. Among focus group participants, they agreed that the simulation was one of the most meaningful activities. The simulation allowed the students to experience a hands-on application of theories regarding change management and leadership. They expressed feeling very excited about results and about seeing personal improvement over the duration of the class, and likened the experience to "a serious video game," admitting they "couldn´t put it down, until (they) managed to get the best results." Other participants lauded the fact the simulations were taken from Harvard Business Publications, equating the level of complexity and rigor to the Ivy League University with which the publication is associated: "I thought it was very cool to a Harvard Business simulation; I mean; it showed us that we are capable to completing tasks that people in Harvard are doing, too!"

Small groups and teams. Working in teams was challenging, especially because the professor changed the teams 3 times during the course, and he used Blackboard random function to create them. Participants from both research sites expressed that they do not particularly *enjoy* working in groups, but they understand the importance of working in groups and with different people, especially in the context of a leadership course. They also mentioned the use of peer evaluations at the end of each assignment gave them a sense of fairness.

Participant students affirmed the benefits of working in small groups during in-class activities and out of class assignments. They appreciated the network of support available in working in a group, "when someone is having trouble, we can help each other." There was, however, one important caveat to the value of small group work. Participants had opinions about how the groups were selected, sharing they had a strong preference for being able to choose the members of the group, rather than participating in groups selected by the instructor. In addition to concerns about the holding less committed members of group accountable, and matching the academic levels of students with whom they are not familiar, it was more comfortable and enjoyable for the students to work with friends or roommates with whom they had maintained a relationship outside of class activities.

Some students had shared that they had been involved in several group activities across classes with the same students in their groups. This, they said, helped them to develop a familiarity with each other's' work styles, and facilitated a sense of efficiency among group members. "We have been a group for three semesters. We are familiar with each other, so we work well."

Finally, students shared that the size of the group mattered in determining its value or effectiveness. "Three or four" was repeatedly estimated as an ideal size for a small group, and "five or six, but never more than six" was also reported. The primary reason for the limited size of the group was more practical than tactical. More students in a group means more schedules to coordinate, making it increasingly difficult for groups to find time to do the work. Often, students would forego face-to-face meetings and, instead, facilitate the assignments in group chats on WeChat, WhatsApp, Google Hangouts, or other social media platform. It is important to note that BlackBoard course management software was used, however, none of the students reported using this tool for their group projects..

Experiential activities. While all the students in the focus group agreed with the findings of the quantitative survey suggesting the low ropes activities were most helpful, the group expressed apprehension in accurately recalling the intended lesson of the activities. More than one student had expressed an inability to remember the purpose of the experiential activities, but after working through the instructions and summarizing the activities, participants eventually arrived at correctly identifying lessons of collaboration, problem solving, and communication as take-aways from the lessons. Students were also able to recount specific details of the activities including conversations that took place, activity instructions, and how students from other courses had enviously observed the leadership class activity taking place outdoors.

Students reported similar experiences for activities including art in the classroom, and active experiential learning strategies designed around reflection, diversity, and specific leadership theory. One student struggled with an appreciation for art in the classroom, stating that she enjoyed the opportunity for creativity, but felt that sometimes creativity could sometimes be overshadowed because "we are not good at drawing pictures, so we are just thinking what is easy to draw."

Finally, one other activity using oranges to demonstrate diversity was also raised as most meaningful in their leadership class. Students recalled the activity after a brief discussion regarding the use of food in one of their oral English courses. They viewed the oranges as small reminders from the lesson that they could, quite literally, take with them at the conclusion of the class.

Increased interaction with the instructor. Students at each location had had the opportunity to meet with the course instructor—in small working groups, or individually—as part of the course instruction. Students were very responsive to this strategy, and expressed strong favorability over interactions in the larger classroom environment.

The Central American participants that had previously attended an online course mentioned the level of interaction they had with the professor was notably different. Weekly videos introduced course topics and explained concepts, making the class different for them. Additionally, the instructor maintained a higher level of availability that surpassed students' previous experiences and expectations. "I could see the professor. I could hear him. He was available on WhatsApp, and email. A colleague of mine even Skyped with him," one participant explained.

Chinese respondents also favored more intimate meetings with the instructor. Specifically, the students in the project-based leadership course at the center of this study explained that frequent small group meetings with the instructor were identified as most helpful. The 20-minute meetings included guided questions to help facilitate group progress and ensure student learning. The students participating in this study were required to meet with the instructor five times during the course of a sixteen-week semester. Participants who were also enrolled in another, similar, course taught by the same instructor, have a three meeting requirement. Each of the students who enrolled in these two courses preferred the five-meeting model, stating that the meetings kept the students on task and progressing through the stages of the project development.

Using the native language in class. The nonnative English speaking participants in the focus groups were asked to estimate the percentage of the English classroom lecture which they understood. While a few of the high-achieving students (students with higher grades in the class relative to this research) disclosed levels of 70-80% understanding, the responses ranged from 20% among students just beginning the leadership program, to more frequent estimations of 50-60% among students who were further into the program. For their part, participants expressed that, while they understood the assignments, comprehension was strained and anxiety increased with an online course modality. Nearly all students, regardless of their estimated comprehension or course modality, shared a view that incorporating the native language in delivering instructions, or directly in course materials (i.e., PowerPoint slides, vide subtitles, etc.) made the learning easier, more comfortable, and more meaningful.

When it came to videos and other instructional technologies, students mentioned the helpfulness of subtitles, noting the native speakers included in videos such as TED Talks would frequently speak too fast for them to understand. Similarly, in PowerPoint slides with instructions or definitions, the use of their native language and local examples provided clarity and assurance of understanding. Asked about receiving instructions in the native language, one student stated, "It makes it easier when I hear them in Spanish, so I know—not only think that I know—what I am supposed to do."

Limitations

While attempting to be methodologically rigorous, the study has the following limitations to consider when examining the results, and preparing for future studies.

Sample Size

The results of 76 respondents on the quantitative phase provides a small sample to establish significant relationships from the data. Further data should be collected from future courses to have a representative sample.

Self-Reported Results

The survey and the focus groups collected information on how the respondents feel and think about the leadership course; this study does not measure changes on the leadership competence. Due to the self-reported nature of the study, the data may be biased due to use of selective memory, telescoping, attribution or exaggeration. As this research progresses, it would be beneficial to introduce an instrument that also measures the change of leadership competences.

Language

While the surveys were offered in both English/Mandarin and English/Spanish to the participants, the focus groups were conducted in English, with sporadic use of the native language. The interpretation of the questions may have been misunderstood from what they were originally intended.

Discussion

The findings from the current study provides insight into effective and meaningful teaching strategies for leadership education in the nonnative English speaking environment. Through an investigation that includes two cultures, this research affirms the use of nontraditional pedagogy to enhance student learning of leadership concepts, theory, and behaviors. It reinforces the ideology that active learning is more meaningful and more valuable for students whose native language differs from the language of instruction. In classroom environments that were notably different than those to which study participants had grown accustomed, students were motivated by activities and strategies that engaged them in the learning process, provided context to overcome strained language comprehension, and afforded the opportunity for increased interaction with their peers and course instructors.

Through the use of simulations, art in the classroom, experiential activities, students practiced the skills and concepts of leadership in a context that transcends language. Using their own experiences to provide context for the curriculum, students were able to retain knowledge while engaging in classroom exercises they enjoyed. The use of these strategies allowed students in both classroom environments to make personal meaning of creative and problem-solving assignments alike. Students repeatedly embraced to the practical nature of these strategies, and articulated a strong preference to the perceived utility of the active lessons over the abstraction of theory. By complementing the traditional learning strategies of reading assignments, written exercises, and examinations, with activities that tasked them to demonstrate the concepts they studied, students reported high levels of satisfaction, appreciation, and learning.

Creating opportunities for students to collaborate in teams or groups gave students the opportunity to form peer networks of support on which they could rely for clarification of language and expectations. In self-selecting their work groups, students were able to adopt a familiarity with their peers to facilitate communication, accountability, and the assignment of tasks. When students were assigned groups by the course instructor, students found it more difficult to schedule meetings, find commitment across group members, and prescribe appropriate identity within the group. The preference for self-selected groups that work for

longer periods of time highlights cultural values regarding collectivism, and underscores the importance of relationships in the context of leadership education.

By incorporating students' native language in the leadership class environment, students are afforded a foundational understanding of definitions, directions, and classroom information. It keeps the focus of the classroom instruction on the learning rather than the teaching, and supports efforts to provide an initial understanding of course curriculum. In classrooms restricted by accreditation bodies, institutional policy, or other directives to adhere to an English environment, this research asserts there is a place for native language in facilitating leadership education among nonnative speakers. The use of the native language provides reassurance for students in following instruction, and valuable points of reference in developing a familiarity with course material.

Implications for Practice

As the footprint of US higher education extends to other nations and world regions, so, too, does the teaching of leadership education. The ways in which the leadership curriculum is delivered has significant implications on the comprehension and meaning making on the part of the student. Implementing active and engaging instructional activities will help leadership educators better facilitate learning among nonnative speakers.

These findings could benefit educators in international settings, as well as those who teach second language international students visiting a university with an English-based curriculum. The results of this study could greatly benefit faculty and instructors to tailor their lessons to ensure higher levels of comprehension and contextual value. Additionally, the current research may benefit department chairs, faculty, and administrators whose responsibilities include development of program and course curriculum for students with lower comprehension levels of English.

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Appendix A

Leadership Course Survey

Your leadership instructor would like to know your opinion and how much you remember from your class Leadership 310 that you took in the Fall. Leadership 310 is the class in which you worked in a group to design and do a leadership project with volunteers to increase social awareness and fix a social issue.

This is not an exam. Your answers will not be graded.

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1. When you think about your Leadership 310 class, what lessons do you remember as being most helpful in learning about leadership? (Check all that apply)

 Going outside and doing group games
 Group discussions in class
 Making a poster
 Doing group presentations when you taught the class about a leadership theory or concept (Situational Leadership, Collaboration, etc.)
 Watching a movie
 Doing your group social issue project
 Doing your final presentation
 Listening to the instructor's lecture
 Answering questions on posters placed on classroom walls
 Writing questions on a piece of paper and someone else reading it in class
 Doing the case study exam
 Group Meetings with the instructor
 Doing Reflection Journals and Team Memos
 Simulations
 Other lesson (please write) _____

2. Compared to your other courses, did you enjoy your Leadership 310 class more or less than other courses?

 A lot less A little less About the same More A lot more

3. Compared to your other leadership courses, did you find your Leadership 310 class was more or less difficult?

 A lot more difficult
 A little more difficult
 About the same
 A little easier
 A lot easier

4. Which part of your Leadership 310 was most difficult for you? Choose One.

 The English
 The amount of work

- ☐ The assignments were too difficult
- ☐ Working with a group
- ☐ The class was boring
- ☐ I found it was not difficult
- ☐ Other part (please write which part) : _____

5. How difficult was it to understand your instructor when he was giving lessons or instruction

☐ Very difficult ☐ A little difficult ☐ Not very difficult ☐ Not difficult at all

6. How different would you say your Leadership 310 class was compared to your other leadership classes?

☐ About the same ☐ A little different ☐ Very different

7. Compared to your other Leadership classes, how much better or worse was your final grade in Leadership 310?

- ☐ A lot worse
- ☐ A little worse
- ☐ About the same
- ☐ A little better
- ☐ A lot better

Are you a ☐ Male ☐ Female ☐ Other ☐ Prefer to not answer.

☐ Sophomore ☐ Junior ☐ Senior ☐ I don't know

How old are you? _____

Until now, how many university-level leadership classes have you taken?

☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5+

For how many years have you been speaking English?

☐ Less than a year ☐ 1-2 years ☐ 3-4 years ☐ 5 years or longer

How would you describe your English speaking abilities?

☐ Very poor ☐ Fair ☐ Average ☐ Pretty Good ☐ Excellent

How would you describe your English listening abilities?

☐ Very poor ☐ Fair ☐ Average ☐ Pretty Good ☐ Excellent

How would you describe your English reading abilities?

☐ Very poor ☐ Fair ☐ Average ☐ Pretty Good ☐ Excellent

How would you describe your English writing abilities?

☐ Very poor ☐ Fair ☐ Average ☐ Pretty Good ☐ Excellent

Besides English, what other languages do you speak?
_____ (or ☐ No other languages)

Would you be willing to meet with your instructor and other students to talk about your Leadership 310 class?

☐ Yes ☐ No
If you answered yes, please write your English name and student ID#
_____

Community Viability in a Leadership Living-Learning Community

Abstract

Dedicated living learning communities (LLCs) act as environments in which students foster learning and development through shared peer experiences that can be attributed to a sense of belonging. Community viability is important to assess, therefore, as universities seek opportunities to increase sustainability and resiliency within such communities. Utilizing the Community Viability Indicator (CVI) model ([Authors], 2016), researchers measured student perceptions of community viability in a [University] Leadership LLC. Objectives to describe and explore relationships of demographic characteristics and CVI perception scores were met, with a Cronbach's alpha of .857, and mean scores that indicated a relatively high sense of community viability. These scores on the indicator may reflect sense of community and interconnectedness as perceived by students, with implications for diverse populations.

Introduction

The first-year collegiate experience is a time of learning and change. To provide first-year students with support and opportunities to bolster their development, universities utilize residence halls as environments for growth and connection. Universities developed living learning communities (LLCs) to group students with similar interests together, and to combine curricular, co-curricular, and residential aspects of residential life. This approach to teaching and learning is applied through a different perspective to help facilitate learning through shared classes, nonformal curriculum, and community events (Mitchell, & Sackney, 2011). Transitioning residence halls into learning environments has the potential to increase academic performance, civic engagement, intellectual development, and create a higher sense of community amongst residents (Katz, 2015).

Creating sustainable learning environments should fulfill the needs of the learners within the system, while also meeting the administrative needs of the institution (Zandvliet & Broekhuizen, 2017). The needs of learners are identified as student engagement, supportive environments, and a sense of community (Bauer & Kiger, 2017; Rohli & Rogge, 2013; Spanierman et al., 2013). Designing successful learning environments through LLCs requires a joint effort from academic faculty, student affairs professionals, and university administration to plan, collaborate, and staff (Frazier, & Eighmy, 2012; Tinto, 2003).

It becomes important to recognize that community is often a condition to achieving other values as well (Mason, 2000; Spanierman et al., 2013). Fostering students' learning and development brings not only faculty and resources together, but the shared learning experiences as a means of accountability amongst peers (Dunn & Dean, 2013). As students' sense of belonging increases through their interaction with their peers, they build up the community in which they live as well.

Residence hall environments are often viewed as communities within the larger campus community. However, LLCs are created specifically with the aim of enhancing student learning experience through community. LLCs may focus on a specific academic program or topic area of interest such as nursing, engineering, leadership, geography or aviation (Bauer & Kiger, 2017;

Dunn, Odom, Dunn, Moore, & Rotter, 2016; Rohli & Rogge, 2012; Wilson, Bjerke, & Martin, 2015). They also may focus on specific student populations, such as special needs students, international students, or even students with a common particular hobby or non-curricular interest (Bauer, & Kiger, 2017). LLCs need to provide a stable, lasting environment which universities can rely upon as foundations for developing these programs and resources. Students benefit when these communities consistently perform the supportive functions they espouse.

By examining community viability, LLCs and universities are provided with the opportunity to increase sustainability and resiliency within communities. The Community Viability Indicator (CVI) model provides a framework for evaluating the viability of a community based upon four constructs: community sentiment, capable leaders, sustainable infrastructure, and community vision (Hogg, Bush, Rudd, & Seibel, 2016). By measuring community members' perceptions of community viability, stakeholders are able to ensure all members have similar views. Additionally, the CVI model can provide a guide for increasing the overall viability of one's community.

Literature Review

Living Learning Communities (LLCs)

LLCs have an extensive history within residence life on university campuses evolving from the introduction of dormitories as far back as the 6th century (Keup, 2013) to the intentionally designed residential communities available today. Cowley (1934) mentions that the origin of such communities can be viewed as being more recent and stemmed from a need for residential student housing for those attending academic institutions. Specifically, Connelly (2014) proposes that the ubiquity of students who lacked housing during the Middle Ages is considered to have been a catalyst for the creation of organized residential student housing.

In relatively more recent history, concerns regarding the influence of dormitory environments on educational environments continued to draw attention. According to Rudolph (1962), 19th and 20th century critics of student dormitories asserted that the dorm environment tended to foster strife and cause short tempers among those inhabiting such close quarters. Rudolph (1962) mentions, "the dormitory helped to create an atmosphere that invited frustration, argument, and crime" (p. 97).

Such criticism prompted students, faculty, and institutions to look to alternative ways of approaching the issue of student housing in the academic environment. Meiklejohn emphasized the importance of university student communities in his 1932 book, *The Experimental University*. He acknowledged difficulties in current living situations and concluded that "what is needed is that the community find its life centering about a common course of study, a common set of problems, a common human situation. The effect of this is to give to the casual conversation, the easy association of students, an educational value which is wholly lost if one's dormitory friends or fraternity house mates are studying different fields," (Meiklejohn, 1932: p.227). Meiklejohn's contributions are considered to be the foundation of modern LLCs (Dunn, Odom, Moore, & Rotter, 2016). The result of was a shift in the consideration of dormitories as

more than just a place to sleep, but rather to be considered a residence hall where one interacts with others and is engrained within a community (Connelly, 2014).

An LLC extends beyond a place of residence and community and incorporates residents with similar interests with combined curricular, co-curricular, and residential aspects (Shackley, 2011). LLCs serve as means to alleviate the issue of students without housing while also developing the individual and fostering the maturation of skills applicable for a specific interest and community involvement. According to Lenning & Ebbers (1999), learning communities may be defined as groups of individual learners who organize behind common interests and community. In this environment, they participate in active learning through the structure of their education (Dunn, Odom, Dunn, Moore, & Rotter, 2016). They are characterized by self-selection, monthly programming, partnership between student affairs and academic departments, faculty participation, classroom and faculty office space in LLCs, early admission to halls, and LLC coursework (Wilson et al., 2013).

Many LLC programs are targeted to, and work with, first-year students. Such programs serve both student participants and institutions to educate, increase student retention for challenging programs, create a sense of community belonging, and build familiarity with the campus resources (Keup, 2013). Students in these communities have the opportunity to engage in peer interaction through structured activities consciously built into the LLC environment (Keup, 2013).

Theoretical underpinnings of living learning communities. LLCs can be viewed as community of practice (CoP) for residents. CoPs are social systems where groups of individuals share a common passion or concern regarding a topic and increase their knowledge and understanding through ongoing interactions with one another (Wenger, McDermott, & Synder, 2002). Such communities can often focus on an individual subject area to enable students interested in augmenting their skills in a common topic to do so within the community setting. According to Lave and Wenger (1991), communities of practice are a central aspect to situated learning theory, which refers to one's participation and engagement within social relationships and the construction of one's identity within their community. Simply, learning is the process of social participation, in which the environment impacts the learning process (Wenger, 1999).

Situated learning theory is particularly applicable to experiential learning environments, such as can occur in living and learning communities. The [Leadership Living and Learning Community (Leadership LLC)] in the higher education setting may be seen as a community of practice that is useful for exploring and developing leadership identities (Priest, 2012). Within this CoP, leadership serves as the shared interest within a community. It incorporates community events and courses, which focus on shared discussions and experiences. Within this community, learners are encouraged to move from points of participation on the periphery of the community's structure to its core as they gain skills and competence (Fenwick, 2003). This progression can be viewed in the [Leadership LLC] as individuals become more involved and engaged in the activities of the community.

[Leadership Living Learning Community (Leadership LLC)]. The [Leadership LLC] at [University] is a learning environment designed to provide opportunities for students to apply research-based leadership concepts in exercise and development of leadership skills ([University Residential Community Website], 2018). To do this, the [Leadership LLC] utilizes leadership-based courses, student life, and community engagement activities ([University Residential Community Website], 2018). In the dynamic community, students learn about social leadership theory and the development of leadership qualities to make further connections with the academic community. This is important because individuals who help with decision-making feel inclined to continue to improve their community (Rickets & Place, 2009). Such communities also function to provide students with opportunities to understand and cultivate their own leadership styles and skills.

Learning communities bridge the gap between resident halls and the classroom. They are designed not only to retain qualified and upwardly mobile students, but also to increase both student academic achievement and a sense of community (Ball, Garton, & Dyer, 2001). Interactions among students and faculty members are increased through the use of LLCs, thus enhancing the educational qualities of the student experience (Ball et al., 2001). The [Leadership LLC] serves as a support network that builds a sense of identity and helps students in a variety of majors to increase confidence in their leadership within the community.

Community viability in LLCs. A viable community is one that is sustainable, resilient, and provides community members with the opportunities to earn income and lead meaningful lives (Aarsaether, Riabova, & Barerenholdt, 2004). Although the students that are a part of a LLC may not directly be earning income their community is providing and supporting progress towards meaningful lives and careers as sources of income. It is essential for these communities to be both sustainable and resilient to ensure communities are able to produce initiatives to consistently build their communities and to be able to respond to unexpected changes within daily life (Hogg et al., 2016). Community leaders can examine community viability by identifying potential barriers, community assets, and community members' perceptions of the community through the CVI model (Hogg et al., 2016).

LLCs share a connection to community viability through a focus on the development of big-picture qualities that benefit both the residents and their communities. Increasing community viability is essential for the community to thrive and requires capable leadership. Community viability efforts are designed to enhance communities and strengthen resiliency through initiatives that allow individuals and local officials to work together to respond to community needs ([University Extension], 2018). Factors that affect community viability include effective communication, community engagement, building social capital, and inter- and intra- community collaboration (Rickets & Place, 2009). These factors are significant in establishing leadership efforts aimed at making positive community change.

Demographics have been shown to influence students' sense of belonging both in LLCs and in their academic institutions. Sense of belonging differs by gender, with females generally demonstrating a greater sense of belonging than males at the same academic level at school (Ma, 2003). Additionally, women have reported experiencing increased academic support in an LLC (Spanierman et al., 2013). Sense of belonging in LLCs varies by race, with White/Caucasian

students reporting more of a sense of belonging than minority students or multiracial/multiethnic students (Johnson et al., 2007). Minority students feel less at home in their educational environment; therefore, their feeling of belonging is decreased, affecting their community sentiment (Meeuwisse, Severens, & Born, 2010).

Theoretical and Conceptual Framework

The CVI model emerged through a review of theories and literature relating to community viability and development. This review resulted in four intertwined constructs as indicators of community viability: community sentiment, capable leadership, community vision, and sustainable infrastructure (Hogg et al., 2016). The CVI model incorporates diffusion of innovation theory (Rogers, 2003), psychological sense of community theory (McMillan & Chavis, 1986), and the community capitals framework (Flora, Flora, & Gasteyer, 2015) as a theoretical foundation . Diffusion of innovations theory serves as a basis for the CVI model because it serves as an indicator of acceptance on the part of users of social change innovation (Rogers, 2003). As such, social change within a community can be viewed as an innovation, and community residents as users of it. This perspective, as an aspect of community viability, allows the CVI model to provide a foundation for predicting and identifying barriers to the acceptance of change within a community.

The CVI model incorporates sense of community theory by focusing on the importance of community member ties, connections, and feeling of having a defined role in the community as essential elements to community viability (Hogg et al., 2016; McMillan & Chavis, 1986). Sense of community theory illustrates how community viability is represented by residents' feelings towards their community, which is namely represented by community sentiment within the CVI model. However, capable leadership, sustainable infrastructure, and community vision all have a bidirectional impact and relationship on the sentiment present within a community.

Finally, community capitals framework contributes the concrete aspect of community that includes seven capitals, which are inseparable and dependent upon one another (Flora et al., 2015). These capitals include built, social, financial, cultural, natural, political, and human (Flora et al., 2015). All of the seven capitals exist in all communities, but vary in development and assets tied to each capital. The CVI model integrates community capitals framework as a representation of the contextual indicators of assets and lack thereof within a community (Hogg et al., 2016).

In the CVI model, community sentiment represents feelings, attitudes, and beliefs about their community. Namely, the community member's sense of pride and belonging within their community (Hogg et al., 2016). Capable leaders represent decision makers and influencers in the community, who are humble and provide an equal voice to all members. It is essential for both formal and informal leaders to be capable leaders (Hogg et al., 2016). A community vision is a community's plan for the future. Viable communities have shared visions, which are supported by all community members (Hogg et al., 2016). Sustainable infrastructure is the built and natural environment that supports community activity. Sustainable infrastructure is the most visible element of community viability and includes access to satisfy one's basic and social needs. These four constructs are represented by four concentric circles to show overlapping areas to

demonstrate the connections between each construct and their dependence upon one another for a community to truly be viable (Figure 1). Bush et al. (2018) developed the CVI instrument based on the CVI model, to measure community viability.

Figure 1. Community Viability Indicator (CVI) Model developed by [Authors] (2016)

The importance of leadership, sentiment, infrastructure, and vision to LLCs has been measured and shown to be important in a variety of ways. Providing capable leadership in communities is a core method of LLC student support through student and faculty mentorship. Leadership in these communities also directs the curriculum and available activities for students. Capable leadership may also be valued at a more conceptual level: when LLCs have specific goals of social outreach and community leadership, inwardly exemplifying those ideals is helpful for students who are learning how to lead in external communities. Because the [Leadership LLC] is specifically geared for leadership, this aspect of the CVI model is particularly relevant to its purpose.

Frazier and Eighmy (2012) illustrate the value of purposeful faculty and staff through participant interviews and find that students with more faculty and staff interaction had a higher level of satisfaction with the LLC than did those with less interaction. Shared vision is also mentioned in this study, showing that clear planning is important for resident satisfaction (Frazier, & Eighmy, 2012). Likewise, a study by Richardson & Stroud (2014) illustrated the importance of shared vision in building an LLC. Aspects that involve infrastructure of LLCs are also important, including geographic location of the LLC, availability of activities and specialized programming, technology, and residential hall design (Bauer & Kiger, 2017; Spanierman et al. 2013). LLC community sentiment generally focuses on sense of belonging, support and satisfaction within participating students' programs (Rohli & Rogge, 2012; Spanierman et al., 2013). These sentiments are linked to student retention.

Purpose and Objectives

The purpose of this study was to investigate, within the [Leadership LLC] at [University], the influence of demographic variables on first year students' perceptions of community viability based on their scores on the Community Viability Indicator (CVI) instrument. This research

aligns with research priority six of the National Leadership Education Research Agenda, *Social Change and Community Development* (Andenoro et al., 2013) by investigating how diversity may influence one's views on their community and the creation of inclusion community development initiatives. This study was guided by the following objectives:

1. Describe the demographic characteristics and CVI scores of first year students in a [Leadership LLC].
2. Examine the relationship between first year [Leadership LLC] students scores on the CVI and demographic characteristics.

Methods

This study sought to examine the relationship between demographic variables and perceptions of community viability for first year students in the [Leadership LLC] at [University]. The research team employed a nonexperimental, convenience sample as an exploratory method for preliminary data examination (Ary, Jacobs, Irvine, & Walker, 2018). The researchers recruited the participants from a required course for all first year students in the [Leadership LLC]. The researchers direct administered surveys during a class meeting for the course.

Instrumentation

The researchers used the CVI model (Hogg et.al. 2016) to develop a 21 question inventory to measure community perception and attitude toward community viability. The researchers developed the CVI instrument based on previous literature and theories to represent the four constructs: community vision, capable leaders, community sentiment and sustainable infrastructure. The constructs measured community perception and attitude of community viability using a five-point Likert scale range between "strongly disagree," "disagree," "neutral," "agree," or "strongly agree," Community viability perceptions could range on a scale from 21 to 105 with four quartiles evenly representing poor perceptions (quartile 1), moderate perceptions (quartile 2), good perceptions (quartile 3), and excellent perceptions (quartile 4) of community viability. The CVI instrument yielded a good Cronbach's alpha of .857. Additionally, the survey requested participants to report gender, age, ethnicity, and college major through open-ended questions.

Sample and Data Collection

The researchers used a purposive, convenience sample of first-year students in the [Leadership LLC] at [University]. The research team direct administered the survey and collected data during an on-campus leadership course, which is required for all first year students in the [Leadership LLC]. All first years students who attended the leadership course were eligible to participate in the survey. The researchers provided a brief purpose of the research and consent information to [Leadership LLC] students. The researchers informed the students that voluntarily completing the survey implicated applied consent. A total of 139 students participated in the survey. Students were asked to complete the survey considering the [Leadership LLC] as the community of interest. The survey was administered only once during class and took approximately 5-10 minutes to complete.

Data Analysis

The researchers used SPSS (version 24.0; IBM Corp., Armonk, NY) to analyze the data. The research team utilized descriptive statistics, simple linear regression, and one-way ANOVAs to answer the research objectives. The researchers grouped open-ended responses to gender and ethnicity in like categories and grouped majors based on college of enrollment within [University]. Descriptive statistics including ranges, means, and standard deviations were used to report the ages and total CVI scores of participants. Frequencies and percentages for gender, ethnicity, college of enrollment, and CVI quartile were determined. The researchers also determined CVI score means and standard deviations for each category within gender, ethnicity, and college of enrollment. Simple linear regression was employed to determine differences between age and perceptions of community viability with the [Leadership LLC]. The research team used one-way ANOVAs to determine differences between gender, ethnicity, college of enrollment, and perceptions of community viability.

Results

Within this study, the researchers collected data from first year students in the [Leadership LLC] at [University] utilizing the CVI instrument and four demographic items: age, gender, ethnicity, and college of enrollment. CVI scores ranged between 36 to 104 with a mean of 80.28 and standard deviation of 10.24. Participant ages ranged from 18 to 19 with a mean of 18.20 and a standard deviation of .40. The male participants had a mean CVI score of 77.89 and a standard deviation of 9.12 (n=55, P=39.6%). Females had slightly higher CVI scores with a mean of 82.1 and standard deviation of 10.68 (n=83, P=44.39%).

Objective 1

The first year students reported their ethnicities as being: 73.4% White (n=102, M=81.68, SD=9.59), 3.6% Black/African American (n=5, M=73.4, SD=8.53), 12.2% Asian (n=17, M=77.12, SD=14.12), 2.2% Hispanic/Latino (n=3, M=81, SD=7.81), 2.9% Multiracial (n=4, M=81, SD=9.27), and 2.2% falling into the Other category (n=3, M=69.33, SD=4.73). The participants reported their majors, which the researchers categorized based on the college of the major. The results included 26.6% from the College of Engineering (n=37, M=79.32, SD=9.98), 18% from the College of Science (n=25, M=77.12, SD=12.34), 14.4% from the College of Business (n=20, M=81.35, SD=10.78), 12.2% from the College of Liberal Arts and Human Sciences (n=17, M=79.32, SD=8.09), 10.8% from the College of Agriculture and Life Sciences (n=15, M=82.93, SD=10.71), 5.8% in the College of Architecture and Urban Studies (n=8, M=80.13, SD=12.02), 1.4% in College of Natural Resources and Environmental Sciences (n=2, M=83, SD=2.83), and 9.4% as undecided or enrolled in University Studies (n=13, M=81.46, SD=6.48).

Table 1

Range, Mean, and Standard Deviation for CVI Score and Age and Frequencies, Percentages, CVI Means and Standard Deviations for Demographic Variables (N=139)

Variables	*Min*	*Max*	*M*	*SD*

CVI Score	36	104	80.28	10.24
Age	18.00	19.00	18.20	.40
	f	P	*M*	*SD*
Gender				
Male	55		77.89	9.12
	58			
		39.60		
Female	83		82.10	10.68
		44.39		
Ethnicity				
White	102	73.40	81.68	9.59
Black/African American	5	3.60	73.40	8.53
Asian	17	12.20	77.12	14.12
Hispanic/Latino	3	2.20	81.00	7.81
Multiracial	4	2.90	81.00	9.27
Other	3	2.20	69.33	4.73
College				
College of Agriculture & Life Sciences	15	10.80	82.93	10.71
College of Architecture & Urban Studies	8	5.80	80.13	12.02
College of Business	20		81.35	10.78
		14.40		
College of Engineering	37	26.60	79.32	9.98
College of Liberal Arts & Human Sciences	17	12.20	83.47	8.09
College of Natural Resources & Environ	2	1.40	83.00	2.83
College of Science	25	18.00	77.12	12.34
Undecided/University Studies	13	9.40	81.46	6.48

Note. CVI scale

The researchers split the CVI scores into quartiles. Only 1 (P=.70%) participant had a total CVI score in quartile 1, which ranged from 21 to 42. Four participants (P=2.90%) had total scores within quartile 2 ranging from 43 to 63. The majority of participants scored in quartile 3 (*n*=90, P=64.7%) ranging from 64 to 84. There were 44 participants (P=31.7%) in the highest quartile, quartile 4, with scores ranging from 85 to 105.

Table 2

Frequencies and Percentages for CVI Quartiles (N=139)

	f	P
CVI Quartiles		
Quartile 1 (21-42)	1	.70
Quartile 2 (43-63)	4	2.90
Quartile 3 (64-84)	90	64.70
Quartile 4 (85-105)	44	31.70

Note. Quartiles were determined based on the CVI ranges listed next to each quartile.

Objective 2

Objective two examined the differences between perceptions of community viability on the CVI instrument and demographics. The researchers used linear regression to determine if age significantly predicted CVI score. The results indicated no significant relationships between age and CVI score. The researchers used one-way ANOVAs to determine main effects between gender, ethnicity, and college of enrollment. The main effects for ethnicity and college of enrollment did not differ based on CVI score. The effect of gender was significant, $F(1, 135)=5.731$, $p<.05$. Perceptions of community viability were significantly higher for females ($M=82.1$, $SD=10.68$) than in males ($M=77.89$, $SD=9.12$).

Table 3

Differences between CVI Scores Based on Demographic Variables

	B	*SE B*	*β*	*t*	*p*
Age	3.717	2.229	.143	1.667	.098
	df	*SS*	*MS*	*F*	*p*
Gender					
Between Groups	1	582.545	582.545	5.731	.018
Within Groups	135	13722.565	101.649		
Ethnicity					
Between Groups	5	963.478	192.696	1.869	.104
Within Groups	128	13199.955	103.125		
College					
Between Groups	7	615.019	87.860	.832	.563
Within Groups	129	13624.572	105.617		

Note. Significance at the *p <.05 level, 2-Tailed.

Discussion, Recommendations, and Conclusions

This study utilizes the CVI instrument, which quantitatively measures aspects of an LLC community to determine its viability. CVI constructs represent components of LLCs that are considered central to their purpose and success; they also have been shown in other environments to indicate community viability. Community viability evaluations are valuable for LLCs. Results can indicate success in achieving the strong, supportive environment LLCs aim to embody or may lead an LLC to take a critical look at the stability of its structure. This study included demographic items in order to account for factors that have been shown to influence perceptions of a community, including sense of belonging and feelings of having academic support.

Overall, the [Leadership LLC] responses yielded a mean score of 80.28, which indicates relatively high sense community viability. Average scores fell in the third quartile, and distribution of ethnic populations were not significantly different. This congruence in perception of community between ethnic groups adds to a conversation in the literature about factors that influence perceptions of community in learning environments. Meeuwisse, Severens, & Born (2010) find that in many contexts, white students feel a stronger sense of community than do other groups. Others found that diverse groups of students benefit similarly from sense of belonging in academic settings (Spanierman et al., 2013). It is possible that, like students in other academic environments, some Leadership LLC students' perceptions of their community were affected by their ethnic identity or by their cultural perspective and some were not.

Though there were no significant differences, the three students who categorized themselves as an "other" ethnic group reported lower perceptions of community viability when compared with other students in the [Leadership LLC]. This may be something the [Leadership LLC] wants to investigate further to ensure an inclusive environment is being built, which provides an equal voice for all (Hogg et al., 2016). However, for most students in the [Leadership LLC] population, this community serves as a viable community.

Our findings also indicate that male and female students' perceptions of community significantly differ within the [Leadership LLC]. Gender is not a factor that has been investigated in LLC perceptions of community or in community viability perceptions. This finding should be followed up with an investigation into why this difference may occur in and how efforts may be made to better foster a sense of community among male students in the [Leadership LLC].

These results may be used to shed light on how this LLC is perceived by its participants to be viable. It is a way to gain understanding of how it is meeting its community-focused goals. Other LLCs, especially those with a leadership focus, can benefit in the same way: learning how efforts to embody the values they aim to promote in outside communities are represented in their internal environment. Community viability is a lens that can also inform administrators about the sustainability and resilience of their LLC and may reflect the sense of community and interconnectedness that students are perceiving within the community.

Limitations of this study are that it was conducted at one university and not compared to similar groups or schools. Therefore it cannot be generalized to a wider population and must be taken as an indicator of this particular sample.

Recommendations from this study are that other LLCs evaluate their community viability and the congruence of community perceptions among different groups in diverse populations. LLCs can use knowledge of discrepancies in perceptions of their community viability to reach out to disconnected groups. In order to increase community viability, LLC leaders should follow up with in depth looks into their community which give voice to students. Focus groups, interviews, photo narratives, and other participatory approaches can add depth to general community findings. There is also a need for understanding gender differences in LLC community perceptions. Understanding how those with different gender identities participate in and perceive their communities can help LLCs reach students more.

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Leadership Development Readiness: Furthering our understanding of this multi-dimensional construct

Abstract

Although Leader Developmental Readiness (LDR) has been discussed in the leadership literature, there has been little consensus on what constitutes LDR. Our research provides a cohesive model of the motivational components of LDR. Three hundred twenty-eight first semester freshmen students from five universities involved in leadership development programs were used to test our model that suggests LDR as having a general readiness to learn (GRL), leader possible self (LPS), leadership self-efficacy (LSE), and motivation to lead (MTL). The cluster analysis yielded two distinct groups of individuals: Mature and Emerging LDR. The Mature cluster was associated with higher GRL, LPS, LSE, and MTL. Having environmental support factors such as higher SES, past leadership experience, and school engagement predicted higher LDR.

Introduction

Organizations and universities pour time and resources into leadership development programs, however, research indicates varying success in the return on investment (ROI) of these programs (Avolio et al., 2009). One of the reasons that these programs fail to maximize their ROI is the preparedness of the leaders to develop (Reichard & Walker, 2016). For example, twin methodology studies examining the heritability of leader emergence find an estimation of 24-31% variance in leader emergence that could be accounted for by genetic components (DeNeve et. al., 2013). Some of this variance might be attributed to indirect influences of genes such as personality traits, and cognitive factors that influence both the understanding and the motivation to be a leader and which are influenced by early life experiences. A malleable element of preparing for leadership development is eliciting motivation to develop leadership and providing a supportive environment that will optimize one's ability to develop. Leader developmental readiness (LDR) was introduced a decade ago yet little research has been conducted to determine the components of LDR, its antecedents, and its consequences. The purpose of this exploratory research is to gain a better understanding of what constitutes motivational LDR and determine what causes this portion of LDR to develop.

Literature Review

Leadership Developmental Readiness

Two definitions of LDR have emerged. Day, Harrison, and Halpin (2009) define LDR in the terms of readiness of leadership experience and focus on how prepared an individual is to benefit and learn from a developmental experience. Hannah and Lester (2009) define LDR as "the ability and motivation to attend to, make meaning of, and appropriate new knowledge into one's long-term memory structures." Hannah and Avolio (2008; 2009) describe the construct as being multidimensional, consisting of two higher order constructs. Their definition includes an individual's *motivation to develop* and *ability to develop*. Motivation to develop includes leader interests and goals, having a learning goal orientation (LGO), and leader developmental efficacy.

Ability to develop as a leader includes self-awareness, self-complexity, and metacognitive ability (Hannah & Avolio, 2010). Finally, to maximize leadership developmental readiness, there must be a supportive environment (Reichard & Walker, 2016). Reichard and Walker (2016) tied these theories into a conceptual linear model of LDR. This model utilizes the higher order constructs described by Hannah and Avolio (2008, 2009*): motivation to develop* and *ability to develop*. The motivation portion of LDR includes holding a leadership identity (I am a leader"), motivation to lead, leadership self-efficacy (LSE), and LGO. Motivational goals to impact the actual effectiveness of leader development efforts (Reichard & Walker, 2016). Environmental support need to be available to inspire and facilitate leadership growth.

This paper examines aspects of LDR that comprise motivation to develop. Based upon the existing body of research, we have conceptualized the motivational elements of LDR into having a general readiness to learn (learning goal-orientation (Culbertson & Jackson, 2016), the ability to self-regulate (Church & Rotolo, 2010), and resilience (Reichard & Walker, 2016)), holding a leader possible self (LPS, Sessa et al., 2017), having motivation to lead (Chan & Drascow, 2001), having LSE (Reichard, et al., 2017). Motivation to develop is important to look at from a leader development perspective due the fact that it is more easily manipulated and thus more developable than the ability components of LDR.

Motivational Components of LDR

General Readiness to Learn

Readiness to learn is a construct frequently researched in educational psychology, especially in young students first entering learning environments (Rubenson, 1998; Coolhan, Fantuzzo, Mendez, & McDermott, 2000; Thomas, 2006; Janus & Duku, 2007). Some studies focus on readiness to learn as the cognitive (concrete subject matter knowledge) and noncognitive (autonomy, adaptability, comfort in educational environment) skills involved in the process of learning, both prior to and during learning episodes (Rubenson, 1998; Janus & Duku, 2007). Other studies focus on openness to learning, persistence, and self-regulation in addition to the previously discussed factors (Coolahan et al., 2000; Thomas, 2006). For the purpose of this study, we define general readiness as composed of LGO, self-regulation, and resilience.

Learning Goal-Orientation

An individual's goal-orientation (GO) will impact the type of goals they will set (VandeWalle, Cron, & Slocum, 2001). Goal-setting has repeatedly provided evidence that setting goals leads to significant gains in performance (Locke & Latham, 2006). It is important to understand how goals are approached and set when accelerating leader development (Hannah & Avolio, 2010). Individuals set goals with the intention of learning and developing (LGO), or with the intention of demonstrating one's ability level (prove goal-orientation) or avoiding appearing incompetent (performance-avoid goal-orientation). Leaders with a strong LGO will set more challenging developmental goals than leaders with a performance goal orientation and these more challenging developmental goals should then lead to greater levels of LDR (Culbertson & Jackson, 2016). Individuals with a LGO set goals related to learning and developing, which sets the stage for LDR. LGO leaders accept constructive feedback through self-regulatory processes more so than individuals with PGO. Individuals who seek feedback more set personal

developmental goals based upon the feedback they receive (Payne et al., 2007). This manifests in a propensity to continuously self-develop leadership even once desirable levels of performance are achieved. Ultimately, GO is germane to LDR because of how an individual's GO effects their general readiness to learn and ultimately their continued development as a leader (Culbertson & Jackson, 2016).

Self-regulation

A second factor that influences readiness to learn is self-regulation. Self-regulation includes the ability to develop, implement, and flexibly maintain planned behavior in order to achieve ones' goals (Kanfer, 1970). Self-regulation initially develops from social sources (Schunk & Zimmerman, 1997). This may include learning from having an adult mentor, peer role model, or pursuing social activities. Novice learners acquire learning strategies most rapidly from teaching, social modeling, task structuring, and encouragement (Zimmerman & Rosenthal, 1974). Support from social influences does not disappear with advancing skill acquisition and there is continued reliance on supportive environmental sources (Zimmerman, 2000). Zimmerman (2000) presents self-regulation as a cyclical process beginning with a forethought phase where goal-setting and strategic planning interact with motivational beliefs such as self-efficacy, expectations, intrinsic motivations, and learning goal orientations to prepare a person for self-regulatory performance. Zimmerman's three-phase self-regulation model includes a forethought phase that precedes actual performance. The performance (volitional) control phase involves processes that occur during learning and affect attention and action (Schunk & Zimmerman, 2003). During the self-reflection phase that occurs following the performance, people reflect upon their efforts before continuing the self-regulation cycle. Individuals may notice a trigger in the environment that requires them to learn and change. Learners who are highly capable of self-regulating are more likely to attribute poor performances to strategy deficiency than are poorly self-regulated individuals (Kitsantas, 2002). Identifying that one is not at his or her desired level results in identification of development needs. This then directs attention to the nature of development strategies and contributes to motivation to engage with development actions (Kanfer, 2005). Learners monitor their process towards their goal and if progress is not made or the plan is proving to be deficient in some manner, they modify their behavior. Finding a new environmental support may make self-regulators more likely to be resilient when their first leadership attempts are less than successful. Models of leadership development suggest that self-regulation is an essential component of self-directed leadership development (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Nesbit, 2012).

Resilience

The resilience construct has been studied across many disciplines including business and industrial organizational psychology, (Bargavi, Samuel & Paul, 2017; Britt et al., 2016; Shek & Lung, 2016; Wang, Li & Li, 2017), family counseling (Walsh, 2002), and child development (Luthar, Cicchetti & Becker, 2000). Meredith et al. (2011) reviewed the resilience literature and found 104 definitions of resilience. A theme that emerged is that resilient individual has the ability to "bounce back" when faced with misfortune or adversity. The resilience construct is not an entirely inherent trait and can be developed in an individual. Resilience does not come from extraordinary qualities, but largely from the everyday social supportive resources available to individuals (Matsen, 2001). We define resilience as the process of, capacity for, or outcome of

successful adaptation despite challenging or threatening circumstances (Coleman & Hagell 2007; Masten, 2001; Werner, 2000) that leads to positive growth within the individual (Britt et al., 2016). Stoltz (2004) asserts that "resilient individuals, teams, and organizations consistently outlast, outmaneuver, and outperform their less resilient competitors – making resilience training one of the most important emerging trends in learning". Individual factors (e.g. healthy attribution style, hope) or dispositional attributes (e.g. emotional stability, openness, and agreeableness), relational factors (e.g. social support, supportive family environment), and community factors (e.g. good school or community assets) help foster resilience (Shek & Leung, 2016). Anecdotes from resilient pathway analyses have shown that opportunities at critical moments in someone's life play an important role in the life course of individuals who find mentors (Cairns & Cairns, 1994; Werner & Smith, 1982). One of those critical opportunities is developing leadership skills in college. Having a supportive environment such as a mentor can aid and encourage resilience in students attempting to develop leadership skills. Limited empirical evidence connecting resilience and leadership exists although a relationship was been demonstrated in millennial leaders (Bargavi, Annad & Paul, 2017). Researchers of leadership and positive psychology (Luthans, Luthans & Luthans, 2004) suggest it be included in the LDR model. Seligman (2002) offered that the root underlying all positive aspects of leadership should extensively be studied in order to develop leadership and resilience strategies for challenging and turbulent times. Regarding LD in college, university life itself is stressful and requires students to persevere in curricular and co-curricular spheres to overcome challenges while maintaining effort and engagement. Adjustment and academic success at university require high levels of resilience (Munro & Pooley, 2009), although research on resilience and university life is limited. Luthans & Avolio (2003) advocated that the ability to be resilient is a core component of leadership development and that resilience is needed to persist towards developmental goals.

Leader Possible Selves

Individuals can hold multiple, distinct identities that include relatively stable and unchanging aspects of the self (actual self-concept), as well as contextually specific aspects of the self (possible self-concept) (Markus & Wurf, 1987). While the a*ctual self* refers to a person's representation of who they already are, *possible self* represents individuals' ideas of what they might become, what they would like to become, and what they are afraid of becoming (Markus & Nurius, 1986). Possible selves can be viewed as cognitive manifestations of enduring goals, motives, and fears, and are powerful incentives that motivate action in the pursuit and acquisition of those goals (Oyserman, Bybee, & Terry, 2006). Self-discrepancy theory describes the discrepancy between actual self and possible self provides direction and impetus for action, change, and development towards becoming that possible self (Higgins, 1987). Self-regulatory theories suggest the ways in which individuals' possible selves may direct and motivate behavior (Lord, Diefendorff, Schmidt, & Hall, 2010). One domain in which a possible self can emerge is leadership (Avolio & Vogelgesang, 2011). Components of a LPS might include the ability to see oneself as a leader (referred to as availability, Norman & Aron, 2003), the desire (or not) to be a leader (referred to as accessibility, Norman & Aron, 2003), the belief that one can become a leader (referred to as perceived control, Norman & Aron, 2003), and the choice of the type of leader to be. Additional components of a LPS might include genetic, situational, and psychosocial developmental factors (Sessa et al., 2017). In order to sustain long-term interest and motivation for developing and eventually practicing leadership, a leadership role must become

part of one's *actual self*-identity (Lord & Hall, 2005); a leader's possible self in a domain is a precursor to their actual identity. The more salient and central an identity, the more likely a person will intentionally seek out opportunities to engage in activities, groups, situations, and relationships that align with that identity (Santee & Jackson, 1979). This suggests that individuals with a strong and integrated leader possible self would be more motivated and ready to engage in leader development and to exercise leadership than individuals not holding such an identity, or those whose leader identity is less important to them (Priest & Middleton, 2016). Leadership development is viewed as enhancing the fit between the requirements of the leader's role and a leader's identity (Hall, 2004). An individual's conceptualization of leadership and their leadership identity is shaped by relationships, developmental experiences, and contexts over time (Drath et al., 2008; Komives et al., 2005).

Leader Self-Efficacy

LSE refers to an individual's belief that they can take on and function in a leadership role (Avolio & Vogelgesang, 2011). Bandura (1986, 1995, 1997), theorized that self-efficacy, stems from greater self-awareness though an individual's processing mastery experiences, vicarious learning, social persuasion, and intense psychological states. Self-efficacy is associated with motivation to lead and can serve as an important source of leadership motivation (Bandura, 1993, 1995, 1997). Human functioning involves reciprocal interactions between behaviors, environmental variables, and cognitions and other personal factors (Bandura, 1986). This reciprocity is exemplified with an important construct in Bandura's theory: perceived self-efficacy, or beliefs about one's capabilities to lead (Schunk, 1989). A leader's internal self-confidence level can determine whether he or she accepts or strives for formal and informal leadership positions and performs well as a leader (Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1991; Machida & Schaubroeck, 2011). LSE influences LDR through willingness to engage in and commit to roles and experiences that will self-develop leadership above and beyond one's previous leadership development level (Hannah et. al., 2008; Reichard et al., 2017). Furthermore, LSE plays an important role in determining whether or not individuals are motivated to become leaders and eventually persist as a leader (Anderson et al., 2008: Hannah et al., 2008).

Motivation to Lead

Chan and Drasgow (2001) define Motivation to Lead (MTL) as a relatively stable paradigm that "affects a leader's or leader-to-be's decisions to assume leadership training, roles, and responsibilities and that affect his or her intensity of effort at leading and persistence as a leader". This occurs along three dimensions described as *Affective Identity (AI) MTL, Social Normative (SN) MTL,* and *Non-Calculative (NC) MTL*. *Affective identity MTL*, essentially refers to individuals who generally get enjoyment out of leading others and therefore are motivated to take on leadership roles. *Social Normative MTL* describes individuals who take on leadership roles because they feel a sense of duty or responsibility to lead. Finally, some are motived to lead because they do not calculate the responsibilities or costs of leadership and are less likely to avoid leadership; *non-calculative MTL*. Specifically for student leaders, the more they are motivated, the more they engage and display interests in the task at hand (Bardou et. al., 2003; Pintrich & Schunk, 1995). In the context of LDR, students who are more motivated to lead might be more engaged and motivated to develop leadership skills.

Antecedents: LDR environment

Supportive Environment

When motivation and ability to develop interact, their multiplicative efforts maximize the success of a leadership development when the surrounding environment is highly supportive of that process (Reichard & Walker, 2016). This may be fostered with having a peer role model, an adult mentor, past leadership experience, school engagement, and higher social-economic status (Komives, Owen, Longerbeam, Mainella, & Osteen, 2005; Reichard & Walker, 2017; Sessa et al., 2017; Soria, Hussein, & Vue, 2014). Individuals with a highly supportive environment, should, therefore, have a more developed leader readiness than individuals coming from an environment that is not rich with supportive factors. An individual's environmental support factors may serve as a catalyst for development through increases in leadership self-efficacy, seeing oneself as a potential leader, motivating leadership intentions or encouraging a readiness to learn leadership. It may also provide the needed sustenance when an individual is attempting to develop themselves as a leader.

Peer Role Model/Adult Mentorship.

Mentoring is defined as the matching of a novice with a more experienced person in the same role (Reiss, 2007). Mentoring can be useful in enhancing the development of mentees (Tracey & Nicholl, 2007) through a complex relationship based upon a social exchange between at least two individuals (Boyer, 2003). Mentors help their mentees become more comfortable with their role as a leader (Reiss, 2007). Mentorship is "assumed to foster teamwork, motivation, and help increase competency levels of mentees when incorporated into leadership development programs and organizational systems" (Messmer, 2003; Solanksy, 2010). During the highly influential years of a developing leader's life, future leaders develop leadership experience through direct experience such as extracurricular activities (sports team, clubs, community service) and through observing influential adults (Murphy & Reichard, 2012). The identification of an adult role model during this critical time period can inspire leadership action and can aid in LDR by praising effort and progress, which instills a learning goal-orientation (Gunderson et al., 2016; Reichard & Walker, 2016). In one's college development, finding an adult mentor (faculty, administrator, member of the community) can motivate students to lead and encourage their passion to do so by identifying and aiding opportunities for the student to lead and helping them find strategies for development that will enhance their ability to plan, regulate, and evaluate their own growth as a leader over time (Reichard & Walker, 2016). The literature on mentor leader relationships suggests that participating in a mentoring relationship is a powerful predictor of leadership gains (Astin, 1993; Campbell, Dugan, Komives, 2012, Dugan & Komives, 2010; Kezar & Moriarty, 2000; Komives et al., 2005, Parks, 2000). Scholars have found explicit connections between mentoring and leadership through the recognition that the processes of modeling leadership behaviors impact mentee's actual capacities for leadership (Godshalk & Sosik, 2000; Popper & Lipshitz, 1993). This is achieved largely due to the nurturing and supportive environment fostered by the mentor (Scandura, Tejeda, Werther & Lankau, 1996). In fact, a national dataset representing more than 50 institutions and 50,000 respondents found that faculty mentoring was one of the most powerful predictors in leadership outcomes, although peer

mentoring and student administrative mentoring demonstrated a positive effect on specific leadership outcomes (Dugan & Komives, 2010). The mentoring process and type of mentor in one's leadership capacity above and beyond what can be explained by institutional variables, precollege leadership outcomes, and demographic variables alone (Campbell & Dugan, 2012).

Given the time constraints of adult mentors, research suggests that the students frequently seek out of types of mentors such as their peers (Kram & Isabella, 1985; Parks, 2000). Some research advocates that peer support may be even more important than supervisor support (Gegenfurtner et al., 2009). In a college setting, a student is not required to interact with faculty outside of the classroom and some students may feel hesitant to initiate or ask for a mentor relationship with someone with positional power. Also, college students have far more interactions with their peers on a regular basis than they do with faculty, administrators, or other potential adult mentors. As a result, peers for many college students, account for a larger amount of a student's supportive environment. Peer influence may include students joining a friend or roommate to participate in leader development opportunities (university leadership programs) or for general advice or recommendations (Thompson & Reichard, 2016). Peer mentoring not only provides a supportive environment, but it also serves as an important developmental experience for the mentor and mentee, plays a role in student leader identity development (Komives, et al., 2005) and aids in leader competency development (Dugan & Komives 2010). These studies suggest that mentors and role models may also influence the environment and opportunities that developing individuals are exposed to, which in turn could influence the emergence of a LPS in college students (Sessa et al., 2017). Ultimately whether it is adult or peer support, the developing leader's perception of support in the environment is what makes the impact (Gegenfurtner et al., 2009) and enables motivational LDR.

Past Leadership

In all human behavior, one of the best predictors of future performance is past performance. Having previous leadership experience has obvious developmental benefits through experiential learning. In fact, one of the primary sources of learning to lead is through experience (McCall, 2004). College student precollege leadership capacity, knowledge, and success regularly emerge as significant predictors of taking on leader positional roles in college and beyond (Arvey, et al., 2007; Dugan, et al., 2008; Dugan & Komives, 2007). In addition, the more past leadership experience and individual has, the more likely they are to take on a leadership identity (Sessa et al., 2017). A stronger leadership identity inspires motivation to lead and the greater motivation to lead, the more drive there will be to develop as a leader (Reichard & Walker, 2017).

School Engagement

To our knowledge, school engagement is a construct that has not been examined as antecedent to leadership development. School engagement is defined as the student's psychological investment in and effort directed toward learning, understanding, or mastering the knowledge, skills, or crafts that academic work is intended to promote (Lamborn, Newmann & Wehlage, 1992). According to the High School Survey of Student Engagement (HSEEE), although the majority of students report intentions of attending college, many do not engage in the kinds of educational activities that will prepare them for success in college (McCarthy & Kuh, 2006).

The HSEEE findings suggest that not all students have developed the habits that will enable them to succeed with the challenging intellectual tasks that college and developing leadership require. Students who are more engaged in school will be more involved and attentive in the classroom, they put a lot of energy into their schoolwork, become involved in school decision-making processes, become immersed in extracurricular activities, and they will feel a sense of value and belonging to their school. Simply put, students who are highly engaged in school will get more out of the opportunities a school offers them. This will help them develop in a number of areas including leadership. We posit that students who had a supportive environment in high school will be more engaged and have a higher self-efficacy and LGO which promotes the MTL and GRL components of LDR.

SES

One of the earliest and most longitudinally influential environmental influences is the home environment one was raised in. A body of research supports the notion that childrearing practices significantly influence children's early socialization, development and adolescent life. Parents are seen as baring responsibility for nurturing their children and carefully grooming them into functioning adults that contribute to society (Maccoby, 2000). Among factors related to parenting and child-rearing, socioeconomic status (SES) generates much attention. Parents of high SES are able to provide their children with a wider range of experiences, material resources, and social interactions that many low SES families do not have access to, resulting in differential outcomes for children (Bradley & Corwyn, 2002). For example, studies have established a link between parent's SES and child rearing practices (Yunus & Dahlan, 2013) as well as educational outcomes of children (Kan & Tsai, 2005; Yunus & Dahlan, 2013). In traditional college aged students, SES is associated with career expectations (Pisarik & Shoffner, 2009) and the likelihood of participating in positional leadership positions while in college (Soria, Hussein, & Vue, 2014). Additionally, communities with higher SES have a wider range of social and developmental support available. This may increase the opportunity for leadership experiences or provide a greater opportunity positive community mentors or role models. This suggests that family SES may influence the environment and opportunities that individuals are exposed to, which in turn could influence the LDR of college students.

Other environmental factors influencing LDR

Another factor influencing LDR is having a triggering event or critical incident that inspires leadership readiness. Triggering events (also referred to as turning points, epiphanies, defining moments, or crucibles) are points of disequilibrium and heightened self-awareness that can lead the individual to challenge his or her basic beliefs and assumptions (Avolio & Luthans, 2006, pp. 335) and may include unexpected opportunities, challenges, or losses. Triggering events related to leadership may challenge an individual's assumptions about him or herself as a leader thus leading to participation in leadership development or taking on a leadership role. They have been linked to leader identity development (Toor & Ofori, 2008) and to leader development (Shamir & Eilam, 2005). Triggering events related to leadership may challenge an individual's assumptions about him or herself as a leader thus leading to participation in leadership development. The discovery or development of a leadership passion or purpose is used as the first component of the leadership model (Reichard & Walker, 2016) and therefore, might be an

antecedent to motivational LDR. This inspiring event can inspire a change in thinking and, therefore, serve as a motivational catalyst for leadership development.

In this paper, we explore whether and how the motivational components of LDR cluster. In the literature, it is assumed that all of the motivational components need to be high for a person to be ready to develop their leadership. We were curious to determine if there might be different profiles. In addition, we explore the antecedents to these clusters, with a particular interest in supportive environment factors.

Method

Participants

Researchers approached administrators in charge of freshman leader development programs to elicit participation from four schools offering a freshman leadership development experience and both curricular and co-curricular leadership development programs. Those administrators reached out to students participating in the freshmen leadership development program to alert them to the study, describe it, and encourage their participation. A total of 328 participants were drawn from 1,820 first-semester students enrolled in leader development programs at five schools for a response rate of 18%. Three of the 5 programs are co-curricular and two are curricular programs. These institutions differed on a variety of characteristics such as size (4 large, 1 small), Carnegie classification (1 teaching, 4 research), and public/private (4 public, 1 private). Students were traditionally aged freshman with 70% female, 49% Caucasian, 17% Asian, 16% Hispanic, 9% African-American, and 9% coming from another racial group or having multiple racial identities.

Procedures

A graduate student sent emails to interested students with a link to an online survey. Students received a $10 gift card for their participation in each survey (and completing at least 90% of the survey).

Measures

Motivation to lead

The scale developed by Chan & Drasgow (2001) to measure the MTL construct describes three types of motivation to be a leader and was used to measure leader MTL. The original 27 item scale was reduced to 17 items; only items with factor loadings of over 0.60 were retained. The first section of this scale is designed to measure Affective-Identity MTL for example, “Most of the time, I prefer being a leader rather than a follower when working in a group” (α=.82). The next section is designed to measure Non-calculative MTL, for example, “I am only interested to lead a group if there are clear” (α=.72). The last section is designed to measure Social-normative MTL, for example “I feel that I have a duty to lead others if I am asked” (α=.73).

Leader self-efficacy

Leader self-reflectiveness is measured by LEQ. We measured leader self-efficacy using a 22-item scale adapted from Hannah & Avolio (2013) that looks at three components of leader

efficacy, leader action self-efficacy, leader self-regulation efficacy and leader means efficacy, as well as an overall score. For the purposes of this research we looked at the overall scale score. Cronbach's alpha for the overall scale was .92.

Leader possible self

A 10-item LPS scale (Sessa et al., 2017) was used to determine if students thought of leadership as something that they could develop and whether they wanted to develop it themselves. The measure includes 5 items that determine whether an individual sees leadership as something that is innate or that it can be developed over time. (Reverse scored; (α=.69). This scale also included 5 items intended to measure an individual's goals in becoming a leader (α=.76).

General readiness to learn

General readiness to learn included 91 questions determined by measuring openness to learning VandeWall (1997), self-regulation Brown, Miller & Lawendowski (1999), and resilience (Wagnild, 1993). For this research, the measures were combined recoded into one general readiness to learn variable (α =.70). *Openness to learning* was assessed using the goal orientation, a 13-item scale was developed by VandeWall (1997). This study utilized the learning goal-orientation component of the scale (α= .89). *Self-Regulation* was assessed by the Self-regulation Questionnaire was developed by Brown, Miller & Lawendowski (1999). The overall scale had a Cronbach's alpha of 90). *Resilience* was assessed by using (Wagnild, 1993). Internal consistency of the scale was (α=.88).

Demographic and other variables

Gender was determined by asking students "What is your gender?" Ethnicity was determined by asking students "What is your race?" GPA was determined by asking students "What was your high school GPA?" Social economic status was measured using a single item measuring student perception of SES: "How would you describe your family's financial situation?" These were measured with two questions asking whether students had adult and peer mentors or role models. Response categories for these questions were "Yes" and "No". Past leadership experience was assessed on the following: 1.) experience in leader roles during high school, 2.) duration in leadership situations in high school and 3) perception of overall leadership experience as compared to peers. Items were collapsed into one scale measuring students' overall past leadership experience (α=.78). The "Student Engagement and Family Culture Survey" was used and contains 70 items measuring student participation in school activities, student identification with school, and students' perceptions of their family educational culture (Leithwood & Jantzi, 2000). The overall 40 item school engagement scale had a Cronbach's alpha of .93**.** Triggering event was measured by asking "Can you recall an incident or conversation that encouraged you to develop leadership skills?" Response categories were "Yes" and "No".

Results

Scale descriptives and correlations are provided in Tables 1 and 2.

An exploratory hierarchal cluster analysis was conducted to discover patterns in the data that demonstrate how individuals grouped together on their LDR. Squared Euclidean distances were used as the basis of cluster formation according to Ward's method (Norusis, 1990). This method groups participants together based upon their level of each LDR component. This works by determining the distance between the two most dissimilar points of the clusters being combined. When there is a significant drop between the change or distance between clusters, this is the optimal number of clusters or groups of subjects (Powell & Mainiero, 1999).

An examination of the coefficients suggested that a two-cluster solution was optimal. The analysis yielded two distinct groups. As can be seen in Table 3, cluster one was labeled "Mature LDR" as the 273 individuals grouped into this cluster had a higher general readiness to learn, a higher LPS-score, were more motivated to lead across all three scales, and higher leadership efficacy. The second cluster, labeled "Emerging LDR" as the 55 individuals grouped into this cluster were less ready to learn in general, held a lower LPS-score, were less motivated to lead across all three scales, and had lower leader self-efficacy.

As demonstrated in Table 4, a binary logistic regression was used to determine how the antecedents predicted cluster membership. Cluster membership was regressed on demographics (race, gender, and GPA), supportive environment (SES, engagement in high school, previous leadership experience, and the presence of role models and mentors), and the presence of a triggering event. Supportive environment (SES, high school engagement, and previous leadership experience) was associated with the Mature LDR cluster.

Discussion

In this research, our conceptualization of LDR aimed at bringing together the body of research and defining the motivational components of LDR. Our findings suggest two clusters of individuals in terms of their motivational portion of LDR which we termed Mature LDR and Emerging LDR. Those coming from a highly supportive environment with higher SES, more previous leadership experience, and greater school engagement were in the Mature LDR cluster. Future research should determine how LDR as measured here combined with ability to develop predicts participation in further leadership development for college students and post-graduate career. This study offers further credence to the idea that engagement in school in general as well as the opportunity to participate in leadership activities are important in the development of future leaders. Furthermore, this study offers psychometric affirmation that the LDR components have convergent validity and discriminant validity through the moderate correlations amongst the LDR variables.

The theoretical contributions of this research include establishing a coherent framework for LDR by tying together the existing body of research on the construct. It provides empirical evidence for the inclusion of motivation to lead, leadership self-efficacy, leader possible self, and general readiness to learn as the motivational components of LDR. It also indicates that there are two groups of individuals in terms of their motivational aspects of LDR. Mature LDR individuals have had rich environment that has provided the support needed for someone to be ready to develop. Environmental support factors are meaningful antecedents to developing a high level of LDR and include such things as SES, past leadership, and school engagement. Ultimately, the

more support an individual has, the more likely they will be ready to develop as a leader. In addition, this research provides support and validation for Sessa et al. 2017's leader possible self-scale.

Leadership development is a continuous process over the course of someone's lifespan. Therefore, there are implications for development opportunities for individuals in college and in organizations. This research suggests that a supportive environment will enhance the motivational components of one's LDR. One way for individuals to build upon their readiness to develop leaderships is through increasing one's self-awareness. An example of this might include assessing an individual's GO to help the leader become aware of his or her tendencies. This can be used to promote LGO which has been linked to both general and leadership specific self-efficacy. Leadership self-efficacy can be further developed through enactive mastery (allowing individuals to gain leadership experiences that will enhance their self-confidence), vicarious modeling (role modeling or mentor relationship to demonstrate successful leadership), verbal persuasion (coaching and encouragement) and arousal (creating enthusiasm about becoming a leader) (Bandura, 1997).

Feedback seeking behavior should be built into training programs as it increases LGO, promotes self-regulation, and ultimately developmental readiness. Organizations and universities providing leadership development programs should provide environmental supports and encourage feedback seeking behavior in order to maximize the aforementioned motivational components of their developing leaders. Practioners should focus on creating a supportive environment conducive to LDR when developing students in high school, college, and in developing leaders within organizations. This should also be considered when designing leadership events and opportunities at the schools. This study offers further credence to the idea that engagement in school in general as well as the opportunity to participate in leadership activities specifically are important in the development of future leaders. Educators need to continue to develop ideas that will encourage all students (starting in high school) to take control and engage in their own learning and their own leadership learning.

As with all research, there were some limitations to this study. This research was not immune to the ill-effects of self-report and correlational research which may have affected the results. The survey given was quite long and although answers were checked for completeness, there was no way to determine how hastily the answers were given. Also, this research only examined the motivational components of LDR as they are the most developable. The ability to develop also plays a key role in one's LDR and should be examined in future research. Future research should also explore the consequences of LDR perhaps by exploring the developmental pathways college students take. For example, Mature LDR students may be more likely to take on leadership positions in college, whereas the Emerging LDR group may look to take coursework to develop as a leader before beginning to practice their leadership skills within in organization. Future research should look to see how LDR as measured here predicts participation in leadership positions for college students and post-graduation career.

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Table 1
Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations of LDR Components

Variable	Mean	S.D.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Cluster	1.17	.37	1						

MTL AI	3.55	.61	-.380**	1					
MTL SN	3.92	.61	-.348**	.390**	1				
MTL NC	3.54	.76	-.267**	.292**	.235**	1			
LSE	3.98	.76	-.761**	.402**	.425**	.291**	1		
LPS	3.54	.43	-.279**	.253**	.307**	.448**	.299**		
GRL	4.15	.46	-.392**	.430**	.486**	.378**	.516**	.326**	1

Note. $N_{=277}$

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$

Table 2

Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations of LDR Cluster Antecedents

Variable	Mean	S.D	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
Cluster	1.17	.37	1										
LDR	3.79	0.46	-.615**	1									
Gender	1.67	.47	-.008	.199**	1								
Race	.49	.50	-.039	.101*	-.008	1							
HS GPA	3.66	.40	-.003	-.047	.046	.177**	1						
SES	2.96	1.09	-.150**	.081	-.110*	.271**	.211**	1					
Peer Role Model	.76	.43	-.207**	.191**	.066	.070	-.007	.068	1				
Adult Mentor	.81	.39	-.158**	.148*	.099	.105*	-.001	.067	.485**	1			
Past Leadership	2.97	.89	-.331**	.434**	.201**	.074	.007	.061	.143**	.126**	1		
School Engagement	3.96	.56	-.291**	.334**	.135**	.091	.105	.178**	.139**	.179**	.378**	1	
Triggering Event	.76	.43	-.100	.147*	.173**	.081	-.047	-.039	.255**	.175**	.199**	.196**	1

Note. $N_{=277}$

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$

Table 3

Cluster Names, Size, and Means

	Cluster 1	*Cluster 2*
	Mature LDR	*Emerging LDR*
Cluster Size	273	55
Means		
MTL AI	3.66	3.03
MTL SN	4.00	3.43
MTL NC	3.62	3.10
LSE	4.24	2.70

LPS	3.61	3.30
GRL	4.24	3.75

Table 4
Logistic regression predicting LDR Clusters

Variables	*B*	SE
Gender	.536	.418
Race	.169	.381
HS GPA	.154	.573
SES	-.405*	.192
Peer Role Model	-.716	.418
Adult Mentor	-.214	.449
Past Leadership	-1.045****	.258
School Engagement	-.996***	.354
Triggering Event	-.137	.454
$\chi 2$	63.71***	

Note. $N = 277$.
* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .005$, **** $p < .001$

The Implications of Humility on Generosity

Abstract
Recent research has identified the constructs of humility and generosity as potentially important characteristics of effective leadership. Traditional leader-centric models of leadership – where the leader is encouraged to be powerful with a savior-like essence – prove to be increasingly problematic in today's uncertain and complex world. Many contemporary leadership scholars have observed the prosocial benefits of the virtues of humility and generosity. Yet, little is known empirically regarding the relationship between these two constructs. This research examines the connections between humility and generosity in undergraduate students and explores the implications of these virtues on the process of leadership.

Introduction

Contemporary culture and scholarly discourse, over the past century, has become infatuated with the notion of leaders being viewed as idols (Morris, Brotheridge & Urbanski, 2005) possessing a "savior-like essence" (Rost, 1991, p. 94). With the rising tide of American narcissism, including displays of excessive hubris from both presidential nominees in the 2016 election (Collinson, 2016), many leadership scholars are recognizing the value of incorporating humility into leadership theory and practice. For example, some leadership scholars have observed the necessity of moving away from a more traditional, charismatic leadership style in which the leader possesses all the power: "For too long, the dominant paradigms of leadership have centered upon being a passionate leader – decisive, powerful, masculine, driven, self-assured, fearless, ruthless, risk-taking, and so on" (Hoekstra, Bell & Peterson, 2008, p. 2).

In line with the notion that an increase in humility is needed among leaders, many leadership scholars and theorists are suggesting that humility has become especially critical for leaders who direct organizations in increasingly unpredictable and turbulent environments (Senge, 2006; Weick, 2001). Furthermore, research has begun to demonstrate the value of humility within organizations and leadership practice (Collins, 2001; Morris, Brotheridge & Urbanski, 2005; Owens, Johnson & Mitchell, 2013; Vera & Rodriguez-Lopez, 2004). Leaders who practice generosity, who recognize their own limitations, share authority, welcome diverse perspectives, foster collaboration, and put the interests of their followers above their own will be paramount in meeting the challenges facing our communities and organizations.

The ALE national research agenda has expressed within its selected priorities the overall need for leadership educators to consider how to develop effective leaders who can tackle complex problems, lead resilient communities, and create holistic solutions to global problems (Andenoro, et al., 2013). Although recent research demonstrates that humility is associated with prosocial benefits, such as fostering helpfulness (LaBouff, Rowatt, Johnson, Tsang, McCullough Willerton, 2012) and better job performance (Exline, 2012), very little research has been conducted on how humility affects the process of leadership. Additionally, little is known empirically about how humility is connected to generosity and the overall affects of these virtues on leadership. The purpose of this study was to bridge this gap by surveying undergraduate students' levels of humility using a personality inventory connected with a humility subscale and

comparing their scores to an act of generosity that was provided in class (keeping or giving away free extra credit points). Using qualitative themes based on the students' rationales for their decisions, the researchers sought to uncover the importance of humility and how this characteristic impacts generous behavior.

Humility & Generosity Literature Review

Generosity

Author Carol Ryrie Brink once wrote, "The most truly generous persons are those who give silently without hope of praise or reward." Historically speaking, there has long been a connection between the concepts of generosity and leadership. For example, generosity is an important characteristic of servant leadership, transformational leadership and some of the more value-oriented leadership approaches. According to Machen (1998), being generous, as a personality characteristic, persuades individuals to "do good for others." (p. 1). It is closely related to the virtue of kindness, as Peterson and Seligman (2004) note, which is an umbrella term that includes other traits such as being nurturing, empathic, having carefulness and practicing altruism. Generosity as a characteristic, however, separates itself from some of these other traits because it is more spontaneous and is a reflection of a person's character (Machen, 1998). For example, if someone shows empathy towards another person, there could be some sort of presumed disparaging condition where the other person is in need of attention (Machen, 1998). Generosity, on the other hand, has to do with instinctively and freely doing good acts such as assisting someone, delivering thoughtful guidance, being tolerant or having unique concern towards other people without pre-calculating or determining the antecedents or consequences of doing so (Machen, 1998).

Generous Leadership

Generosity, according to Peterson & Seligman (2004) indicates that a person is willing to orient towards others rather than themselves. There are a variety of leadership approaches that contain this notion, among them, servant leadership and transformational leadership. Servant leadership, coined by former AT&T CEO Robert Greenleaf, asks the leader to practice "increased service to others" (p. 4) rather than the traditional, hierarchical style (Spears, 2002, p. 4). Greenleaf (1970) explains, "The servant-leader *is* servant first...It begins with the natural feeling that one wants to serve, to serve *first.*" (Greenleaf, 1970, p. 13). Spears (2010) suggests that the servant leader leads in a way that encourages being relational with her or his followers, it sets out to foster participatory decision making, is rooted in principled considerate actions, improves the development while at the same time seeks the betterment of the organization as a whole (Spears, 2010). Within the theory of servant leadership there are ten major characteristics that the leader must assume, namely, other-oriented traits such as listening, healing and commitment to the growth of people (Spears, 2010). It is this positive, interpersonal foundation that closely aligns servant leadership and generosity, since the leader is committing themselves to essentially "do good" toward his or her followers.

There is also an indirect link between generosity and the theory of transformational leadership. Bass (1990) defines a transformational leader as a leader who motivates individuals to do more than they were originally expected to do, to be individuals who set aside their own personal

interests for the good of the organization (Bass, 1990). Transformational leadership is very follower-focused and interpersonal, with several defining characteristics such as "charisma, inspiration, intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration" (p. 22). An example of a generous and positively oriented characteristic of transformational leadership would be "individualized consideration", which requires the leader to provide personalized consideration including mentoring, advising and coaching her or his followers (Bass, 1990). There is also the "charisma" (p. 22) component of transformational leadership, where leaders go out of their way to impart a sense of self-importance in their followers (Bass, 1990). The common thread between these two leadership approaches is how the leader is always characterized as being interpersonal and other-oriented, the cornerstone to the characteristic of generosity. Having noted these leadership approaches in relation to generosity, it is also important to discuss humility, since the aim of the present study is to bridge the research gap between the two widely known constructs.

Humility

In recent years, one virtue that has gained a significant amount of traction in leadership circles is humility. In many ways, leadership has often attracted the wrong kind of leader (Bekker, 2008). Positions of power and influence have the propensity to draw the proud, ladder-climbing individualists and narcissists (as cited by Bekker, 2008; Taylor, 2005). Due to the ever-increasing instances of corporate dishonesty, such as Enron's widely publicized scandal in the early 2000s where the company's leaders were found to facilitate "fraudulent practices" (p. 182), "greedy acts" (p.182) and "arrogance" (p. 182), the plea for humble leadership has only increased (Knottnerus, Ulsperger, Cummins, & Osteen, 2006, p. 182). There has also been a rising culture, particularly in America, of CEOs being venerated for their perceived boldness and appeal while in leadership positions, which has given rise to unethical business practices and leader egotism (Morris, Brotheridge, & Urbanski, 2005). According to Maccoby (2000), there are a variety of explanations as to why CEOs influence the public more than they used to, but one of the most apparent reasons is that leaders in today's world usually get a lot of publicity (Maccoby, 2000). They also have been at the forefront of new shifts in the business world that require vision and captivation, which leads them to become larger-than-life leaders, giving rise to what Maccoby points out as narcissistic leadership (Maccoby, 2000).

Defining Humility

Defining humility can be somewhat challenging; as with many fields there are a diverse array of viewpoints. There have been several negative connotations associated with humility (Tangney, 2000). At times, authors have attributed a humble person as feeble and submissive, lacking self-confidence and self-admiration (Peterson & Seligman, 2004). Others have connected humility with disgrace, provoking images of shame, embarrassment, or disgust with one's self (Peterson & Seligman, 2004). According to the Merriam-Webster dictionary, humility is defined as "the quality or state of being humble" ("humility", n.d.). The Oxford English Dictionary defines humility as "the quality or state of being humble or having a lowly opinion of oneself; meekness, lowliness, humbleness: the opposite of *pride* or *haughtiness*." ("humility", n.d.). Additionally, the New College Dictionary defines humility as "low in rank, quality, or station; unpretentious or lowly" ("humble", n.d.).

Despite these differing views, more recent theories have welcomed humility not as self-disparagement, but as accuracy. One of the most widely used definitions of humility has been June Price Tangney's (2000) intrapersonal one, which states that to have humility does not mean that one must have a lower view of her or his self, it is to "...have an accurate opinion of oneself." (Tangney, 2000, p. 72). Tangney also asserts that to have humility, one must have an openness to new ideas, as well as the skill to acknowledge one's shortcomings, flaws, spaces in knowledge, and limitations among other attributes (Tangney, 2000). Within the notion of accuracy, many scholars agree that humility contains not only an intrapersonal component, but also an interpersonal, other-oriented one (Zeyala, & Hook, 2016). According to Van Tongeren, & Myers (2017), people who are humble care about the welfare of other people, they keep their egotism in check for the betterment of other individuals and they rank the wants and desires of others above their own (Van Tongeren, & Myers 2017).

Humility and Leadership

Jim Collins (2001) is one of the most well-known leadership scholars to discuss humility in the realm of leadership. In his book *Good to Great: Why Some Companies Make the Leap and Others Don't,* Collins found that leaders in the most enduring and successful companies demonstrated a blend of determination and personal humility (Collins, 2001). These "Level 5" leaders, as he called them, were better able to entertain different perspectives, manage others' emotions, and connect back to the organizational goals than those who had low levels of humility (Collins, 2001). Overlapping with generosity, the characteristic of humility is also closely related to many prevalent leadership theories. For example, Aviolo and Gardner (2005) note that the core of authenticity and genuineness harkens to the ancient Greek philosophical definition "To thine own self be true" (Aviolo & Gardner, 2005, p. 319). Based on these authors' assessments, authentic leaders demonstrate self-awareness, which is closely related to what many scholars like Tangney have written is a key component of humility, "...an enduring orientation to objectively appraise one's abilities and limitations." (Morris, Brotheridge & Urbanski, 2005, p. 1331).

In his contribution to humility research in an organizational leadership context, Owens (2009) argues that there is an increasingly prevalent need for humility in institutes and companies because of the turbulence and uncertainty that comes with being a leader in complex organizations (Owens, 2009). Discussing how leaders who practice humility have more of an open mind to different perspectives, Vera Rodriguez-Lopez (2004) asserts, "Humble leaders have a more realistic perspective of the complexity of the world and acknowledge the limitations of their current paradigms and strategies." (p. 399). It seems as though there is a generous amount of evidence that supports the likelihood that humility is a positive trait for leadership.

Current Research Connecting Humility and Generosity

In 2012, Exline and Hill published an article which found that the virtue of humility is a "consistent and robust predictor of generosity" (p. 208). The purpose of the research was to measure the magnitude of relationship between humility and generosity using self-reports of generosity and humility along with an additional dispositional measure of humility (Exline & Hill, 2012). In all three studies on undergraduate students, humility surfaced as a reliable way to predict generosity and the results of the data showed the connection between humility and

generosity was strong (Exline & Hill, 2012). This research presents itself as an interesting line of inquiry, with potential implications for the field of leadership.

Keeping up with the ongoing theme of interpersonal orientation, it would seem that generosity and humility are strongly connected based on the degree to which individuals with humility have the ability to see beyond themselves and their direct wants and desires, they should also be more inclined to be generous towards others (Exline & Hill, 2012). The question worth asking is, are humble individuals who practice generosity better leaders? And does being humble and generous towards others impact an individual's leadership? A study conducted by Hean (2008) set out to investigate how school leaders perceived the concept of humility (Hean, 2008). The findings indicated that five cornerstone components emerged from the leaders' responses, specifically, humility was seen as having awareness of the self, having a more open mindset, disclosing errors and showing "generosity towards others" (p. 1). The implications from Hean's (2008) research seem to correlate humility with generosity, particularly from the perspective of leaders. Although the sample of the study was small (13), this data can begin to open up a line of research that looks at how these virtues are at play when it comes to leadership. The present study looks to expand further on this body of research by seeking to connect humility and generosity to leadership.

Humility Generosity Methodology

The data gathered in this research study was obtained from an undergraduate university in the Southeastern region with a student body of over 50,000. Data was collected in the fall semester of 2017 from n=67 undergraduate students in an introductory leadership course in the agricultural education and communication department of the university. The purpose of the study was to see if there is a connection between students' self-report measurements of humility based on the HEXACO Honesty-Humility subscale and the themes which emerged for the potential act of generosity displayed in class.

Before completing the personality inventory, the students in the course received two extra credit points and were told by the instructor to either (1) keep the points for themselves and have them be factored into their final grade, or (2) give the points away to their classmate(s). There was no option to keep one extra credit point and give one point away; the students had to either keep the points as a whole or give them away entirely. Whether or not the students kept the extra credit points or gave them away, they were required to provide a brief rationale describing why they made their decision. All of the students' responses were submitted on an online learning interface used by the university where the study took place. Based on the aims of the study, the researchers decided to take a general qualitative approach to analyze the data. Once all of the responses were submitted, the researchers went through the data and found emerging themes, coded the themes using open coding, and categorized them using the constant comparative method (Creswell, 2013). From here, the researchers were then able to see the explicit reasons why the students made their decisions and then compared their responses to the scores on the Honesty-Humility subscale. The study explored the thematic differences for giving or keeping the extra credit points based on whether the student was in the high-humility, middle-humility, or low humility group.

Measuring Humility

One of the largest discrepancies with examining humility from a research standpoint is measuring, largely because the virtue is very intangible (Hill & Sandage, 2016). There are a variety of self-report measures of humility that have been developed for researchers, but they often come with their own biases (Davis & Hook, 2014). For example, defining oneself as "filled with humility" can be perceived as being boastful (Davis & Hook, 2014). Since there can be potential bias in the individual's answers on a self-report, which is known as the "effect of modesty," investigators theorize that people who have higher levels of humility spend a lesser amount of time gratifying themselves and more time being self-effacing (Davis & Hook, 2014). Despite these claims, there is a tremendous lack of evidence to the present day that indicate self-report measures of humility are biased in any way (Hill et. al, 2017).

The HEXACO Honesty-Humility Subscale

For the present study, Ashton and Lee's (2004) HEXACO Honesty-Humility self-report personality inventory subscale was chosen. The self-report personality inventory was given to *n*=80 undergraduate students in an introductory leadership course without any indication of which items pertained to Honesty-Humility. The Honesty-Humility subscale is part of a larger personality inventory (HEXACO) that assesses the six major dimensions of the personality: Honesty-Humility, Emotionality, eXtraversion, Agreeableness (versus Anger), Conscientiousness and Openness to Experience (Ashton & Lee, 2004). The authors of the inventory developed the items based on results from multiple lexical studies (Ashton, Lee & de Vries, 2014) based on the Big Five and Five-Factor Model of personality structure (Hill et. al, 2017). There are a variety of versions of the HEXACO personality inventory, however, the present study utilized the 100-item version which has been recommended for empirical research (McElroy, 2017).

According to Ashton and Lee (2007), Honesty-Humility is defined as "sincere, honest, faithful/loyal, modest/unassuming, fair-minded versus sly, greedy, pretentious, hypocritical, boastful, pompous." (p. 154). Participants who fill out the instrument use a rating for each item on a five-point Likert scale (Hill, Laney, Edwards, Wang, Orme, Chan, & Wang, 2017). Based on the scale descriptions, individuals who score higher on the Honesty-Humility subscale of the personality inventory are less-prone to manipulate other people for selfish reasons, are not inclined to evade rules, do not pursue excessive fortunes or extravagance, and have no feeling of privilege in regard to their social standing (Ashton & Lee, 2004). An example of a statement indicating grater Honesty-Humility would be: 'I wouldn't use flattery to get a raise or promotion at work, even if I thought it would succeed.' (Hill et. al, 2017, p. 121). Alternatively, people who score lower on the Honesty-Humility subscale will cajole other persons to obtain their desires, are more prone to ignore rules for selfish gain, are driven by monetary benefits, and have an overall feeling of haughtiness (Ashton & Lee, 2004). An example of a statement indicating lesser Honesty-Humility would be: 'If I knew that I could never get caught I would be willing to steal a million dollars.' (Hill et. al, 2017, p. 122). The HH subscale has been noted as one of the most frequently used self-report measures of humility and was chosen because of its adequate to high internal reliability (Hill et. al, 2017) and its good construct validity (McElroy, 2017).

Results

Overall, out of a total of 67 students who completed the exercise, 48 decided to keep the extra credit points and 19 decided to give them to a classmate. When exploring why high humility, medium humility and low levels of humility participants generously give extra credit to another student, the following eight themes emerged:

1. **Appreciation and gratitude for help**: student expressed appreciation or gratitude for providing some kind of assistance; provided rides to class/ scoots to class; provided assistance with class (e.g. help with exams, study guides, class notes, assignments, attendance, etc.)
2. **Appreciation of character**: appreciation of specific character traits in the person (e.g. happy, nice, sweet, funny, understanding, positive attitude, kind, selfless etc.)
3. **Challenging**: classmate was motivational; classmate offers different perspective; classmate provided unique insight.
4. **Friendship**: students were friends or became friends in the class; student described the relationship as a "friendship" or the person as a "friend."
5. **Class partner/ proximately**: sat next to one another all semester; class partner/ discussion partner.
6. **Classmate recognized as leader**: deserves because a true leader / classmate is an exceptional leader.
7. **Give randomly to someone who needs it**: have an A/ give pts to someone who really needs it.
8. **Mutual benefit /reciprocity**: classmate gave student point and felt it was fair to reciprocate.

When exploring the specific themes between the different groups, those participants high in humility attributed their reasons across all themes when it came to generously giving away their points. However, one theme that did surface more often, was that the student felt challenged by the other person (including motivated and offered a different perspective). This would be in line with definitions on humility increasing new and different perspectives. In the middle humility range, the student theme that was most present was *the mutual benefit and reciprocity*, which was seen as giving two points away to a particular student so that in return they could get two points from that same student. Out of the seven students who were in the middle humility range, five of them carried through with an equal exchange of points with another student. This act would imply a self-serving end and not as in line with traditional notions of humility. Finally, in the lower level of humility participants, *friendship* was the only theme that surfaced more than once.

When exploring why high humility, medium humility and low levels of humility participants decided to keep their extra credit, the following four themes surfaced:

1. **Concerned about grade**: want to secure an A / get the highest grade possible; worried about final exam or not doing well on a particular assignment; grade is on the border / believed 1 point could make a difference; believed they needed all the extra credit possible.

2. **Deserving of extra credit for working hard**: student felt they deserved the extra credit; student worked really hard/ they were proud of their hard work in the class; dedicated time and energy toward the class / fully participated in the class all semester.
3. **Reward**: kept as an incentive for staying dedicated; worked hard to learn theories/deserved reward/ gift to myself for finishing finals; pat on the back to myself / reward for being admitted in the leadership minor.
4. **Knows few people in the class**: not sure who to give points to because don't know many people in the class; only knew one person in the class and they decided to keep their points.

When looking at the breakdown of the three different levels of humility groups, there was no particular themes that emerged more than others. It was clear that in all three levels (high-humility, medium humility, and low humility) that both Concern about grade and Deserving of extra credit for working hard, were more often mentioned than the other two themes.

Discussion/Recommendations/Conclusion

Based on the numbers of students who decided to give away the extra credit and those who decided to keep the extra credit, one finding is that students pressure to get good grades may impact their decision to be generous. Additionally, the reasons certain individuals decide to be generous changes significantly. Those higher in humility seem to have reasons associated with growth and being challenged. Those participants lower in humility appear to have worked out reciprocity with another student to still get what they want, possibly without having to feel bad about keeping the points. In the end, it seems if we want to encourage both growth and recognition or generosity, high levels of humility may be one avenue to explore.

Additionally, the reason students decided to keep their points (often in cases when they did not need it) was because of the anxiety they had about their grade. It is possible that other pressures we face whether in school or work, prevent us from being generous with each other.

This was a small sample size of undergraduate students and an effort should be made to both understand if these themes emerge in additional contexts with a different population. The study also utilizes a self-assessment to measure humility, which can have bias based on the participants' view of themselves. Another method to place individuals into different high, middle and low groups might be accomplished by a 360-degree feedback rating. Finally, additional research should look into students need for superior grades at the expense of acting generous. It would be important to test other factors like perfectionism.

In conclusion the study did advance our understanding of humility and generosity and different themes that encourage giving. The study also provided thematic evidence of those variables which impact an individual's ability to be generous including the need for good grades. As we explore the factors of humility and generosity, it is important to better understand how we can develop leaders who can both address the end goal but not let it get in the way of being generous to others.

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Developing 21st Century Leadership Skills in County Extension Directors: Exploring Design, Implementation and Evaluation of an Online Leadership Development Program

Abstract

County Extension Directors (CED) are tasked with a myriad of responsibilities, many of which are directly related to leadership skills. Despite the identification of competencies and skills needed by CEDs in order to maintain successful programs, little research has been conducted on actual Extension leadership programming. Even more uncommon in the literature is the evaluation of CED leadership development programs that utilize online delivery. Thus, the purpose of this study was to explore the outcomes of a primarily online leadership development program with the goal of developing 21st century soft skills in CEDs. The Leadership Short Course was built upon the leadership development foundations of Moore and Rudd (2004), Owen (2004) and Sanders (2014), while the program evaluation framework utilized the Kirkpatrick (1976) model to evaluate program participant reactions, learning, and behavior changes. Key findings indicate that the design and delivery of the program resulted in high participant satisfaction and significant increases in leadership knowledge and skill level. Positive outcomes in this type of online programming has implications for the design and implementation of future CED leadership programs.

Introduction

Leadership development programs are a recognized way to increase an individual's capacity to address unforeseen problems, initiate change, or effectively engage in the process of leading others (Day, 2000; McKee, Odom, Moore, & Murphrey, 2016). These programs are critical to the success of County Extension Directors (CEDs) who provide leadership at the local level with regards to developing and implementing programs, managing budgets, addressing stakeholders needs, attending to policy, and serving as the link between Extension agents and upper levels of Extension administration (Jayaratne, Owen & Jones, 2010; Sanders, 2014). Furthermore, the anticipated challenge of replacing a large number of CEDs in the future, due to the retirement of the baby boomer generation, highlights the importance of having effective leadership programs established to develop the needs of new leaders. (Jayaratne, Owen & Jones, 2010; Moore & Rudd, 2005**).** As a system that primarily promotes from within **(**Jayaratne, Owen & Jones, 2010; Moore & Rudd, 2005**),** internal programming can aid in cultivating and sustaining effective leadership.

It is commonly recognized that developing the competencies and skills of CEDs is a critical priority for Extension (Jayaratne, Owen & Jones, 2010), yet few CEDs have the leadership competencies needed to be effective in their administrative position (Sanders, 2014). This may be due to a number of factors impacting the successful design and implementation of CED leadership development programs. First, research from Campbell, Grieshop, Sokolow and Wright (2004) suggests that CEDs are inadequately supported in their leadership roles. Additionally, as funding is cut or restricted, often the first programs to be eliminated include those associated with professional development. Finally, leadership development often competes against other tasks with greater perceived importance as CEDs try to manage the various

demands on their time. This, once again, puts the development of CED leadership skills on the back burner.

An increasing need for systematic evaluation of leadership programs to measure and communicate the program's worth places added pressure on Extension CEDs to make sure their resources are being utilized effectively. As Jayaratne, Owen, and Jones (2010) point out, "when resources are scarce and funding agencies are demanding program impacts for accountability, the demand for evaluation is obvious" (p.18). However, few leadership programs in general are evaluated and even fewer programs publish their findings so others in the field can learn and build off their results. This is especially true concerning Cooperative Extension based leadership programs, where a dearth in the research exists. The Agricultural Education National Research Agenda (2016) emphasizes the importance for agricultural educators to "determine the most effective means for incorporating and assessing soft skills development in both formal and nonformal settings" (p.30). The authors of this paper aim to contribute to the current base of research on Extension-based leadership development programs by exploring the design, delivery, and evaluation of an online CED leadership program designed to develop 21st century leadership skills.

Conceptual Framework

Over the past 50 years in Extension research there has been an interest in the leadership skills critical for a County Extension Directors success. In 1977, Rogers completed a dissertation examining the competencies critical to the administrative role of the County Extension Chairman. In the study, Rodgers found that four administrative functions: personnel management, program management, financial management, and office management, were important to the role of Georgia County Directors. Additionally, Rodgers identified 28 unique managerial competencies that corresponded with the four administrative areas such as communication, motivating, problem-solving, leading, planning, relationship building, and establishing work flow to name a few. Ten years later, the Georgia Extension Service conducted a study of skills essential to performing the managerial role of county directors (White & Bachtel, 1987). Of the 34 skills found in the study, the 10 most important skills for CED success included communicating, public relations, leading, planning, establishing and maintaining a good office image, budget accountability, decision making, evaluating, staff support, and motivating others.

As evidenced in more recent Extension research, similar skills have been associated with leadership competence. Moore and Rudd's (2004) study identified six leadership skill levels of senior Extension leaders: human, conceptual, technical, communication, emotional intelligence, and industry knowledge skills. In addition, Owen (2004) studied CEDs from North Carolina Cooperative Extension and found 38 sub-competencies that were important to CED long-term success, such as interpersonal relationships, emotional intelligence, conflict management, and understanding self and others. Most recently, Sanders (2014) completed a study examining the leadership competencies and needs of CEDs in Florida Extension. In this research, Sanders (2014) points out:

> The majority of CED professional development needs focus on human skills. These include conflict resolution, saying no when warranted, time management, listening, creating a supportive work environment, and relationship building. The highest priority conceptual skills for professional development programming include extension marketing, change implementation, and visioning. (p. 134)

Although this research has helped those in Extension better understand the skills and competencies critical to CED leadership success, the research into programs developing these skills, including program design, implementation and evaluation, is rare. One example comes from the research of Jayaratne et al. (2010) exploring a new and aspiring CED leadership education program. Utilizing both qualitative and quantitative analysis, the authors examined how the design and delivery of a leadership education program helped build CED leadership skills and behaviors. Recommendations from the research included more hands-on activities, team building exercises, problem solving sessions and a shorter time frame than nine months.

Even more uncommon in the literature is evaluation of CED leadership development programs that utilize online delivery. However, these types of programs are critically important for a few reasons. As Hall and Broyles (2015) suggest, "State Cooperative Extension budgets are tight and Extension administrators are looking for ways to compensate for reductions in funding" (p. 197). Therefore, an online leadership development program can reduce the cost associated with travel expenses and training materials. Additionally, CEDs have numerous demands on their time and often find it difficult to juggle all of their different roles (Sanders, 2014). Finding time to travel to a training and dealing with the demands of an inflexible training schedule often requires CEDs to eliminate these developmental opportunities for the good of their primary responsibilities. Online training, however, requires no additional travel time and provides an asynchronous program design.

Evaluation Framework

It is important to provide a systematic evaluation of agricultural leadership development programs to justify the costs and resources associated with the program delivery to key stakeholders (McKee, Odom, Moore, & Murphrey, 2016). Evaluation also provides an opportunity to address feedback and make needed changes to increase the leadership program's future success. One of the most extensively used approaches to evaluate leadership development programs is Kirkpatrick's four 'levels' of criteria (1976). These four levels of training outcomes include:

- Level 1: Reaction – This level assesses the participants' reaction to the leadership development program. Reaction questionnaires are most often utilized to measure participants' affective responses to the training. This can include satisfaction with the training facilitator, content or the program overall;
- Level 2: Learning – At this level, participants' learning is measured, based on changes in a participant's knowledge, attitudes, skills, confidence or commitment. This change is driven by the goals and objectives outlines in development of the program. Level 2 can be assessed by utilizing performance tests or pre-post assessments;

- Level 3: Behavior – In the model, level three assesses changes that happen in participants' behavior on the job and the extent to which learning from the program has been applied to the participants' jobs. Evaluation is completed through the use of observation, interviews, or collecting productivity data; and
- Level 4: Results – The final level assesses the impact the development program has had on the bottom-line of the broader organizational goals. The methods for assessment include measuring costs, quality, retention, and return on investment (ROI).

There are a few reasons the Kirkpatrick model has been utilized as a primary tool for evaluating leadership development programs over the past three decades (Bates, 2004). First, the model presents evaluation in a systematic way, which provides numerous data points. These different measures can also be utilized to address a diverse set of stakeholders' interests (Bates, 2004). Finally, the model simplifies the complex process of leadership program evaluation. By dictating particular questions to address specific criteria and limiting the demands of numerous measurement points, the Kirkpatrick model streamlines the evaluation process (Bates, 2004).

Although the Kirkpatrick model is both a popular and straightforward evaluation tool, typically programs only target the two lower levels of the model. According to Kirkpatrick and Kirkpatrick (2016), approximately 58 percent of online programs measure level one, while level three is only measured 17 percent of the time. Furthermore, even when levels three and four are being assessed, the measures and questions used are more appropriate for level one outcomes (Kirkpatrick, & Kirkpatrick, 2016). More extensive evaluation at levels three and four provide an opportunity to collect valuable data that can be used by the organization to address organizational goals determine what programming elements add significant value.

Description of Program

Taking into account the general literature on CED leadership skills and focusing more specifically on the findings of Moore and Rudd (2004), Owen (2004) and Sanders (2014), the leadership development program offered leadership sessions that explored: (a) role of the leader; (b) leader identity; (c) building strong relationships with others; (d) creating an extraordinary leadership environment (e) best practices in leadership; and (f) continued leadership learning. The specific topics covered in these sessions are outlined in Table 1.

Table 1

Session Titles and Descriptions of the Leadership Short Course

Session Title	Sections Covered in the Session
Roles of a Leader	Understanding the power of perception; establishing purpose; defining leadership priorities
Leader Identity	Developing humility, optimism, and continued learning mindset; appreciating differences (Myers Briggs Type Indicator personality inventory), understanding the power of emotions
Building Strong Relationships with Others	Authentic communication; conflict resolution and stress management

Creating an Extraordinary Leadership Environment	Reframing leadership; accountability and discipline; creating a culture of change
Leadership Best Practices	Cultivating creativity; teamwork and psychological safety; providing feedback and recognition
Developing a Leadership Development Plan	360-degree feedback

Based on participant feedback and suggestions to further improve the leadership program, Jayaratne, Owen and Jones (2010) recommended after conducting their CED leadership program to condense the overall length of the program from nine to four months. Keeping this in mind, the Leadership Short Course extends over three months while also providing two weeks between developmental sessions to encourage participants to practice what they learned during each session. The first five sessions were delivered online, while the final session was delivered in a face-to-face format reviewing the participants' 360 evaluations. Program participants received a leadership program certificate for completion of the course.

Purpose and Objective

The purpose of this study was to explore the outcomes of a primarily online leadership development program with the goal of developing 21st century soft skills in CEDs. The research objective was to evaluate participants' satisfaction, learning outcomes, and behavior changes from the Leadership Short Course.

Methodology

The Leadership Short Course took place from February through April, 2017. The target audience for program participation was Florida County Extension Directors. Program participants were selected via nomination from his/her District Extension Director. Selected participants were characterized as emerging leaders, risk takers, and exhibiting enthusiasm to advance themselves and UF/IFAS Extension. Out of 64 Florida CEDs, twenty-two were nominated and began the course; however, program participants were expected to stay engaged and complete the assignments, otherwise they would be removed from the course. Five program participants were removed during the first quarter of the course, ending with a program cohort completion rate of 77% (n = 17). Table 2 provides a brief description of final program cohort participants.

Table 2

Characteristics of Participants

	f	*%*
Years working in Extension		
1-5 years	8	47%
6-10 years	3	18%
11-15 years	2	12%
16 years or more	4	23%
Years serving as a County Extension Director		
1-5 years	14	82%

6-10 years	2	12%
11-15 years	1	6%
Held a leadership position prior to joining Extension		
Yes	13	77%
No	4	23%

Two instruments were created to satisfy Kirkpatrick's (1976) levels of training outcomes, both of which were sent via Qualtrics. The items and open-ended questions stemmed from the program objectives of the Leadership Short Course. Only the first three levels of the model were evaluated for this study, as not enough time had passed to satisfy the criteria of level four outcomes. The first instrument concentrated on the first two levels: reactions and learning outcomes. There were 17 statements pertaining to the learning outcomes using a retrospective pretest and a traditional posttest. Retrospective pretests asked respondents to recall their perceptions prior to engaging in the treatment at the same time they evaluate their perceptions after completing the treatment (Pratt, McGuigan, & Katzev, 2000). The next 10 statements pertained to their reactions to the online course format and satisfaction. The second instrument evaluated the third level, behavior change, using a mixed methods approach. The first 21 statements regarded whether the participants have seen a change in their own leadership competencies and how often they use the competencies developed from the program. Several open-ended questions solicited more detailed input from respondents.

An expert panel was used to establish the instrument's face and content validity. The selected experts were chosen based on proficiency in program evaluation and leadership development. Following the completed program evaluation, the researchers calculated post-hoc reliability for each level of evaluation using Cronbach's alpha. Level one had a Cronbach's alpha of 0.87, level 2 had a Cronbach's alpha of 0.94, and level three had a Cronbach's alpha of 0.87. All three levels of evaluation were deemed reliable as all were above the 0.70 alpha level as noted by Cronbach (1971).

Using SPSS 24.0, data were analyzed using descriptive and inferential statistics for the first instrument and part of the second instrument to analyze the Likert-type scale statements. The constant comparative method (Merriam, 1998) was used to reduce data from the open-ended questions into identifiable, recurring themes (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). An audit trail was maintained throughout the data analysis, while direct quotes from respondents were used to create a thick description of the findings. Bias from the researchers can affect the way qualitative data is analyzed and interpreted. For the study reported here, one of the researchers is a state specialist with prior experience in Extension. The other two researchers are state specialists with expertise in leadership development.

The researchers followed the Tailored Design Method (TDM) by Dillman, Smyth, and Christian (2009). The TDM is described as "using multiple motivational features in compatible and mutually supportive ways to encourage high quantity and quality response to the surveyor's request" and yields high response rates, reduces sampling error, develops trust with the respondents, and allows the researcher to follow survey procedures that are scientifically founded (Dillman et al., 2009, p. 16). IRB approval was received prior to executing the program. Qualtrics was the mode of delivery chosen for the online questionnaires. The advantages to using

an online survey for this study were low cost, anonymity, quick response time, and ease of distribution and submission (Ary et al., 2006; Dillman et al., 2009). The first survey, which was sent one week after the program ended, yielded a response rate of 100% (n = 17). The second survey, which was sent 6 months after the program ended, yielded a responses rate of 88% (n = 15).

Findings

Level One Results

Respondents indicated a high level of satisfaction with the online-delivery format (Table 3). Participants indicated their highest level of satisfaction with the communication from the instructor (M = 4.76, SD = 0.44) and engagement of the instructor (M = 4.71, SD = 0.47). Reichheld (2003) suggests that one of the most significant measures of satisfaction and growth can be measured by a "would recommend" question. As Reichheld suggests, "By asking this one question, you collect simple and timely data that correlate with growth. You also get responses you can easily interpret and communicate" (2003, p. 1). The participants reported they would participate in a similar type of training program in the future (M = 4.53, SD = .87) and recommend this program to a colleague (M = 4.71, SD = .59) (Table 4).

Table 3

Participants' Satisfaction of the Leadership Short Course

	M	*SD*
Overall course satisfaction	4.41	.62
Organization of online modules	4.41	.71
Navigation of online modules	4.29	.85
Engagement of the online modules	4.47	.51
Content of online modules	4.35	.49
Flexibility of the course	4.41	.80
Course deadlines	4.13	.81
Course work (assignments)	4.00	.71
Engagement of the instructor	4.71	.47
Communication from the instructor	4.76	.44

Note. Respondents were asked to rate their level of satisfaction about the course on a Likert-type scale (1 = *Very dissatisfied*, 2 = *Dissatisfied*, 3 = *Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied*, 4 = *Satisfied*, 5 = *Very satisfied*).

Table 4

Participation in Future Online-Delivered Programs and Recommendations to Colleagues

	M	*SD*
I would participate in training programs like this one in the future	4.53	.87
I would recommend this program to my colleagues	4.71	.59

Note. Respondents were asked to rate their level of agreement with the above statements on a Likert-type scale (1 = *Strongly disagree*, 2 = *Disagree*, 3 = *Neither agree nor disagree*, 4 = *Agree*, 5 = *Strongly agree*).

Level Two Results

Respondents indicated significant changes in many of their leadership skills after completing the Leadership Short Course (Table 5). The three leadership skills with the most significant changes were understanding the importance perceptions play in leadership development, t (16) = 4.66, $p < 0.05$, understanding the role environment plays in leadership, t (16) = 3.66, $p < 0.05$, and recognizing the importance of experience on both perception and leadership, t (16) = 3.50, $p < 0.05$.

Table 5

Paired Means and Statistical Significance of Leadership Skills

	Before		After			
Leadership Skills	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*t*	*p*
Understand the importance perceptions play in leadership development	3.47	.72	4.35	.70	4.66	.00
Recognize the role purpose plays in leading others	3.59	.62	4.12	.70	2.3	.03
Recognize the importance of experience on both perception and leadership	3.53	.72	4.06	.66	3.50	.01
Identify the difference between primary and secondary dimensions of diversity	3.24	.97	3.71	.99	2.22	.04
Compare and contrast your personality type to others	3.59	1.07	4.53	.62	3.11	.01
Identify my overconfidence and optimism bias	3.25	.86	3.69	.95	1.39	.19
Recognize factors associated with effective communication	3.71	.92	4.24	.83	2.31	.03
Recognize the different dimensions of emotional intelligence	3.18	.11	3.82	.95	2.40	.03
Utilize different approaches to conflict resolution	3.06	.93	3.94	.68	3.05	.01
Understand the role environment plays in leadership	3.31	.70	4.19	.83	3.66	.00
Recognize the different frames of organizational perspective	2.71	.99	3.59	1.00	3.45	.01
Identify costs and benefits to conflict in organizations	3.18	.95	3.94	.43	2.62	.02
Analyze the barriers to change in organizations due to particular organizational frames	2.88	1.05	3.82	.53	3.11	.01
Recognize factors associated with effective email communication	3.65	.79	4.06	.56	1.60	.13
Understand the importance of recognizing others	4.12	.78	4.59	.62	2.06	.06
Identify elements of building an effective team	3.53	.72	4.24	.67	2.95	.01

Recognize the different steps to running an effective meeting	3.59	.80	4.18	.64	2.58	.02

Note. Respondents were asked to rate their knowledge level of leadership concepts and ability to apply them before and after participating in the Leadership Short Course on a Likert-type scale: (1 = *Very low*, 2 = *Low*, 3 = *Average*, 4 = *High*, 5 = *Very high*).

Level Three Results

Overall, respondents reported moderate to high levels of behavior change from their participation in the Leadership Short Course (Table 6). The highest levels of behavior changes reported were their perception of their leadership role (M = 3.20, SD = 1.03), providing feedback (M = 3.17, SD = 1.03), paying attention to different personality types (M = 3.07, SD = 0.92), placing importance on understanding and appreciating differences (M = 3.00, SD = 1.00), and cultivating creativity (M = 3.00, SD = 1.29).

Table 6

CED Behavior Changes Six Months after Completion of Leadership Short Course

	M	*SD*	*N*
The perception I have of my leadership role	2.36	0.81	11
The priority I place on leadership related activities	2.58	1.08	12
The amount of time I take to coach others	3.20	1.03	10
The importance I place on understanding and appreciating differences	3.00	1.00	13
The attention I pay to different personality styles in leading others	3.07	0.92	14
Being aware of my overconfidence or over optimism	2.27	1.01	11
Am more emotionally in control of thoughts and actions	2.27	0.79	11
Handle conflict more effectively	2.29	0.76	7
Better understand the role the environment plays in my leadership effectiveness	2.67	0.866	9
Use the different frames to help lead more effectively	2.13	1.25	8
Ask for conflicting ideas to get to better solutions	2.63	1.19	8
Use critical thinking (including the frames) to address problems in the organization	2.89	1.17	9
Write more effective emails	2.50	1.00	12
Communicate with others more effectively	2.58	0.90	12
Work with teams more effectively	2.58	1.08	12
Run more effective meetings	2.64	1.12	11
Cultivate creativity	3.00	1.29	7
Encourage psychological safety	2.89	1.05	9
Provide feedback to others	3.17	1.03	12
Provide recognition	2.85	0.98	13
Work on particular leadership competencies	2.75	0.97	12

Note. Respondents were asked to rate the degree to which their behavior has changed due to their participation in the Leadership Short Course on a Likert-type scale (1 = *Not at all*, 2 = *A moderate amount*, 3 = *A lot*, 4 = *A great deal*).

Respondents were asked what had been the biggest difference with their ability to lead as a result from their participation in the Leadership Short Course. Ninety-three percent (n = 14) of respondents provided an explanation. Increased confidence (n = 3) and communication (n = 3) were common themes reported, such as "less trepidation to assume a leadership role in my office

and with colleagues" and "listening to staff concerns, prioritizing, and making decisions for the greater good of the department". Another respondent stated, "my willingness to accept different opinions and different ways of doing things; using the differences to make better decisions for the entire office".

Finally, respondents were asked if their confidence level had changed due to their participation in the Leadership Short Course. Eighty-seven percent (n = 13) of respondents reported a change in their confidence to lead. When prompted to describe in what ways their confidence changed, respondents replied "I feel that I am paying better attention to others, so when I make a decision, it is more applicable to everyone" and "I feel more comfortable and take the time to let people know I appreciate them". Another respondent stated, "I feel more confident in communicating now that I know the communication preferences of my team members. Knowing this info allows me to tailor my message to my audience".

Conclusions

It is critically important to find innovative ways to deliver and develop the skills and behaviors of County Extension Directors in the area of leadership. Though there are leadership development programs, which assume this responsibility, the research on the success of these programs is scarce. This paper is the first to look at the design and evaluation of a primarily online CED leadership program. The Kirkpatrick model (1976) of program evaluation was used to better understand the impact the program had on participants.

Kirkpatrick's first level measures participant satisfaction with the different course components. Overall, the participant were satisfied in all areas evaluated. The highest level of satisfaction from participants were in the areas of engagement with instructor and communication from instructor. In face-to-face training, the variability that could emerge based on the particular instructor would be concerning. However, one of the strengths of an online format is that most engagement and communication was made using videos, emails and postings, which can be replicated in all future courses guaranteeing consistency.

The high level of engagement in the class also likely impacted other ratings of satisfaction. Although the participants' responses were still in the satisfied range, the participants rated course work/assignments and course deadlines as the two lowest levels of participant satisfaction. Based on the qualitative responses, this was related to the short time frame the participants had to complete assignments rather than the difficulty or dissatisfaction with the assignments. However, these findings are inconsistent with participant's views concerning the length of time for program delivery. The current program utilized a three-month timeframe to deliver course content via online and face-to-face following Jayaratne et al.'s (2010) recommendation for limiting leadership development programs to less than four months. When asked about whether the course should be kept the same length, shortened, or increased, 59% (n = 10) of respondents reported the program length was satisfactory. Twenty-nine percent (n = 5) reported shortening the course length, and 12% (n = 2) recommended increasing the program length.

Participants in the Leadership Short Course reported a high likelihood they would recommend the program to colleagues. Since the program is still in its infancy, the recommendations from these early adopters will be critically important to the recruitment success of future cohorts.

Additionally, participates in the program suggested they would be likely to participate in a program like this in the future. This may have implications on additional leadership training opportunities and CED training in general. Finally, both of these quantitative results can be used to provide stakeholders with both satisfaction data on the course and the likelihood additional cohorts could be recruited using participant recommendations (Reichheld, 2003).

A retrospective pretest and a traditional posttest was used to measure the change in attitudes, knowledge, and skills learned by the participants of the Leadership Short Course. There was a significant increase in fourteen of the seventeen statements measuring perceived participant learning throughout the program. The learning that occurred during the program was the first step to transferring the competencies back into the work environment (Kirkpatrick & Kirkpatrick, 2016). Although seventy-seven percent of the participants held a leadership position prior to joining Extension, the learning of new perspectives and leadership tools could have aided the CEDs in feeling more confident, which was reported as a behavior change in the six-month behavior change survey.

The third level of evaluation that was completed addressed the changes to the CEDs behavior six months after the leadership program was completed. Based on the findings of the six-month post survey, it is evident the leadership development program had an impact on CED leadership behavior. All of the 21 behavior changes that were measured displayed significant increases from respondents. The strongest impact can be seen in the CED behavior of coaching and providing feedback, indicating the program is having an impact on both the behaviors of the CEDs and also the Extension agents they supervise. The majority of respondents also indicated they saw an increase in their confidence to lead, and their communication styles changed according to which styles their team members prefer, both of which were identified by both Owen (2004) and Sanders (2014) as important competencies for CEDs to possess.

When comparing the level two learning outcomes to the level three behavior changes, differences emerged among two of the evaluation statements. First, *identify my overconfidence and optimism bias* was rated low from both levels two and three, providing important feedback about this particular section of the course. Moving forward, this section will need to be revised for both initial learning and post-training transfer. Second, *recognize the different frames of organizational perspective* was rated high ($M = 3.59$) in the post training learning evaluation but these tools did not transfer into new behaviors on the job. This will also need to be re-evaluated and more focus should be placed on helping participants take what they have learned and apply it to their leadership opportunities.

Implications and Recommendations

The study explores the impact of an online leadership program on Florida CEDs' satisfaction, learning, and behavior change. The results suggest three major implications for extension, online leadership development, and program evaluation. As Sondgerath (2016) suggests, "With Cooperative Extension budgets shrinking at federal, state, and local levels, it is incumbent on state Extension systems to explore innovative ways of delivering professional development content as efficiently as possible while still providing content relevant to field educator/agent needs." The first implication of this study is that online leadership programs can provide an

innovative way to address the leadership developmental needs of CEDs, while also providing increased flexibility in participation and cost saving associated with travel expenses.

A second implication of the current study is the contribution it makes to the body of research pertaining to online leadership development program evaluation. The research provides a template to measure outcomes associated with participant satisfaction, learning, and behavior changes. This research also contributes to the scare literature on Kirkpatrick's third level of evaluation, addressing CED behavior change six months after the online leadership program concluded. With this said, this study also provides valuable insight into level two and three outcomes, which need to be adapted in order to demonstrate better increases in specific sections.

As Extension explores the option of online leadership development, there are also a few recommendations that should be considered when conducting future research on CED online leadership development programs. First, more research is needed examining online leadership development programs, specifically observing different program structures and in other contexts. The current research is limited due to the participants studied being CEDs from a single state's Extension system. The second recommendation is to examine the impact these programs have on those who are supervised by CEDs. With the program encouraging the most significant changes in coaching and feedback, it would seem the program also had an impact on the Extension agents supervised by the course participants; however, the course evaluations did not include this audience. Future course evaluations should include an instrument for supervisees to measure perceived changes to program participant behaviors related to key leadership skills addressed in the online program. The third recommendation is to explore the impact the online program had on the UF/IFAS Extension system, which is also the criteria for level four evaluation under Kirkpatrick's model (1976).

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The Doctoral Candidacy Process: Assessment and Reforms

Abstract

The attainment of candidacy in doctoral programs is a milestone in a students' academic career. Traditionally, candidacy is achieved after the completion of comprehensive exams. Students typically write essays addressing field specific questions over a period of days or weeks and are then assessed by faculty members on their proficiency and potential for continued success. As such, candidacy is a stressful process with consequences. Despite the high stakes, the assessment of candidacy exams in many programs can be subjective. Our doctoral program revised our candidacy process, changing the data capturing element and the rubric with the goal of reducing subjectivity while simultaneously increasing the rigor of candidacy for students. In this analysis, we use approximately one year of candidacy exam results, finding differences in the overall scores that reviewers provide, as well as differences between reviewers across the components of the rubric. Furthermore, we conducted a focus group in the wake of the statistical analysis and found that reviewers tend to think of the components of the rubric in different ways. We used this data to further refine candidacy to ensure a fair and robust process.

Introduction

In most doctoral programs, students complete a variety of courses during their first year or two, then transition towards more solitary work to complete their dissertations. During this transitional period, most doctoral programs require students to complete candidacy (also known by some as comprehensive) exams. These exams take a wide variety of forms, but typically involve field specific essays requiring students to answer broad questions about issues within their field, using critical thinking and evidence to illustrate the depth and breadth of their knowledge (Estrem & Lucas, 2003; Schafer & Giblin 2008). The period of candidacy exams is usually temporally limited – many students complete their exams over a weekend, a week, or some other limited period. Faculty members then grade these exams, with an eye towards the proficiency of the student as a writer, consumer of the literature, and their potential as a researcher (Cassuto, 2012). Failing candidacy exams is a major setback and has serious consequences, including the end of a doctoral students' studies in a program (Brooks, 2012; Patton, 2013).

Thus, the review process used by faculty members to grade candidacy exams is a matter of importance. Program faculty need candidacy exams to evaluate their students – their ability to convey, compare, and contrast the major arguments and context of their field are significant elements in their ability to conduct the research central to their dissertations (Cassuto, 2012; Riviere, 2016). At the same time, students need candidacy exams to receive formative feedback from program faculty about their progress in their degree program. Both faculty and students benefit from having confidence that candidacy exams, though difficult, will be evaluated fairly (Patton, 2013).

Recently, faculty members in a doctoral program fully reframed the candidacy process for their program. The new candidacy process was tested for four months then a dialogue session was held with faculty to gather feedback about the process and examine initial evaluation scores. The

decision was made to continue using the new process and for faculty to continue to check-in with each other periodically. For the following research proposal, we analyzed the results from candidacy attempts over a one-year period to uncover pass rates, overall scoring, and differences between reviewers in both total scoring and in elements of a candidacy specific rubric.

The Context of the Project

Our doctoral program is similar to others in many ways. It is a three to four-year program. Students take a series of "core" courses in the first year and a half that are focused on leadership topics and theories. Furthermore, as a Jesuit institution, we incorporate Ignatian principles and approaches within these core courses. Soon after finishing the core courses, students take candidacy exams. If successful, students then work through a series of research courses and electives over the course of about a year, then move on to complete their dissertations.

However, our program presents two differences. It is an online program. Students communicate with faculty members, their advisers, and each other almost exclusively through online channels, by phone or video conferencing. Similarly, candidacy exams are administered online. Finally, our program is large. At any one time, we have around 300 active students. About 75 to 80 students reach the candidacy stage each year.

Candidacy in the Program: An Evolution of Approach

For the first three years of the program (2011-2014) candidacy was achieved through the submission of an e-portfolio, or a collection of papers from their course work that were revised and submitted for review. For students, selecting and revising these works was a difficult process. For faculty, the evaluation of these portfolios was difficult and time-consuming. Reviewers evaluated these e-portfolios by filling in a Microsoft Word document. Thus, faculty members revised the process in 2014. These changes streamlined the process, provided greater guidance to students, and modified the rubric to be completed and submitted through Qualtrics. However, the overall e-portfolio approach and philosophy of the rubric were not changed.

In late 2016, faculty again looked to the candidacy process after discovering differences of opinion regarding its value as a summative, rather than a formative evaluation tool. In early 2017, we shifted to an approach that focuses on formative assessment *for* learning exercises and evaluation methods: comprehensive exams administered over a two-week period. Students write two essays: the first focused on the application of Ignatian principles to one's personal life, while the second focuses on the use of leadership theory to address an applied community/organizational leadership problem. [1]

Most notably, these essays are evaluated using a new process. Reviews are double-blind: students remove their names from the essays and faculty members are unable to see the scores of the other reviewer. We also created a new rubric that incorporates the following criterion: Style and Format, Mechanics, Content and Organization, Critical Analysis and Integration, and Knowledge Translation. This rubric provides anchoring components that help set expectations

[1] We refer to these iterations of candidacy exams as Process One, Two, and Three.

for students to know how they will be evaluated and for faculty members to guide consistency across reviewers (Johnson & Svingby, 2007).

With this new process a new scoring system and passing standard was also introduced. Each of the five criteria are scored on a 1 (does not meet expectations) to 4 (exceeds expectations) scale. An average score of 2.5 across the five criteria for both essays is required to pass. Furthermore, a score of "1" on any one criteria results in a failing grade for the full submission. Both reviewers must pass the essays for the student to achieve candidacy.[2] In the event that a student fails candidacy, they are given the opportunity after receiving feedback from the reviewers to submit a second attempt. If a student fails a second attempt, they are dismissed from the program.

This new process was introduced as a voluntary option in February of 2017 and is now required for all incoming students. Since its introduction, around one hundred and sixty students have elected to take part. This analysis explores the results of these attempts in pursuit of the twin goals of ensuring a rigorous and fair experience for each student.

Methods

This is an evaluative project. We do not present hypotheses, but examine the data for patterns that may be indicative of progress in achieving a fair candidacy process for students and faculty that also creates a rigorous learning opportunity for students. This analysis focuses on three metrics: pass rates for candidacy exams, average scores by each reviewer, and the individual scores provided by each reviewer across the criterion in the new rubric. We gathered data on all candidacy applications from February 2017 through December 2017 across all dimensions. We focus on the results for first attempts only—the group of students that write second attempt essays are qualitatively different; they receive feedback from the reviewers to guide their work on second attempts, and the number of second attempts is far smaller, limited statistical power.

After conducting our initial analysis based on the first four months using the new candidacy process, we held a focus group exercise with the program faculty. In this focus group, faculty were provided with an essay that was judged to be superlative, one that was average, and one that was poor. Faculty members then assessed each essay using the rubric and results were compared and discussed as a group. An extensive discussion followed with the goal of clarifying the nature of the rubric and its components.

We present a variety of descriptive statistics first, then present the results of an ANOVA to examine the effective differences between variables. We provide graphics that also illustrate the results. A brief discussion of the main themes that emerged from the focus group will also be

[2] When processes one and two were in play, an average of the two reviewers scores was used and a score of 3.5 was required to pass (thus one reviewer could fail the student while the other, if their score was high enough, could drive the average high enough to allow the student to pass). The anchors for the scoring scale were 1 (shows no evidence) to 4 (fully integrates) the 10 or 9-outcomes, respectively that were evaluated in each process. Furthermore, reviews were loosely but not completely blind. Faculty knew whom they were grading, and with little effort could see the scores and comments provided by the second reviewer.

presented. Finally, the results of a pre- and post- statistical analysis will be provided to look for any changes in scoring tendencies that occurred after the faculty focus group discussion.

A Note Regarding Reviewers

Readers will note that eight reviewers are listed for many of the tables presented in this analysis. These reflect the various individual faculty members that have reviewed candidacy exams over the years – two of which retired and one of which moved to another position at the university prior to the shift to the latest process (referred to as Process Three) in this analysis. During the course of the year, we added a sixth full-time faculty member and this person has conducted a few reviews—we refer to this person as reviewer eight and included the results of their reviews in this analysis.

Variables In this Analysis

The variables central to this analysis are *Average Score*, or the mean of the criterion scores embedded in the rubric (*Style and Format, Mechanics, Content and Organization, Critical Analysis and Integration,* and *Knowledge Translation*). This score takes on values from 1 to 4. We also examine individual variables for each of those criteria, that, of course, also may range from 1 to 4. We also test a variable for *Recommendation for Candidacy*, a binary variable indicating whether both reviewers passed the submission (recall that two reviews of "pass" are required). We also present a variable called *Reviewer*, which captures the different faculty reviewers that have evaluated candidacy exams in our program. Finally, we also use a variable called *Post Focus*, a binary variable that captures whether a review was conducted prior to (0) or after (1) our June 2017 focus group discussion.

Results

Descriptive Statistics by Process

The data stored in Qualtrics from May 2014 to December 2017 indicates that 316 students attempted candidacy. There were 93 students who used the initial e-portfolio process (Process One), 131 students used the modified e-portfolio process (Process Two), and 92 have elected to participate in the new essay process (Process Three). For each candidacy attempt, at least two core faculty members reviewed each student's e-portfolio (for processes one and two) or essays (for process three). This resulted in a total of 688 total candidacy reviews conducted over the 3-year study period: 596 1st attempt reviews and 92 2nd attempt reviews.

Table 1
Candidacy Reviews Completed (Processes One, Two, and Three)

	Process			
Candidacy Reviews	One	Two	Three	Total
1st Attempt	176	256	164	596
2nd Attempt	26	34	32	92
Total	202	290	196	688

Table 1 provides a sense of the scale of this work – from 2014-2017, under Process One, 202 reviews were completed. Process Two (2014-2016) yielded 290 reviews. Finally, since February of 2017, faculty have completed 196 reviews of student candidacy exams.

Table 2 parses these data by examining the *Recommendation for Candidacy* variable. Pass rates have changed significantly since the implementation of the new process. For the first two processes, roughly 76% of candidacy applications were successful. Process Three pass rates were significantly lower (65%). We also present data on second attempts (as noted earlier, if a student fails candidacy on the first attempt, they are given the opportunity to revise and resubmit for a second attempt). Pass rates for Process Three for those submitting a second attempt are hovering around 84%.

Table 2
Candidacy Review Outcome (fail or pass) for First and Second Attempts by Process

	Process			
First Attempt: Recommendation for Candidacy				
	One n (%)	Two n (%)	Three n (%)	Total
No	40 (23)	62 (24)	58 (35)	137
Yes	136 (77)	194 (76)	106 (65)	393
Total	176	256	164	530
Second Attempt: Recommendation for Candidacy				
	One n (%)	Two n (%)	Three n (%)	Total
No	5 (19)	2 (6)	5 (16)	12
Yes	21 (81)	32 (94)	27 (84)	80
Total	26	34	32	92

**note the discrepancy between the total "no" results for first attempts and the total figures for 2nd attempts: this is a result of some students who have yet to complete a 2nd attempt.*

These data indicate that while the bulk of reviews were conducted under the previous two processes, we do have enough observations (164) to conduct an analysis of the changes that have occurred as a result of the Process Three reforms. Furthermore, the data suggest that pass rates for first attempts have dropped since the adoption of Process Three.

Process Three Analysis Results

Now, we shift our analysis to Process Three solely, focusing on first attempts at candidacy. This represents a span of time from February 2017 through December of 2017, a period during which 164 reviews were conducted of first attempt submissions. The goal here was to determine whether scores vary between reviewers.

Descriptive Statistics. Table 3 presents the number of reviews completed by faculty members of first attempt submissions, while Table 4 presents the pass rates for each reviewer. As

noted earlier, reviewer eight started in June, and reviewers six and seven had retired and thus did not complete any reviews during this time frame. These two tables suggest that reviewers one through five have completed roughly the same number of reviews, yet also suggest that overall pass rates vary to some degree.

Table 3
Process Three: Candidacy Reviews Completed by Reviewers (First Attempts)

	Reviewer								
Process	One	Two	Three	Four	Five	Six	Seven	Eight	Total
Three	28	36	27	36	29	0	0	8	164

Table 4
Process Three: Candidacy Review Outcome (fail or pass) During First Attempts by Reviewer

	Reviewer								
Recommendation for Candidacy	One	Two	Three	Four	Five	Six	Seven	Eight	Total
Fail	32%	33%	48%	22%	41%	0%	0%	50%	35%
Pass	68%	67%	52%	78%	59%	0%	0%	50%	65%
Total N	28	36	27	36	29	0	0	8	164

Next, we turn to a nuanced examination of the components of the overall decision to pass or fail a candidacy exam: the components of the Process Three rubric. Table 5 presents descriptive statistics for these scores during the February – December time frame.

Table 5
Rubric Scoring Criteria for Process Three

Scoring criteria (Process three)	Median	Mean	St. Dev.	Min	Max
Style & Format	3	2.9	.65	1	4
Mechanics	2.9	2.8	.68	1	4
Content & Organization	2.8	2.8	.64	1.5	4
Critical Analysis, Synthesis & Integration	2.8	2.7	.64	1	4
Knowledge Translation	2.6	2.7	.76	1	4
Average Reviewer Scores	2.7	2.8	.58	1.5	4

Use of the Rubric by Reviewers. To determine whether the rubric provided a greater level of consistency for each reviewer we examined *Average Reviewer Scores* as well as criterion scores across the reviewers. Figure 1 shows the box plots of the average scores for each of the

reviewers for process three (again, for first attempts only). Figure 2 shows the box plots of the reviewer scores for each of the five rubric criteria.

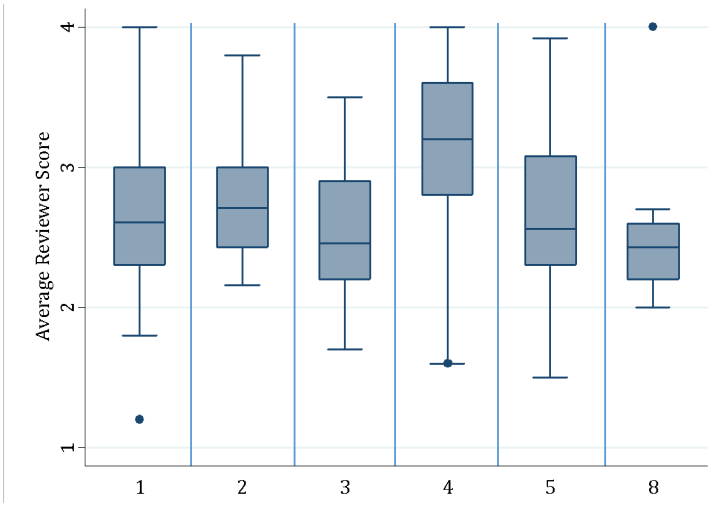

Figure 1. Box and whisker plot: Average scores across reviewers.

Figure 1 presents box and whisker plots for the average scores for each reviewer. These plots show a 95% confidence interval around the mean score for each reviewer (indicated by a horizontal line within each box). Outliers are indicated by blue dots. Figure 1 indicates that reviewers one, two, three and five are similar across their average scores. However, the scores for reviewer four are higher than the others. Note that reviewer eight completed considerably fewer reviews than others, thus the box and whiskers for that set of data are very limited. To determine whether these visual differences are statistically different, we conducted an ANOVA test. The results suggest that there is a statistically significant difference among reviewers in their average scores (see Table 6). To probe where the difference among reviewers was, we ran a Tukey test, shown in Table 7. This test is designed to compare each of the reviewers to every other reviewer. Of the 15 comparisons three were statistically significant, the mean score for reviewer four was significantly different than reviewers one, two, and three.

Table 6
ANOVA: Average Reviewer Scores by Reviewer, Process Three, Attempt One

Source	Partial SS	*df*	MS	F	Prob > F
Model	6.76	5	1.35	4.47	.001
Reviewer	6.76	5	1.35	4.47	.001
Residual	47.44	157	.30		
Total	54.19	162	.33		
N	162				
Root MSE	.55				
Adj. R-squared	.097				

To probe where the difference among reviewers was, we ran a Tukey test, shown in Table 7. This test is designed to compare each of the reviewers to every other reviewer. Of the 15

comparisons three were statistically significant, the mean score for reviewer four was significantly different than reviewers one, two, and three.

Table 7.
Tukey Post-Hoc test: Pairwise Differences Among Reviewers for Process Three

Reviewer Comparisons	*b*	SE	*p*
Two vs. One	.076	(.121)	.989
Three vs. One	-.125	(.128)	.925
Four vs. One	.437	(.123)	.006
Five vs. One	.101	(.124)	.964
Eight vs. One	-.045	(.197)	1.00
Three vs. Two	-.201	(.119)	.549
Four vs. Two	.361	(.114)	.022
Five vs. Two	.025	(.115)	1.00
Eight vs. Two	-.121	(.192)	.989
Four vs. Three	.562	(.122)	.000
Five vs. Three	.226	(.123)	.443
Eight vs. Three	.079	(.196)	.999
Five vs. Four	-.336	(.118)	.054
Eight vs. Four	-.482	(.193)	.130
Eight vs. Five	-.146	(.194)	.974

Number of comparisons: 15; p <= .05, two tailed

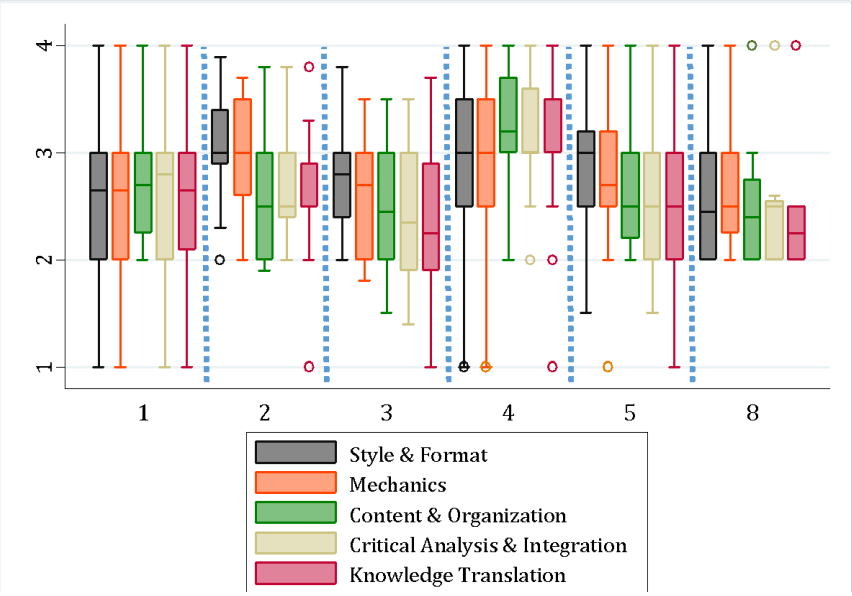

Figure 2. Box and whisker plot: Rubric criterion scores across reviewers

As can be seen from the results and in Figures 1 and 2 candidacy scores for reviewer four are significantly different from those of reviewers one, two, and three, and nearly so for reviewer five. The variance can be seen in how each reviewer scored candidacy exams across the criteria. Knowledge Translation presents some of the largest differences between reviewers.

Focus group results (qualitative insights). In June of 2017, after four months under the Process Three regime, faculty members participated in a focus group regarding the implementation of Process Three. As a part of that focus group, faculty members were presented with three candidacy essays. Each essay had already been evaluated by a faculty member: the first was scored as exemplary, the second as average (yet passing), and the third as poor. Student names and scores were omitted for the purposes of the exercise. The goal was to uncover the nature of the differences in the reviewers' views of the criteria.

The extensive discussions that ensued revealed that each reviewer tended to look to different aspects of the essay as keys to a successful candidacy essay—and that they did not necessarily agree on the definitions for each of the criteria. Reviewer opinions were especially opaque regarding the Knowledge Translation criterion, but a consensus was also lacking on some of the other criteria, including Mechanics and Style & Format. A summary discussion attempted to unify these disagreements, and some modifications were made to the Style and Format and Mechanics criteria as a result.

Given that six months passed between the focus group discussions and resulting modifications, it is worth asking: is there less variance between reviewers in the data from February 2017—June 2017 and June 2017—December 2017? We again turn to visualizations and statistical testing to answer this question.

Focus group influence: statistical testing. As with Figure 1, the average reviewer scores for first attempts are displayed as box and whisker plots, but are split into pre- and post-focus clusters in Figure 3. Reviewers one, two, three, five have given slightly higher scores after the focus group sessions in June of 2017. On the other hand, the scores for reviewer four are slightly lower than they were from Feb – June 2017. As noted, all of reviewer eight's reviews were completed after June of 2017.

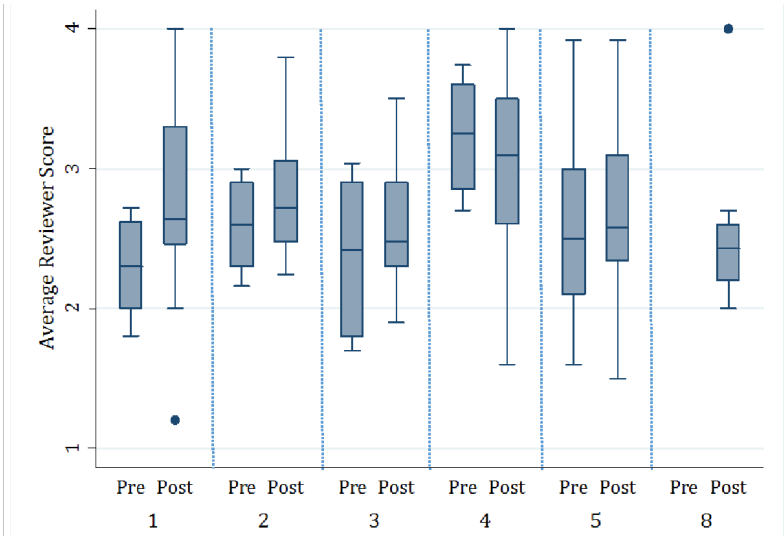

Figure 3. Box and whisker plot: Average scores across reviewers (pre- & post-focus group comparison.

Are these differences statistically significant? To answer to that question, we ran a repeated measures ANOVA, testing the average scores for each reviewer across the pre-and post-focus group time frames. Only reviewer one's scores produced a statistically significant result for the two time frames [$F(1,22) = 6.59$, $p = 0.016$]. None of the other reviewers presented statistically significant differences in *Average Reviewer Scores*.

Yet Figure 3 suggests that some changes may have occurred, perhaps within the approach reviewers use to score the individual criteria. Again, we turn to a visualization of rubric criteria scores in Figure 4 below, adding a pre-and post-focus group comparison to the visualization.

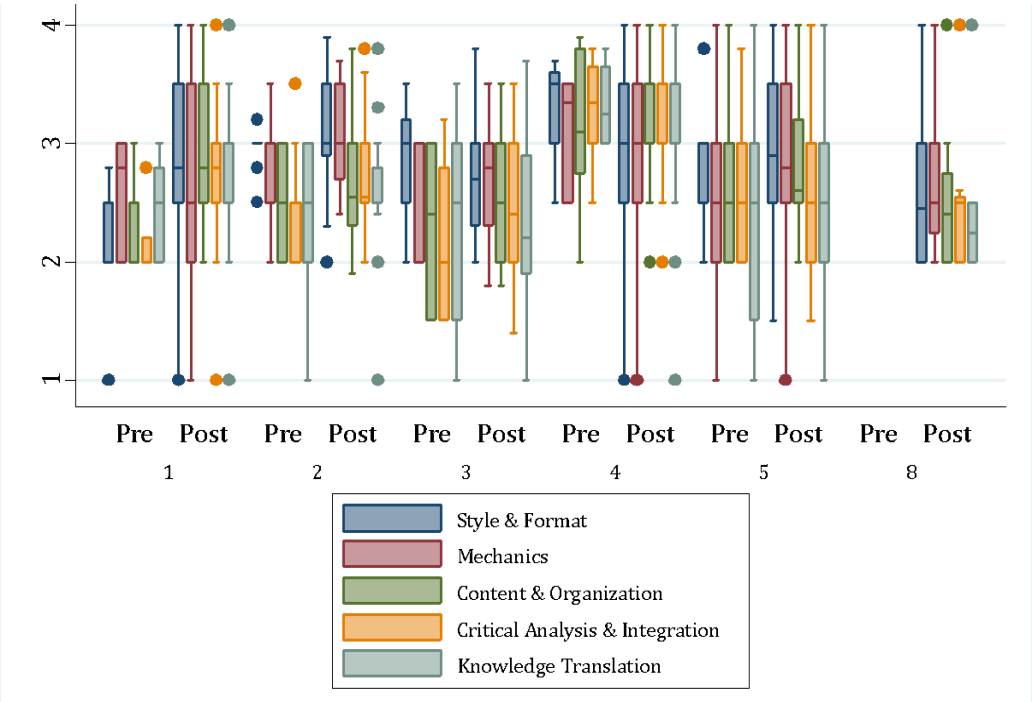

Figure 4. Box and whisker plot: Rubric criterion scores across reviewers, pre- and post-focus group comparison.

Figure 4 provides a nuanced view of the potential influence of the focus group and resulting changes on criteria scores across reviewers—of course, it is also possible that students that engaged in the candidacy process after the focus group in June of 2017 were somewhat more comfortable with the essay writing process than their predecessors (who, of course, were the first to engage with the requirements of Process Three). Nonetheless, the data suggests that differences in how reviewers use the five criteria to score candidacy essays continue to exist. However, the variances in the post-focus group scores overall tends to suggest that a consensus is emerging – reviewers may feel more comfortable in providing a higher or lower score than they were when process three was initiated.

Discussion

Candidacy exams within doctoral programs are a consequential milestone for students. In this analysis, we described our efforts to assess the influence of a revised candidacy process on candidacy scores in an online doctoral program We found that while the process has become more challenging for students (pass rates are lower than under previous processes) reviewers may have a somewhat inconsistent approach to their use of the criteria embedded in the new rubric. Efforts to increase the collective understanding of how the components of the rubric should be used are underway.

Faculty members in similar programs may learn several lessons from this approach. First, the free exchange of ideas is very important. Without an open environment to discuss changes, our program might not have made these revisions at all, and assessing their utility may have been more difficult. Next, data capture is very important. In a larger program like ours, attempts, scores, and minutia quickly piled up. Without a consistent approach to data gathering and storage, this analysis would have been far more difficult to conduct. We revealed some accomplishments here – yet we also revealed shortcomings. Without accurate data, our ability to reform and move forward with a more effective candidacy process would have been compromised. The utility of rubrics (as well as a nuanced view of their effectiveness in evaluation) is also a hallmark of this work. The rubrics, although not perfect, allow candidacy reviewers to more effectively evaluate the work of students and, perhaps more importantly provide students with a set of expectations for their work. Finally, this work may provide guidance to others who direct and teach within online graduate programs—the lack of evaluative scholarly work on this subject is striking; this analysis seems likely to provide strategies that other assessment professionals may wish to employ. Finally, it reveals that high stakes exams can be conducted effectively within a fully online program in a fair manner that provides students with a rigorous learning experience that is consistent with graduate level educational standards.

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Prevailing Over Qualitive-Quantitate Schisms: Towards a Reconciliation of Competing Paradigms in Leadership Research

Abstract

This paper is an effort to overcome some clashes and schisms between the two prevailing leadership paradigms, quantitative and qualitative. I review the role of established and emergent theories in qualitative leadership studies, discuss the major characteristics of qualitative leadership research such as the importance of symbols and language, the role of the researcher as the research instrument and co-creator of knowledge, inductive data analysis and the research participants' perspective. I elaborate on some of the ways of overcoming some of the dichotomies that exist between the two paradigms such as increasing the legitimacy of qualitative research and finding more conciliatory ways of evaluating qualitative and quantitative leadership research.

Introduction

Leadership research is based on two competing paradigms, qualitative and quantitative, which set the parameters for the theories that undergird philosophical assumptions regarding ontology, epistemology, methodology and axiology as well as the scope and significance of research efforts. Traditionally, the hegemony of the quantitative paradigm also known as positivism and post-positivism has ruled. Positivism holds that society, like the physical world, operates according to general laws. Some of the hallmarks of positivism are the assumption that there is a valid, verifiable truth, science is cumulative and causal determinism, prediction, and the generalization of results are necessary requisites to validate these assumptions. Positivism dominated undisputedly along with the assumption that knowledge can be conventionally summarized in the form of time- and context-free generalizations. During the history of leadership, research has relied heavily, at times almost exclusively, on the traditional social science repertoire of quantitative methodologies such as surveys, lab, and field experiments to help us identify and understand leadership problems and develop solutions that can be scientifically tested, verified, and replicated.

The study of leadership, as we know it today, is based on paradigms we have formulated, the theories we have developed, methodologies we have established, and benchmarks for the practice of leadership we have put into use is in a state of transition. Many components of leadership theories and research were developed when organizations were substantially different compared to contemporary firms changing from bureaucratic structures to more fluid form such as team- or network-based organizations. Much of what we currently know about leadership was learned in the context of hierarchical bureaucratic structures. Embedded in this form of organization is both an ideology that supports sharp gradations of power and authority and a centralized flow of information with top-down directions from the CEO as the omnipotent leader residing at the apex of the organization. The prevalent leadership style has been command and control with power and authority resting with the CEO and channeled down the organizational hierarchy.

With shift from hierarchical to team- and network-based organizations, the time was ripe for a paradigm shift, which ushered in the qualitative revolution. A paradigm shift, also called a scientific revolution (Kuhn, 1962), requires a radical break from existing models of leadership. Paradigm shifts happen when enough anomalies have accrued that the dominant paradigm can no

longer accommodate. For example, in the case of transactional and transformational leadership, the theory cannot account for leadership phenomena that we are observing in team-based organizations where the single, omnipotent leader who resides at the apex of the organization has been replaced by a top management team populated by senior executives in the C-suite, a group of ‘‘chief officers, ’’ such as the CEO, CFO (Chief Financial Officer) or CIO (Chief Information Officer). Alassutari (2009) argued that qualitative research emerged because some of the articles formerly classified as ‘non-empirical’ or ‘theoretical, gave way to an increasing share of articles classified as qualitative. Since the rise of qualitative research, according to the author, has primarily taken place at the expense of non-empirical or theoretical rather than quantitative articles, it has contributed to an overall systematization of social research.

The interest in qualitative research has been fostered by a general dissatisfaction with the type of information provided by quantitative techniques (Weber, 2004). This dissatisfaction stems from several sources: the complexity of multivariate research methods, the distribution restrictions inherent in the use of these methods (e.g., multivariate normality), the cross-sectional nature of many quantitative leadership studies, the large sample sizes these methods require, a body of data that bedeviled by contradictory findings, the presence of measurement artifacts, the pervasive emphasis on rationality and objectivity and the difficulty understanding and interpreting the results of studies in which complex quantitative methods are applied (Cepeda & Martin, 2005, p. 851). Although quantitative methods are ideal for testing hypotheses, especially with large samples, permitting the development of sophisticated causal models and allowing for replicability across settings, they are poorly suited to help us understand the meanings leaders and followers ascribe to significant events in their relationships and the success or failure of their organizations. As a result, until recently, qualitative studies in leadership remained relatively rare (at least as measured by published journal articles), especially within North America. Instead, the paradigm that still guides leadership research is the quantitative model heavily subscribing to survey and questionnaire research as the dominant data collection method.

The paradigm shift was also prompted by the prevailing the reliance on two-dimensional model of leadership such as task- versus people-oriented, autocratic versus democratic, and transactional versus transformational theories. These models are based on opposites that do not take into account such as organizational culture, contexts and factors that transcend the traditional dichotomies. For example, Padilla, Hogan, and Kaiser (2007), in the context of toxic leadership theory created a “three-legged-stool theory consisting of destructive leaders, susceptible followers, and conducive environment. Likewise, Frey (2005) proposed a theory of spiritual leadership that draws from ethical leadership theory, positive psychology, and corporate social responsibility. I formulated (Klenke, 2007) a theory of authentic leadership that combines construct from cognitive-, affective-, conative- and spiritually-based leadership theories.

However, some recent efforts are underway. For example, in the context of toxic leadership theory, Padilla, Hogan, and Kaiser (2007) developed a ‘three-legged-stool’ model composed of destructive leaders, susceptible followers and conducive environment with three independent dimensions. Likewise, Fry (2005) has built a theory spiritual leadership that draws from theories of ethical leadership, positive psychology and corporate social responsibility. I formulated a multi-faceted theory of authentic leadership that combines cognitive, affective, conative, and spiritual constructs. However, most of these models have not been tested in their entirety.

Nevertheless, these critiques led to the rise of a variety of qualitative paradigms including interpretivism, constructivism, hermeneutics, symbolic interactionism and pragmatism and started the paradigm wars between qualitative and quantitative scholars who believe that theory should drive methodology whereas many qualitative researchers believe that theory emerges at the end of a qualitative study. However, qualitative research, particularly case study research, in contrast to other qualitative designs, requires that the complete design embodies a theory of what is being studied, drawn from the existing knowledge base. Identifying the theoretical framework at the onset of the inquiry is necessary, since it affect the research questions, analysis, and interpretation of findings (Yin, 2014). Yet some scholar even argued mistakenly that theory has no place in qualitative research although it is difficult to envision a study without a conceptual or theoretical framework (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015).

Miles and Huberman (1994) addressed the critical role of theory in qualitative research and claimed that without at least some conceptual framework, there would be no way to make reasoned decisions about what data to gather or to determine what is important from among the welter of what is possible. They pointed out that the conceptual framework can be rudimentary or elaborate, theory-driven or commonsensical, descriptive or causal, but it delineates the main things to be studied and the presumed relationships among them. The conceptual framework is, according to Miles and Huberman, constructed from the theories and experiences the researcher brings to and draws upon in conceptualizing the study.

Qualitative paradigms provide new means of exploring previously unanswered questions, enabling leadership researchers to conduct studies that lead to new forms of knowledge about leadership, followership and organization (Sandberg, 2005). Although there are differences across the qualitative paradigms, many share the fundamental philosophical assumptions and stress to differing degrees the importance of the role of meaning of language (after all, Fairhurst & Sarr (1996) called leadership a language game) and symbols in human and social interactions and claim that knowledge is constructed through interaction between humans and their environment.

Role of theory in leadership research

Theory has been defined in a variety of ways by philosophers of science and scholars in the academic disciplines. Examples include Kerlinger (1986) who defined theory as "a set of interrelated constructs, definitions and propositions that represents a systematic view of phenomena by specifying relations among variables, with the purpose of explaining and predicting phenomena" (p. 9). In a similar fashion, Argyris and Schon (1974) defined theory as "a set of interconnected prepositions that have the same referent – the subject of the theory" (pp. 4-5). In a somewhat different vein, Strauss (1995) noted that theory provides a road map of why the world is the way it is. He further explained whereas theory is a simplification of the world, it nonetheless is aimed at clarifying and explaining some aspect of how the world works.

Discussing this myriad of definitions, Silver (1983) purported that formal definitions of theory rob theory of its beauty, its emotional significance, and its importance to everyday life. She defined theory as a unique way of perceiving reality, an expression of someone's profound insight into some aspect of nature, and a fresh and different perception of an aspect of the world. According to Anfara and Mertz (2006), to understand a theory, we need to experience a shift in our mental structure and discover a different way of thinking. To understand a theory, we need to feel some wonder that we never saw before what now seems to have been obvious all along. To

understand theory, we need to stretch our mind to reach the theorist's meaning. In many discussions of theory (e.g., Babbie, 1986; Silver, 1893), important points are made about its component parts – the relationships of concepts, constructs, and propositions to theory. As we move from concepts to the level of theory, there is also a movement from concrete experiences to a level of abstract description.

Kurt Lewin, the father of social psychology, whom Marrow (1969) called a practical theorist, made the famous dictum that there is nothing so practical as a good theory first coined in the 1940s, to suggest that good theory guides effective action by turning knowledge to wisdom. According to McMillan and Schumacher (2001), certain criteria must be present for a theory to be useful in the development of scientific knowledge. A theory (1) should provide a simple explanation of the observed relations relevant to the phenomenon, (2) should be consistent with both the observed relations and the an already established body of knowledge, (3) is considered a tentative explanation and should provide means for verification and revisions, and (4) should stimulate further research in areas that need investigation. Agnew and Pyke (1969) recommended that a good theory be (1) simple, (2) testable, (3) novel, (4) supportive of other theories, (5) internally consistent, and (6) predictive. Eisner (1993), however, framed it most cogently:

> Theory attempts to satisfy the human need for scientific rationality by providing explanations that will meet that need. The adequacy of such explanations is tested not only by their appeal, their cogency, and their aesthetic quality, but by the extent to which they can be used to help us anticipate, if not control, the future (p. vii).

Anfara and Mertz (2006) summed up the discussion on the usefulness and what constitutes god theory by stating that a useful theory tells an enlightening story about some phenomenon such as leadership. It is a story that gives us new insights and broadens our understanding of the phenomenon (p. xvii).

A paradigm shift, also called a scientific revolution (Kuhn, 1962), requires a radical break from existing models of leadership. Is the study of leadership at the cusp of a paradigm shift? Traditional theories of leadership such as trait (e.g., Mann, 1959; Stogdill, 1948, 1974), behavior (e.g., Halpin & Winer, 1957; Lickert, 1967), contingency (e.g., Fiedler, 1967; House, 1971; Kerr & Jermier, 1978) have given way to ''new'' theories (Bryman, 2004) including transactional/ transformational (e.g., Bass, 1985; Burns, 1978, 2003) and visionary leadership (Sashkin & Sashkin, 2003). Although traditional theories have focused on physical, personality, or cognitive traits, behavioral styles, and specific situations, the new theories have shifted the emphasis from the focus on leaders as omnipotent heroes and saviors, whose performance accounts for organizational successes and failures, to leadership processes which include followers a vital part of the leader–follower equation. Virtually all the traditional theories are leader centric. In contrast, the new theories take followers into account and some of them offer follower-centered perspectives (e.g., Meindl, 1985; Kellerman, 2008, Chaleff, 2009). As an alternative to the leader-centric theories, these authors proposed a follower-centric approach that views both leadership and its consequences as largely constructed by followers and hence influenced by followers' cognitive processes and inter-follower influence processes (Meindl & Shamir, 2006). The newer leadership theories also increasingly consider the role of time and place in leadership,

as leaders and followers can be geographically dispersed cutting through time zones and localities around the globe.

In addition to traditional and new leadership theories, we are now evidencing the emergence of a wide array of alternative models characterized by a focus on core concepts such as spirituality (e.g., Fry, 2003), authenticity (e.g., Avolio, Gardner, Walumba, Luthans, & May, 2004; Gardner & Avolio, 2005; Harter, 2002; Klenke, 2005, 2007), chaos and complexity (e.g., Marion & Uhl-Bien, 2001; Schneider & Somers, 2006; Uhl-Bien, Marion, & McKelvey, 2007), relationality (e.g., Uhl-Bien, 2006; Ospina & Uhl-Bien, 2012), ethics (e.g., Ciulla, 2014; Brown & Treviño, 2006), and transcendence (e.g., Carey, 1992; Crossan, Veran, & Nanjad, 2008). Table 1 summarizes the more recent leadership theories.

Table 1

Emergent theories of leadership

Spiritual leadership (Fry 2003, 2005) Post-heroic leadership (Fletcher, 2004)	Quiet Leadership (Badaracco, 2002) Ethical leadership (Bass & Steidlmeier, Brown & Treviño, 2006; Ciulla, 2014)
Servant leadership (Greenleaf, 1977; Spears, 2004)	Chaos & complexity theory (Marion & Uhl-Bien, 2001; Uhl-Bien, Marion & McKelvey, 2007; Schneider & Sommers, 2006)
Authentic leadership (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Klenke, 2005)	Self-sacrificial leadership (DeCremer & van Knippendorf, (2005)
Aesthetic leadership (Ladkin, 2008; Strati, 1992, 1996)	Paradoxical leadership (Kark, Shamir, & Chen, 2003)
Relational leadership (Uhl-Bien, 2006)	Terror management theory (Cohen et al., 2004; Hoyt, Simon, & Reid, 2009)
Team leadership (Day, Gronn, & Salas, 2006; Marks, 2001	Toxic leadership Zacarro, Ritman, & Lipman-Blumen, (2006), Padilla, Hogan, & Kaiser, 2007
Followership	Chaleff, (2009); Kellerman (2008) Uhl-Bien, Riggio, Lowe, & Carsten (2014)

These emergent theories attempt to accommodate new organizational structures characterized by more fluid, temporal arrangements, rapidly changing technologies, increased globalization, and changing workplace demography. If we were to use one word to characterize the contemporary study of leadership, that word is diversity: diversity of definitions, theories and paradigms; diversity of gender and ethnicity; and diversity of contexts. However, as Fairhurst's work (2007) attests, the study of leadership remains fraught with tension, ambiguity, uncertainty, and paradox: so much scholarly fire and fury, so little illumination. On the one hand, our general fascination with leadership - and a concomitant belief that leaders are the key to solving our problems - remains intense. This fascination is combined with a diminishing confidence that leaders in politics, business, and other settings can deliver anything worthwhile at all (Tourish, 2008). Meindl (1995) argued that despite the sheer volume of theory and research devoted to the study of leadership, we have been unable to generate an understanding of leadership that is both intellectually compelling and emotionally satisfying. As a result, the concept of leadership remains largely elusive and enigmatic.

Qualitative Research Characteristics

The characteristics of quantitative research are derived from the ontological, epistemological, methodological and axiological assumptions are well known and I will not repeat them in this presentation. One of the hallmarks of qualitative research is sensitivity to and dependence on the context in which leaders, followers, and other stakeholders operate. According to Miles and Huberman (1994), qualitative research "provides thick descriptions that are vivid, nested in real context and have a ring of the truth (p. 91). Thick descriptions are the opposite of thin descriptions which consist of generalized findings, factual statements, observations or coded data (Cunliffe, 2010).

The characteristics of qualitative research are often elucidated by placing then in opposition to quantitative research. Whereas quantitative researchers seek causal determination, prediction, and generalization of findings qualitative researchers pursue thick description of lived experiences of their research participants who are co-creators in the research process and seek illumination and understanding of complex leadership phenomena in context-specific settings.

Table 2

Major characteristics of qualitative research

Search for meaning
Constructed reality
Thick narrative description
Ask why rather than what questions
Concern with context and process
Importance of symbols, meaning and language
Inductive data analysis based on subjective data
Participant perspective
Emergent rather than prefigured design
Extended engagement in the field
Oriented toward discovery
Holistic in focus

Build new theory

Towards a Reconciliation of Competing Paradigms in Leadership Research: What Leadership Educators Can Do

The leadership researcher is equipped to narrow and heal the tyranny of the "and/or" by engaging in a number of steps that overcome the dichotomies governing the qualitative and quantitative paradigms. They include the following: (1) increasing the legitimacy of qualitative leadership; (2) the value-bound nature of qualitative research; (3) the participant's perspective; (4) the role of the researcher.

Increasing the legitimacy of qualitative leadership

Qualitative research is slowly on the rise and accompanied by legitimacy which is testified by the number of articles appearing in qualitative such as *Qualitative Inquiry* and quantitative journals such as the *Journal of Applied Psychology.* Qualitative leadership research, when conducted with the same amount of rigor and concern for reliability and validity, has several distinct advantages over quantitative approaches by offering more opportunities to explore leadership phenomena in greater depth, to do so longitudinally, and the answer "why" types of questions about leadership as opposed to "how" and "what" types of questions. Moreover, according to Steiner (2002), qualitative research has the potential to restore respect for the ontological integrity and the capacity to replace esoterica with relevance. Qualitative data provide depth and detail through direct quotations and careful, thick descriptions of persons, situations (contexts), events, interactions and observe behaviors. Qualitative research captures the richness of people's experiences on their own terms. It involves the non-numerical organization of data to discover patterns, themes and qualities found in field notes, interviews, transcripts, diaries, and cases.

The value-bound nature of qualitative research

I take the view that the value question is paramount in definitions of paradigms because the axiological questions deal with values of being, about what human states are to be valued or simply by what they are (Heron & Reason, 1997). Values play a critical role in qualitative leadership research because they are ineluctable in shaping the inquiry outcomes making values more explicit and transparent (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Value-free data cannot be obtained because the researcher uses his or her preconceptions to guide the research process and interacts with the participants.

The participant's perspective

The participants or the researched are the stars in a qualitative study – their authentic voices must be honestly and carefully presented. Participants and researchers collaborate in the design, data collection, analysis, and interpretation to arrive at the 'story' that reflects the voices of the participants. In a collaborative study, both researchers and research participants come to perceive of an issue through shared perceptions. Participants who have experienced a phenomenon report this experience in ways they find validating and know that the researcher accepts and respects their reports as a valuable contribution to increased understanding of the phenomenon.

The role of the researcher

Unlike the quantitative researcher who seeks causal determination, prediction and generalization of findings, his/her counterpart pursues illumination, understanding, and meaning making. The quantitative researcher serves in a role of authority and subject matter expert and the boundaries between the researcher and the researched are clearly established with the researcher following the research protocol and the participant being the recipient of the protocol. On the other hand, the qualitative researcher is considered the primary instrument of data collection and analysis (Denzin & Lincoln, 2003). This means that data are mediated through this human instrument, rather than through inventories, questionnaires, or machines. As a result, individual qualitative researchers must come to know their unique characteristics as research instruments and understand how their subjectivity affects the conduct and results of their research (Spillett, 2003). Researchers need to explore the ways in which their personal histories saturate their inquiry. In a qualitative study, the researcher is an active co-creator of the research process, empowered to change the course of the research protocol, and is the owner of the knowledge that is co-constituted by the researcher and the researched. Finally, qualitative research reports are descriptive, incorporating expressive language and the "presence of voice in the text" (Eisner, 1991, p. 36).

Leadership educators and researchers can insure the pursuit of research strategies to enhance the quality of qualitative research to include: (1) prolonged research engagement; (2) peer debriefing; (3) member checking also known as respondent validation; negative case sampling and (4) reflexivity or critical self-reflection; (5) triangulation.

Prolonged engagement with the research participants means developing a trusting relationship or *trustworthiness* with them and help them to obtain a deep understanding of the phenomena under study. It refers to spending extended time with respondents in their native culture and everyday world to gain a better understanding of behavior, values, and social relationships in a social context (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005). This involves spending adequate time observing various aspects of a setting, speaking with a range of people, and developing relationships and rapport with members of the culture. Development of rapport and trust facilitates understanding and co-construction of meaning between researcher and members of a setting. According to Morse, Barrett, Mayan, Olson, & Spiers (2002), the researcher should be there long enough to: (1) become oriented to the situation so that the context is appreciated and understood; (2) be able to detect and account for distortions that might be in the data; (3) the researcher can rise above his or her own preconceptions, and (4) the researcher builds trust.

Peer debriefing is based on regular meetings with other people who are not directly involved in the research such as colleagues to uncover blind spots the researcher may have and to discuss working hypotheses and results with them. The primary purpose of peer debriefing is to enhance the credibility of a qualitative study by "providing an external check on the inquiry process (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 301). Peer debriefing involves engaging disinterested peers a structured or semi- structured interview between the researcher and the research participants whereby all elements of the study are discussed in detail. Knowledgeable, impartial colleagues, peers, or mentors can raise probing questions and play devil's advocate and facilitate the emergence of meaningful interpretations. The researcher may also ask peers to code a few transcripts to provide feedback on the data analysis.

Member checking, or *respondent validation (*Morse et al. (2002), is a technique that involves a process of continuous, informal testing of information by soliciting the reactions of respondents

as a means of reassuring the credibility of participants' stories. Member checking, including respondents' review of the researcher's field notes, working hypotheses, and report drafts, means that researchers are accountable to those sharing their words, lives, and experiences with them. Member checking serves to decrease the incidence of incorrect data and the incorrect interpretation of data, with the overall goal of providing findings that are authentic and original (Creswell, 2016).

In addition to verifying accuracy, providing completeness, and improving validity, member checking may create therapeutic benefits for research participants (Shamai, 2003). For example, Hutchinson, Wilson and Wilson (2007) discovered benefits such as sense of purpose, self-awareness, empowerment, and providing a voice for the disenfranchised, many of which occurred during the member checking phase. Shamai (2003) believed that therapeutic effects usually resulted from the client restructuring the experience as it is being told from their viewpoint. When given the opportunity to read what they have reported, the depth of their narration hits them like a lightening bolt because now they are faced with their perspective of the experience (Harper & Cole, 2012).

As much as member checking may result in positive therapeutic experiences, a problem is that it relies on the assumption that there is a fixed reality that can be accounted for by the researcher and can be confirmed by a respondent, which may not be true (Doyle, 2007). Another problem is the possibility of recalling painful memories for research purposes that endanger the participants' emotional well-being and cause them psychological distress and as such violate the APA code of not doing harm to research participants (Grinyer, 2004). This serves as a reminder to researchers that the benefits need to outweigh the risks when using member checking in qualitative research.

Negative or deviant case sampling means the identification and analysis of cases that disconfirm the researcher's expectations and tentative explanations. This procedure of looking for and analyzing deviant cases is applied after a preliminary interpretation of the data has been formulated. Contradictions in the data can give rise to unexpected findings, which ultimately strengthen theory. In fact, qualitative researchers actively look for negative cases to support their arguments. A negative case is one in which respondents' experiences or viewpoints differ from the main body of evidence. When a negative case can be explained, the general explanation for the typical case is strengthened. Such deviant case analysis helps refine the analysis until it can explain all or the vast majority of the cases under scrutiny.

Reflexivity involves self-awareness and critical self-reflection by the researcher to uncover potential biases and predispositions as these may affect the research process and conclusions. Through reflexivity, researchers become aware of their potential biases and predispositions and monitor their attempts to control them. According to Lincoln and Guba (1985), researchers who have looked extensively at the issue of reflexivity, noted:

> Reflexivity is the process of reflecting critically on the self as researcher, the human instrument …[it] forces us to come to terms not only with our choices of . . . the problem and which those with whom we engage in the research process, but with our selves and with the multiple identities that represent the fluid self in the research

> setting . . . Reflexivity demands that we interrogate ourselves concerning the ways in which research is shaped and staged around the contradictions and paradoxes of our own lives (p. 283).

Reflexivity is conceptualized as a conscious act that demands the researcher situates him/ herself clearly with the social and cultural context and is willing to openly confront the self as the field work proceeds (Kacen & Chaitin, 2006).

While the importance of reflexivity is not debated among qualitative researchers, its difficulties, practicalities, and methods of being reflexive are rarely addressed (Mauthner & Doucet, 2003). As a result, the implications of philosophical and theoretical discussions about reflexivity, epistemology, and the construction of knowledge for empirical research remain underdeveloped. To overcome this problem, Mauthner and Doucet suggest that reflexivity need to be operationalized more deliberately through the many stages of the research process.

Finally, *triangulation* refers to verifying facts through multiple data sources and addresses the question of the validity of the study by using more than one method of data collection by pairing, for example, interviews with participant observation. Triangulation addresses the issue of internal validity. The researcher looks for patterns of convergence to develop or corroborate an overall interpretation. This is controversial as an overall test of validity because it assumes that any weakness in one method will be compensated by strength of another method. However, triangulation is difficult to perform because data collected using different methods come in different forms and defy direct comparison (Barbour, 2001).

These strategies are intended to bolster reliability and validity of a qualitative leadership study. They are verification strategies or standards used to evaluate the quality of qualitative research and represent a comprehensive approach but are primarily reliant on procedures or checks by reviewers to be used following the completion of the study. They represent a minimally acceptable level or an unobtainable gold standard for the researcher. Subsequent clashes between the ideal and the real in the attainment of each standard are sometimes unavoidable. Reviewers who evaluate completed research sometimes forget that decisions which greatly influence the quality of the finished product may have been made quickly in the field without the privilege of knowing the overall outcome of the research. According to Morse et al. (2002), using standards is a judgment of the relative worth of the study applied on completion of the project at a time when it is too late to correct problems that may result in a negative evaluation of the research.

Some scholars have proposed alternatives such as credibility, transferability and authenticity which can be modified to be applicable to both paradigms. As noted earlier, credibility is the qualitative response to internal validity in quantitative leadership research and transferability corresponds to external validity. Authenticity is another criterion which has been added to the array of qualitative standards that involves a set of criteria such as fairness, defined as a shared view between the researcher and the researched, and ontological authenticity, which emphasizes the growth the participants experience during the study and “open-ended evolving” (Lincoln, 1995, p. 275), that commits the researcher to a set of actions such as balance of perspectives, shared knowledge and social action (Manning, 1997).

The commensurability or compatibility of different paradigms has been hotly debated. Some qualitative pioneers such as Lincoln and Guba (2000) argued that the ontological foundations of

positivist and interpretivist paradigms are fundamentally incompatible. Likewise, qualitative researchers in the purist tradition which devalues and negates objectivity and generalizability, often believe that the two methods are incompatible because they are inextricably linked to different paradigms which make different assumptions about the world and what constitutes valid research.

Conclusions

Scholars "across the aisle" have attempted to heal the split between the qualitative and quantitative paradigms in leadership research and efforts have been made to reconcile the two paradigms thus providing the opportunity to exploit the advantages of both approaches and opening the way for synergy effects. This can be most clearly seen in the proliferation of mixed methods studies, in which quantitative and qualitative methods are combined by triangulating methods, theories or researchers from both camps. This is not to say that the boundaries between qualitative and qualitative research have been resolved or that paradigmatic differences no longer exist. Paradigms – both research and leadership – change over time and place. For more than two decades, the call for the integration of qualitative and quantitative methods, methodological eclecticism, let alone a synthesis of the two paradigms has largely gone unheeded (Roberts, 2003). For leadership research, the methodological landscape may simply not mature enough to respond to these calls and challenges. However, despite the many proposed differences, ultimately the qualitative-quantitative debate is philosophical, not methodological.

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Strengths Based Assessment: Predicting Student Success in an Online Graduate Leadership Program

Abstract

The CliftonStrengths assessment (Rath, 2007) is a widely-used inventory focused on identifying a person's top-five signature themes or talents. This research project, funded by the 2018 Association of Leadership Educators' Mini-Grant Program, sought to describe students' signature themes and evaluate the relationship between students' themes and a variety of student success indices in an online graduate leadership program. This research report describes the type and frequency of graduate students' themes and strength domains and provides recommendations about how to best serve online graduate leadership students across all strength domains to maximize their success in the online, graduate learning environment. A full report of the relationship between students' strengths and the indices of student success will be available at the annual conference.

Introduction

Graduate and online 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; Servage, 2009). Further, 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, 1980; Knowles, Holton, & Swanson, 2015). However, the field is ripe for evidence-based best practices about how best to inspire and support these students through graduate academic programs. This research project serves as one such initiative and investigated students' CliftonStrengths top-five signature themes (formerly known as the Clifton StrengthsFinder) (Rath, 2007) and their relationship to a variety of student success indices in an online graduate leadership program.

In anecdotal conversations with fellow program faculty over the past several years, loose ideas emerged about potential relationships between students' CliftonStrengths top-five themes and their general performance in the program. For example, the faculty had noticed (albeit without any real data) that students with Strategic Thinking and Executing focused themes such as *learner* and *achiever* tended to thrive in the online graduate environment, whereas those with Influencing and Relationship Building focused themes such as *woo* (winning others over) and *positivity* seemed to take a greater number of leaves of absence and were less committed to the program in the latter portion of the plan of study (perhaps because of the limited opportunity to apply relationally-focused practices and in-person social interactions) (Rath, 2007; Rath & Conchie, 2009). A deeper and more nuanced understanding about how these students' themes either contribute to their achievements or their challenges in an online graduate leadership program is important because it informs the relatively uncharted territory of graduate leadership education.

The purpose of this research study was to describe online graduate leadership students' signature themes from the CliftonStrengths assessment and to evaluate the predictive nature of these

themes across a variety of student success indices. The aim of the research project is to subsequently determine how to best serve graduate leadership students across *all* strength domains to maximize their success in the online, graduate learning environment (Knowles et al., 2015; Rath & Conchie, 2009).

The research presented in this paper includes preliminary descriptive findings as part of a larger project, funded by the 2018 Association of Leadership Educators' (ALE) Mini-Grant Program. A full report of the project's findings will be available at the annual ALE conference.

Literature Review

The Scholar Practitioner Student – An Argument for Andragogy

The number and type of online education programs have steadily increased over the last several decades (Boud & Tennant, 2006; Boyer, 1990). This growth provides increased educational access for the traditional undergraduate learner, but also for the adult scholar practitioner. Adult scholar practitioner students come to the online classroom with a wide variety of goals including skill certification, degree completion, and graduate level degree attainment. However, the adult scholar practitioner graduate student is qualitatively different than the typical undergraduate or nontraditional adult learner (Granello, 2001; Knowles, 1980; Knowles et al., 2015). Those who come to the online graduate classroom are often career professionals seeking advancement in their field, or in some cases, a career change. 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. Fields such as business and nursing have begun training their graduates through a leadership lens. However, the conversation amongst leadership scholars is relatively new and ripe for a broad look at leadership education at the graduate level, namely how to best inspire and lead scholar practitioner students through graduate leadership academic programs (Friga, Bettis & Sullivan, 2003; Radzyminski, 2005).

In the late 1960s, Malcolm Knowles identified 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) sough 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). Adult students desire exercises that are tailored to tap into the richness of their lived experiences and reflect on the direct application of the concepts under study in their place of work (Hansman, 2001; Knowles, 1980; Merriam, 2001). As a result, while best practices created with an undergraduate leadership population in mind may work beautifully in traditional leadership programs, they may not cleanly translate to graduate leadership program models. The need for both empirical and conceptual research about how best to serve these uniquely motivated students will be increasingly important as the number and type of these graduate leadership programs increase.

Because scholar practitioners enter the virtual classroom with a varied set of goals, motivations, and life experience from which to draw upon, graduate programs benefit from a deeper understanding of the strengths, talents, and interests of the students in their classrooms. One such set of talents can be identified, and subsequently cultivated, by the CliftonStrengths assessment (Gallup Organization, 2018; Rath, 2007).

Strengths Based Assessment and Education

The CliftonStrengths assessment (Rath, 2007) is a widely-used leadership inventory, completed by nearly 18.1 million people worldwide (Gallup Organization, 2018) and is used both in practitioner and education settings. The assessment encourages individuals to discover patterns of thinking, feeling, and behaviors that when refined, can be developed into strengths or signature themes. The assessment and related supporting reports and coaching were built upon the principles of positive psychology (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000; Seligman, Steen, Park, & Peterson, 2005; Snyder, Lopez, & Pedrotti, 2010) and designed to initiate a "strengths- based development process in work and academic settings" (Asplund, Agrawal, Hodges, Harter, & Lopez, 2014, p. 2).

The CliftonStrengths assessment is a web-based inventory comprised of 177 paired statements to which individuals report how accurate that statement describes them on a Likert-type scale. Participants have 20 seconds to respond to each statement. The inventory takes approximately 45-60 minutes to complete and respondents are immediately provided with a report of their top- five (out of a possible 34) CliftonStrengths themes. These 34 themes fall within four strengths domains:

- Strategic Thinking (analytical, context, futuristic, ideation, input, intellection, learner, strategic)
- Executing (achiever, arranger, belief, consistency, deliberative, discipline, focus, responsibility, restorative)
- Activator (command, communication, competition, maximizer, self-assurance, significance, woo)
- Relationship Building (adaptability, connectedness, developer, empathy, harmony, includer, individualization, positivity, relator)

Rath and Conchie (2009) and www.gallupstrenthscenter.com provide a full description and discussion of each theme and related strengths domains. The CliftonStrengths assessment has been examined in a number of reliability and validity studies both by Gallup, the developer of the assessment and externally (see Asplund et al., 2014). Acceptable, though varied reliability and validity across a variety of contexts has been established.

With the growing number of campuses nationwide that have adopted a strengths-based culture, the CliftonStrengths assessment has become more readily available for students. As a result, researchers continue to investigate the utility and limits of a strengths-based approach to education in the broader higher-education community. Although most research about students' strengths has been conducted with undergraduate students, several researchers have explored the relationship between graduate students' themes in a variety of graduate programs. For

example, Janke et al. (2015) evaluated the top-five CliftonStrengths themes of 1,244 pharmacy students

across five Midwestern pharmacy institutions and found that the top-five themes were Achiever, Harmony, Learner, Responsibility, and Empathy. Although they found some small gender differences across these themes, they identified that the five themes were consistent among students at all five separate colleges of pharmacy, perhaps suggesting a common set of motivations or talents for students in this type of professional health program. It is unclear whether and how other health profession programs, or other non-health graduate programs students' themes and strengths domains are similar or different.

Strengths Based Advising

Strengths based advising (Schreiner & Anderson, 2005) is an advising framework used primarily in undergraduate education whereby the guiding belief is that students achieve "greater outcomes when they discover and develop their natural talents instead of solely mitigating their areas of weakness" (Soria, Laumer, Morrow, & Marttinen, 2017, p. 55). This model is predicated on the foundations of positive psychology (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000; Seligman, Steen, Park, & Peterson (2005); Snyder, Lopez, & Pedrotti, 2010) and the idea that reactive advising—that is deficit remediation in higher education advising models is no longer adequate for meeting the needs of today's learners. "When student weakness is the focus of attention, a vicious cycle of low expectations is initiated among students, faculty members, and staff alike" (Schreiener & Anderson, 2005, p. 21). The strengths based advising model is instead, a forward-looking framework whereby all students are encouraged to recognize their strengths and talents and build upon past successes to further develop with those strengths in mind. The basic elements of strengths based advising include first, an identification of students' top talents, followed by a practice of encouraging students' awareness and appreciation of those talents and strengths. Then advisors are encouraged to assist students to develop action plans related to an area in which they most want to achieve success. Further, students are to consider how their strengths will help them achieve those objectives. The response amongst scholars to the strengths based advising model has been generally positive, however few empirical studies exist about the *effectiveness* of strengths based advising on student success indices such as retention, graduation rates, and GPA. Soria et al. (2017) conducted one of the more thorough quasi-experimental studies about the effectiveness of a strengths based advising approach on student success outcomes. Specifically, they found that amongst 1,228 first year students at a large Midwestern University, first year students who experienced strengths based advising conversations were retained at higher rates after the first year, graduated in four years, and reported higher levels of engagement and academic self-efficacy compared to students who did not participate in strengths based advising conversations.

The majority of empirical work in the area of strengths based advising has been conducted with undergraduate students (see Soria, Lingren Clark, Coffin Koch, 2013; Soria, Roberts, & Reinhard, 2015; Young-Jones, Burt, Dixon, & Hawthorne, 2013). As a result, there is as void of literature about how a strengths based advising model might contribute to student persistence and success in graduate programs. To develop empirically based advising programs and to test their effectiveness towards improving student outcomes, researchers must first know the talent themes that scholar practitioner students bring to the classroom—that is how to meet them where they are in the advising conversation.

Methods

Data were collected from student records in an online graduate leadership program. The program began in 2011 and is a 60 credit hour, fully online program designed for adult scholar practitioner students who are interested in obtaining a terminal degree in the field of interdisciplinary leadership. The program is intended to be completed in 42 months (3.5 years), though most students complete the program in closer to 45 months (3.75 years). As of December 2017, 592 students had enrolled in the program. All 592 students are included in subsequent analyses.

Student records were available for all students who began the program between January 2011 and August 2017. Data were made available to the principal investigator in a deidentified manner and are presented in aggregate to protect the identity of the graduates and currently enrolled students. The project was approved by the principal investigator's Institutional Review Board.

Program Demographics

The program student sample was 47.9% female (n = 284) and 52.1% male (n = 308). A majority of the students (64.7%) self-reported their ethnicity as White (n = 383), 11.1% Black (n = 66), 3.4% Hispanic (n = 20), 3.2% Asian (n = 19), 1.7% American Indian (n = 10), 5.1% (n = 30) reported their ethnicity as 'Other,' and 10.8% of students (n = 64) declined to report their ethnicity.

At the time of data collection, 318 students were currently enrolled in coursework, 105 students had been dismissed or withdrawn from the program, and 159 students had graduated. Status for 10 students was not available.

CliftonStrengths Assessment

To understand the type and frequency of students' CliftonStrengths signature themes as well as the relationship between these themes and a variety of student success indices in the online graduate leadership program, data were collected from a variety of sources.

Students completed the CliftonStrengths assessment (Gallup Organization, 2018) as part of the online orientation program. The orientation occurred during the first two weeks of the students' time in the program. For students who began the program prior to January 2015, the top-five themes were collected from a program level database whereby students' strengths were reported via administrator access to Gallup's CliftonStrengths reports. Beginning in January 2015, students self-reported their top-five strengths in an orientation program discussion board assignment. The researchers reviewed these discussion board assignments and recorded students' self-reported top-five strengths. Upon completion of the mining of discussion board assignments for collection of students' CliftonStrengths, a second researcher reviewed 45% of the data for interrater reliability and accuracy. The review resulted in an interrater reliability of .95, a level of agreement appropriate for this sample size and scope of study.

Student Success Variables

Indices of student success were collected through comprehensive program student records. Student indices of success include GPA, status in the program (active, withdrawn/dismissed, graduated), time to candidacy, candidacy outcome (pass on the first attempt, pass on the second attempt, did not pass on the second attempt), candidacy score (measured on a continuous scale from 0 (unacceptable) – 4 (exceptional)), dissertation defense scores (measured on a continuous score from 0 (unacceptable)- 25 (exemplary)), time to dissertation defense (in months), and defense outcome (pass, no pass). Data analysis is ongoing and results related to the relationship between students' strengths and student success will be presented at the ALE conference.

Results

The following section presents preliminary results from the research, specifically a detailed description and categorization of the students' CliftonStrengths themes and strength domains.

One of the primary objectives of the research project was to determine the frequency and type of CliftonStrengths themes across online graduate leadership students. Across all students for which at least one CliftonStrengths theme was reported, there were a total of 2,733 individual top-five themes. Across all students, each of the 34 possible CliftonStrengths themes was reported at least once. The most frequently occurring themes among all students were *learner* (n = 311, 47.1%), *achiever* (n = 255, 38.6%), *strategic* (n = 185, 28%), *relator* (n = 169, 25.6%), and *responsibility* (n = 147, 22.3%). The least frequently occurring themes were *consistency* (n = 19, 2.9%), *command* (n = 23, 3.5%), *adaptability* (n = 27, 4.1%), *empathy* (n = 28, 4.2%), and *includer* (n = 28, 4.2%). See Table 1 for a summary of the frequency of all students' top-five themes.

Table 1

Frequency and Total Percentage of CliftonStrengths Themes Across All Students

Theme	Frequency	% of Total	Theme	Frequency	% of Total
Consistency	19	2.9%	Developer	56	8.5%
Command	23	3.5%	Restorative	61	9.2%
Adaptability	27	4.1%	Context	63	9.5%
Empathy	28	4.2%	Ideation	70	10.6%
Includer	28	4.2%	Positivity	70	10.6%
Self-Assurance	34	5.2%	Belief	71	10.8%
Deliberative	35	5.3%	Intellection	94	14.2%
Significance	35	5.3%	Futuristic	99	15.0%
Discipline	36	5.5%	Individualization	100	15.2%
Focus	38	5.8%	Connectedness	101	15.3%
Woo	45	6.8%	Arranger	102	15.5%
Harmony	47	7.1%	Input	125	18.9%
Communication	49	7.4%	Responsibility	147	22.3%

Competition	50	7.6%	Relator	169	25.6%
Analytical	53	8.0%	Strategic	185	28.0%

Maximizer	53	8.0%	Achiever	255	38.6%
Activator	54	8.2%	Learner	311	47.1%
			Total	2733	100%

The researchers collapsed each instance of the 34 themes (*n* = 2,733) into their respective domains (Executing, Influencing, Relationship Building, Strategic Thinking). Figure 1 illustrates the frequency of individual themes organized by domain. The most commonly occurring domain was Strategic Thinking (36.6%) and the least common was Influencing (12.55%).

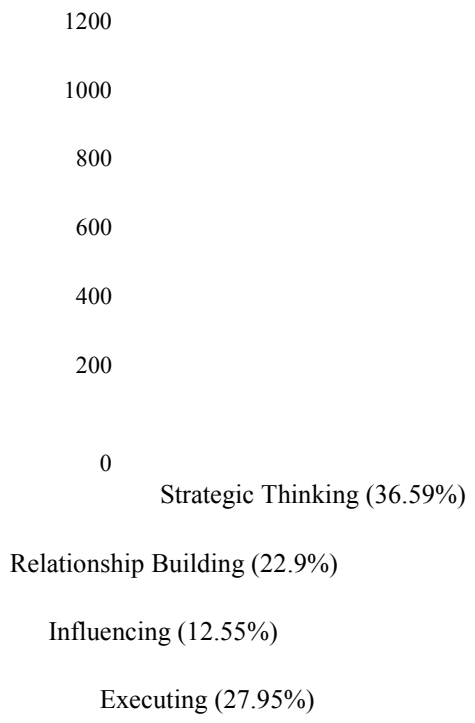

Figure 1. Frequency of individual themes occurrences per strength domain

The researchers also calculated the most commonly represented strength domain for each student. For example, across an individual student's top-five themes, at least two themes belonged to one domain (the most commonly occurring domain for that student). In some instances, two most common domains were calculated, should four of the student's themes collapse into two separate domains. This process resulted in 720 total top individual student domains (across 592 total students). Figure 2 illustrates the most commonly occurring top domains across all students. The most common top domain across all students was Strategic Thinking (44.8%). The least common was Influencing (10.6%).

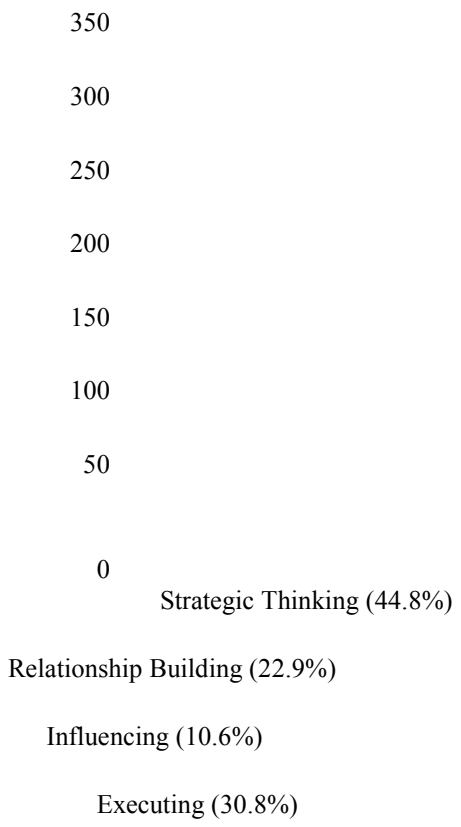

Figure 2. Most commonly occurring strength domain(s) for each student. Because some students had more than one commonly occurring domain, the percentages add up to more than 100%.

Discussion

Although not prescriptive, the CliftonStrengths assessment provides individuals with a general sense of their natural talents and strengths themes (Rath & Conchie, 2009). The results of this study suggest that students in an online graduate leadership program have top-five themes that fall into the Strategic Thinking and Executing domains (64.6%) at a higher rate than the Relationship Building and Influencing domains (35.4%). In fact, the sample trends so heavily in the Strategic Thinking domain that no theme from Strategic Thinking appears in the bottom 14 most common themes. In other words, all eight of the Strategic Thinking themes appear in the top 20 reported themes in the online graduate leadership program. Likewise, no theme from the Influencing domain appears in the top 17 most common themes. All eight of the Influencing themes appear in the bottom 17 reported themes.

Based on the preliminary, albeit important descriptive findings of this study, it is clear that scholar practitioner students who apply to, and who are subsequently accepted to an online graduate leadership program most commonly have themes in the Strategic Thinking domain and least commonly in the Influencing domain. The Relationship Building and Executing themes tend to be more evenly split throughout the distribution. Interestingly, however, the

top ten most common themes across all participants evenly divide into the Strategic Thinking (n = 4), Executing (n = 3), and Relationship Building (n = 3) domains, suggesting a balance between the occurrence of these themes across students in the program. However, the top two themes of *learner* (a Strategic Thinking theme) occurred in 47.1% of students' top-five themes and *achiever* (an Executing theme) occurred in 38.6% of students' top-five themes.

Rath and Conchie (2009) describe themes that fall into the Strategic Thinking domain as focused on what *could* be. People who exhibit themes in this domain absorb and analyze information and help teams make better decisions. They may be detail focused and thoughtful about learning

everything they can about a situation with a forward-looking goal in mind. Similarly, those whose strengths fall primarily into the Executing domain "know how to make things happen" (Rath & Conchie, 2009, p. 24). They will work tirelessly to make an idea or process a reality. In thinking about the top strengths of students in the program, it makes logical sense that adult scholar practitioner students may pursue an advanced degree where they can stretch these strength domains. For example, a student with a great desire to learn and continuously improve (*learner*) and with stamina to work hard and with an appreciation of being productive and busy (*achiever*) feels quite descriptive of the type of student who might pursue an advanced graduate degree.

The bottom three themes of *consistency* (an Executing theme) occurred in 3.1% of students' top-five themes, *command* (an Influencing theme) occurred in 3.5% of students' top-five themes, and *adaptability* (a Relationship Building theme) occurred in 4.1% of students' top-five themes. People who exhibit themes in the Influencing domain like to take charge and speak up. They may help a team reach a broader audience and are "always selling the team's ideas inside and outside the organization" (Rath & Conchie, 2009, p. 25). On the other hand, those whose themes fall primarily into the Relationship Building domain create cohesion between people or groups through a variety of individualized and group approaches. In thinking about the least common strengths of students in the program, it again makes logical sense that those whose strengths fall primarily into the Influencing and Relationship Building domains may feel challenged by the structured nature of the program, in addition to a lack of obvious opportunities to stretch those outward facing strengths, such as *woo* or *empathy*, both of which require varied interactions with others.

This paper contributes to the larger body of research about the scholar practitioner as well as strengths-based research generally. Specifically, these findings create an interesting comparison to the findings from Janke et al., (2015). The two samples (1,244 pharmacy students from five programs across the Midwest v. 592 online graduate leadership students) share three top-five themes (*achiever, learner,* and *responsibility*). However, the pharmacy students in Janke et al.'s (2015) study exhibited two top-five themes that occurred relatively low on the list of common themes from online leadership graduate students (*empathy* occurred as the fourth least common theme and *harmony* as the 12th least common theme). This interesting juxtaposition suggests that there may be several themes that are common across *all* students who pursue graduate education, though several themes may be discipline or context specific. Further research and comparisons across types of graduate programs will provide additional insight about this phenomenon.

While these findings are descriptive, ongoing analyses will provide details about whether and how students' top-five themes and strengths domains are predictive of success in the online graduate leadership program. Good care should be practiced in interpreting these findings as they are not prescriptive. Practitioners should avoid making admissions or judgment decisions based on students' themes and instead, design support structures to encourage all students across each strength domain. However, these findings provide interesting insight about the students who are attracted to online graduate leadership education.

Future Research and Analyses

Future research, much of which will be conducted in the latter portion of this study's analyses, will focus on the predictability of students' themes on student success indices. For example, faculty in the program have discussed in passing, that students with strengths in the Influencing and Relationship Building strength domains seem to have more trouble than other students in the latter portion of the program. Early in the program, students take classes as a cohort—a built in support structure as they work through the first several years in the program. The latter 18 months of the program require a significant written dissertation project whereby students work independently and without that initial cohort support structure. Perhaps students with Influencing and Relationship Building themes who inherently rely on human interaction are less compelled, or less excited about the individual (and sometimes isolating) work of the dissertation and thus, less likely to finish the program. Future analyses will investigate these potential relationships.

Should predictive relationships between CliftonStrengths themes and student success exist, the program has an opportunity to create evidence-based supports to provide initial and ongoing encouragement for students, based on their top-five themes. A strengths based advising model (Schreiner & Anderson, 2005; Soria et al., 2017) is one potential approach to support scholar practitioner students with strength-specific skill sets and advising across the curriculum. The future analysis of existing data will give the researchers a good sense of when students with specific strengths excel or struggle in the program. An individualized advising approach will help inform and potentially remedy some of these student challenges.

Limitations

Although this study contributes to the body of literature about the characteristics of adult scholar- practitioner students in online graduate leadership programs, several limitations must be considered. The first is related to the preliminary nature of the research project's findings. Data collection and analysis is ongoing. As a result, the common themes and strengths domains may shift slightly as additional participants are added to the data over the coming months. Another potential limitation is the self-reported nature of students' CliftonStrengths themes. While the researchers have no reason to believe that students reported inaccurate themes, it is possible that students could have done so for a variety of reasons including a dissatisfaction with their top-five themes. Students from this study came from one graduate leadership program. It is possible that the unique nature of the online interdisciplinary nature of the graduate leadership program limits the generalizability of the study's findings. However, research about adult learners generally suggests some common themes across scholar practitioners (Knowles, 1980; Knowles et al., 2015) and thus, some generalizability of findings may be appropriate to other, similarly situated programs.

Conclusion

This research project is informed by the Association of Leadership Educators' mission to strengthen and sustain the expertise of professional leadership educators in two primary ways. First, as graduate leadership education is a relatively new field, this project provides

insight about how to best educate and serve these scholar practitioner students (Boud & Tennant, 2006;

Friga et al., 2003; Servage, 2009). Second, as the number of online programs continues to increase, this project informs graduate educators about some of the potential factors that might impact student success in online programs generally, and specifically a graduate online leadership program.

This research is intended to both ultimately help leadership educators understand the relationship between students' strengths and their performance across a variety of formative and summative measures in an online graduate leadership program and inform curriculum and assessment practices to better serve our students from an andragogical perspective. As the number of graduate and online leadership programs continues to grow, these findings can be shared to establish a more collaborative capacity for programmatic assessment and best practices across the larger leadership education community.

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Understanding Relationships between Race, Gender, and Postsecondary Student Leadership Development: A Critical Literature Review

Abstract

Within the past two decades, postsecondary enrollments in the U.S., on the whole, have become less-White and less-male, prompting an increase in identity-related student leadership development research. In an overview of key studies published within the past 25 years; Dugan (2011) argued that findings from studies examining social identity (particularly race) may be sending mixed messages. The present study offers a critical synthesis of identity-based leadership development literature published in highly-rated, peer-reviewed higher education and leadership journals from 1997-2017. Thoughtful applications of critical theory can strengthen the study of student leadership development by providing more opportunities to learn from the lived experiences of students of color, questioning the generalizability of research findings, and situating findings in context.

Introduction

In recent years, the development of knowledge and skills associated with postindustrial leadership (Rost, 1993) has received increased attention from postsecondary institutions, national educational organizations, accrediting agencies, and employers. Unlike industrial or managerial conceptualizations of leadership which position leaders atop a hierarchical structure wherein unilateral influence trickles from the top down in an effort to maintain the status quo, contemporary leaders are called to behave in collaborative ways in an effort to enact intentional change (Northouse, 2015; Rost, 1993). Rost (1993) refers to this kind of leadership as *postindustrial.* That is, "an influence relationship among leaders and followers who intend real changes that reflect their mutual purposes" (Rost, 1993, p. 102). In line with this description, skills such as collaborative problem solving, communication, and multicultural competence are often cited as critical learning outcomes for today's students (Association of American Colleges & Universities, 2008; Astin & Astin, 2000; Council for the Advancement of Standards in Higher Education, 2009; Hurtado, 2007; National Association of Colleges and Employers, 2013).

As a result, higher education scholars have become more interested in identifying significant factors, environments, and experiences that influence the development of college students' capacity for contemporary leadership (Dugan, 2011). In an effort to understand developmental processes in line with increasingly diverse campus contexts, findings within the existing body of literature are often disaggregated by race, gender, sexual orientation, and/or their intersections (Arminio et al., 2000; Dugan et al., 2012; Dugan & Komives, 2010; Flowers, 2004; Harper & Quaye, 2007; Inkelas, 2004; Kezar & Moriarty, 2000; Kodama & Dugan, 2013; Renn, 2007). In an overview of key studies in student leadership development published within the past 25 years; however, Dugan (2011) argues that findings from studies examining social identity (particularly race) are often difficult to decipher given (a) the relative lack of literature on the subject, (b) conflicting results of the literature that does exist, and (c) the tendency for quantitative researchers to use racial categories as predictors (variables) in lieu of more robust constructs of racial identity.

Ospina and Foldy (2009) express similar sentiments in their critical review of race and ethnicity in leadership studies literature. Specifically, they highlight a "discontinuity in theory building" wherein scholarly disciplines on the periphery of leadership studies—such

as communication, cultural studies, and education routinely use critical approaches to examine issues of race and racism, the field of leadership studies has generally lagged behind.

Like Ospina and Foldy (2009), higher education scholars have begun to use critical lenses to synthesize and review current literature. Harper (2012), for example used a framework of color- blind racism (Bonilla-Silva, 2009) to highlight the ways in which higher education researchers routinely fail to appropriately theorize race-related findings—often attributing race-related differences to "anything but racism" (Harper, 2012). After reviewing the literature on Latino postsecondary access and success, (Núñez, 2014) drew inspiration from prior work on intersectionality (Collins, 1990; Crenshaw, 1989) to propose a framework to more fully capture the influence of Latinx students' multiple identities (e.g. nation of origin, class, gender, sexuality, immigrant status, language fluency, religion) on related educational outcomes.

Purpose and Research Questions

Given the call for increased clarity in research around student identity and leadership development (Arminio et al., 2000; Dugan, 2011; Dugan et al., 2012; Guthrie et al., 2013; Kezar & Moriarty, 2000), and the surge in dialogue around the use of critical approaches to identity- based research, the present article utilizes principles of critical quantitative inquiry (Stage & Wells, 2014) to guide a synthesis of leadership development literature published in highly- rated, peer-reviewed higher education and leadership journals from 1997-2017. Specifically, the research questions examine:

1. What is currently known about the relationships between student social identity (specifically race and gender) and leadership capacity development according to the present body of literature (1997 – 2017)?
2. What theoretical, methodological, and student population gaps currently exist in the literature that might be addressed through applications of critical theory?

This two-decade period was selected for two reasons. First, the empirical study of specific leadership capacity outcomes related to college student development has largely taken shape within the past 20 years (Dugan, 2011). Secondly, the University of Michigan affirmative action cases of the early 2000s (*Gratz v. Bollinger*, 2003, *Grutter v. Bollinger,* 2003), are often credited with sparking the development of the "benefits of diversity" body of literature that centers on topics of campus climate, student engagement with diverse peers, and experiences of students from various racial backgrounds. This has significantly increased research dedicated to understanding educational experiences and outcomes of students from different social identity groups.

Conceptual Framework: Critical Quantitative Inquiry

Critical scholars work toward identifying systems of power that perpetuate privilege, marginalization, and oppression in an effort to transform these systems (Guba, 1990). Critical scholarship is often thought of as a qualitative endeavor; however, several researchers have made significant contributions to current understandings of the ways critical thought can be applied through the use of quantitative methods (Bensimon & Bishop, 2012; Carter & Hurtado, 2007; Covarrubias & Vélez, 2013; Hernández, 2015; Stage, 2007a, 2007b; Teranishi, 2007;

Wells & Stage, 2015). According to Stage and Wells (2014), quantitative criticalists must work toward three important ends.

First, they must "use data to represent educational processess and outcomes on a large scale to reveal inequities and to identify social or institutional perpetuation of systematic inequalities in such processes and outcomes" (Stage & Wells, 2014, p. 2). Critical quantitative inquiry combats purported claims of neutrality, objectivity, and colorblindness by foregrounding the material effects of race and (structural) racism in all aspects of the research project (Bensimon & Bishop, 2012; Bonilla-Silva, 2009; Covarrubias & Vélez, 2013; Harper, 2012; Zuberi & Bonilla-Silva, 2008). This practice is uncommon in higher education research (Bensimon & Bishop, 2012; Covarrubias & Vélez, 2013; Harper, 2012; Iverson, 2007), which tends to rely on deficit- narratives of student of color "underachievement" (Bensimon & Bishop, 2012; Covarrubias & Vélez, 2013; Harper, 2009; Solórzano & Yosso, 2002; Teranishi, 2007; Yosso, 2005), and/or attribute differences in student outcomes to "anything but racism" (Harper, 2012).

Secondly, critical quantitative inquiry seeks to "question the models, measures, and analytic practices of quantitative research in order to offer competing models, measures, and analytic practices that better describe the experiences of those who have not been adequately represented" (Stage & Wells, 2014). Quantitative social scientists habitually rely on a handful of methods that uphold to a seemingly objective standard of rigor (Carter & Hurtado, 2007; Hernández, 2015; Wells & Stage, 2015). Such statistical methods; however, are ultimately rooted in white supremacy (Covarrubias & Vélez, 2013; Smedley & Smedley, 2005) and—when left uninterrogated—can perpetuate "an understanding of the world that further solidifies racial hierarchies" (Covarrubias & Vélez, 2013, p. 273). As an example, Bensimon and Bishop (2012) call attention to the common use of research methods that control for race as a predictive demographic characteristic or exclude race altogether.

Lastly, critical quantitative scholars are called to, "conduct culturally relevant research by studying institutions and people in context" (Stage & Wells, 2014). Postsecondary contexts are constantly evolving as they are shaped by and continue to shape modern society. Thus, higher education research must contend with changing demographics of students, faculty and staff, alterations to policies that affect student access, retention, and graduation, and larger socipolitical forces that inform social perceptions and interactions (Bensimon & Bishop, 2012; Hurtado, 2007; Renn, Dilley, & Prentice, 2003; Stage & Wells, 2014). Moreover, it is recommended that quantitative criticalists draw from the rich knowledge produced by qualitative and mixed- methods studies to add depth and context to quantitative interpretations (Covarrubias & Vélez, 2013; Hernández, 2015).

Although there are some qualitative studies included in this review, the framework offered by Stage and Wells (2014) helps to foreground important contributions that critical scholarship can make to educational research broadly, and how quantitative approaches, in particular, may be adapted to meet such ends. Leadership education, as a field, is largely quantitative in nature, and can thus benefit from the infusion of critical perspectives. For the purposes of the present review, quantitative, qualitative, and mixed-methods studies were reviewed with the three components of critical inquiry (use data to identify inequities, describe experiences of those who have not been adequately represented, and conduct culturally relevant research in

context) in mind, giving consideration to the varying methodological choices and purposes for those choices.

Method

The present paper is divided into two sections. The first section synthesizes empirical findings in the literature around the central question of the influences of student identity on student leadership capacity development. The second question uses Stage and Wells' (2014) guiding framework to address methodological, theoretical, and student population gaps in the literature.

Data Sources

I began my search with five journals that routinely publish literature related to diverse college students and their development, the study of leadership, and/or leadership education: *The Journal of College Student Development*, *The Journal of Diversity in Higher Education*; *The Journal of Student Affairs Research and Practice* (formerly the *NASPA Journal*), *The Journal of Leadership Studies*, and *The Journal of Leadership Education*. Within the titles and abstracts of these articles published in the designated time period, I used the search terms, "leadership," "development," "leader;" "student," "college," and combinations of each to find studies specifically related to college student leader or leadership development.

Dugan's (2011) overview of research on college student leadership development, served as a second source. I looked for similar articles as those presented in Dugan's (2011) review by typing each article into the Google Scholar search engine and using the "related articles" search function (scholar.google.com). Lastly, I consulted the list of peer-reviewed publications featured on the Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership (MSL) website, due to the proliferation of student leadership development research that uses the MSL database ("Publications," www.leadershipstudy.net.). This cursory scan resulted in a total of 159 articles.

The next phase of analysis filtered these articles to find those explicitly focused on race and gender. I searched article titles and abstracts for the following: "identity;" "gender;" "women;" "men;" "race;" "ethnicity;" "African American;" "Black;" "Latino/a;" "Hispanic;" "Latinx;" "Asian American;" "White;" "Mixed Race" and "Multiracial."

Finally, any cited articles that fit within the search parameters that surfaced while conducting the review, but are were not discovered in the initial search, were included. The final sample included 25 articles, listed by author, sample demographics, and analytic method in Table 1 in the Appendix.

Limitations and Delimitations

Due to the sheer volume of research on the topic of student leadership, articles concerning (a) student activism, (b) Greek letter organizations; (c) service-learning; (d) non-leadership specific forms of campus engagement and/or (e) lacking a clear emphasis on the leadership-capacity outcomes in question were not included as a primary focus of study. "Ethnicity" is included as a search term due to the tendency of scholars to, at times, use the terms "race" and "ethnicity" interchangeably. All other facets of identity, including international student status, are excluded. With regard to student populations, undergraduate students at postsecondary institutions in the

A.A. are the focus, but studies that examine other student populations within the same study are not excluded from review. Lastly, the present review does not incorporate dissertation, thesis, book, conference, or other non-peer-reviewed or non-empirical works.

Part 1: Leadership Capacity Development by Race, Gender

The review of literature yielded several key relationships between student social identity and contemporary leadership capacity. From the studies presented above, student race and gender relate strongly with leadership (a) conceptualizations; (b) identity; (c) confidence; (d) motivation; and (e) civic knowledge and/or social issues awareness/advocacy.

Conceptualizations of the the Leader Label and Process of Leadership

Research linking student identity with leadership commonly centers around (a) student's psychosocial identity development (Guthrie et al., 2013; Jones & Abes, 2013; Renn et al., 2003; Renn & Ozaki, 2010); (b) student's conceptualizations about what it means to mean a leader and what the leadership process consists of (Arminio et al., 2000; Haber, 2012), and (c) the extent to which they see themselves as leaders or possess an affective leader identity (Garcia et al., 2017; Komives et al., 2005; Renn & Ozaki, 2010; Rosch, Boyd, & Duran, 2014). The body of literature concerning student development of psychosocial identity is vast (Evans et al., 2009; Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005; Renn et al., 2003) and, although related, beyond the primary scope of this review. Thus, this section will emphasize students' conceptualizations of leaders and the leadership process, and the strength of their associations with themselves as leaders.

One of the most widely cited studies of student leadership perception is Arminio et al.'s (2000) study of experiences of student leaders of color. In an analysis of 106 structured interviews of student leaders of color on two campuses, Arminio and colleagues (2000) found that some participants prefer to eschew the "leader" label in favor of more group-oriented leadership notions. Arminio et al. (2000) study also addresses the sometimes negative connotation of the leader label for students of color in relation to systems of power and privilege. Specifically, study participants called attention to the potential of the leader label to send the message that they had effectively "bought-in" to a system that perpetuates their own oppression. Students of color in this study also discussed a burden that can come along with holding the title of "leader," citing an awareness of the potential to be judged as too radical, or not radical enough.

Conversely, Haber's (2012) thematic analysis of students' free-written definitions of leadership concluded that, overall, college students generally possess a hierarchical or leader-centric view of leadership, especially those over the age of 24. Moreover, she reported that White students were more likely to view leadership as related to a shared goal than any other group, that that American Indian students associated leadership less so with common purpose than other racial group. Lastly, she surmised that, "for the most part, students think about leadership similarly, regardless of race" (p. 44).

Although not focused on self-identified conceptualizations of leadership, research using the Social Change Model (SCM) (Higher Education Research Institute, 1996; Komives, Wagner, & Associates, 2009) illuminates relationships between race and gender identity and orientations toward collaborative leadership processes. The model defines seven interrelated

social change outcomes, operationalized through the Socially Responsible Leadership Scale (SRLS) (Tyree, 1998). These values include

1. *Individual Values*: Consciousness of Self, Congruence, and Commitment;
2. *Group Values:* Collaboration, Common Purpose, and Controversy with Civility; and
3. *Societal/Community Values*: Citizenship and Change.

Using the SCM (Higher Education Research Institute, 1996; Komives et al., 2009), Dugan (2006) surveyed 853 undergraduate students at a large, public, doctoral granting institution in the west. He found that women reported higher scores than men across all eight of the leadership constructs, with all but Collaboration and Controversy with Civility displaying statistical significance.

In a larger study of 50,378 undergraduates across 52 institutions, Dugan, Komives and Segar (2008) examined college students' capacities for socially responsible leadership by race, gender, and sexual orientation. Findings again indicated that women scored higher on most measures than men. With regard to race, African American/Black students report statistically higher orientations toward the individual value of Consciousness of Self, the group values of Controversy with Civility and the societal/community values of Citizenship and Change than White students. Asian American students reported statistically significantly lower values than all peer racial groups except Native Americans on the individual values of Congruence and Commitment, the group value of Controversy with Civility and the societal/community values of Citizenship and Change. Asian American students in the sample reported significantly lower scores than all racial peer groups on Consciousness of Self.

Leader(ship) Identity and Confidence

Current research suggests that there is a relationship between the internal beliefs about one's personal leadership ability and extent to which that individual will consider him or herself a leader (Boatwright & Egidio, 2003; Garcia et al., 2017; Guthrie et al., 2013; Hannah, Avolio, Luthans, & Harms, 2008). Some scholars refer to this as a leader or leadership identity, or, "a student's own theory about who or she is as a leader and how the student thinks of himself or herself and his or her role in relation to the world" (Guthrie et al., 2013, p. 31).

In a grounded theory study, Komives et al. (2005) identified personal, group, and developmental influences that informed the creation of a six-stage leadership identity development model.
Within this model, students possess the potential to move from *Awarneness*—the recognition that leaders exist, but not identifying as leader personally to the *Integration/Synthesis* stage—"a time of continual, active engagement with leadership as a daily process as part of self identity" (p. 607).

Using the the LID model (Komives et al., 2005), Renn & Ozaki (2010) examined leadership development processes for students of identity-based student organizations and found that most students resided in one of the three beginning stages of the model. That is, "participants perceived that groups were comprised of leaders and followers and believed that leaders did leadership—that leaders were responsible for group outcomes" (Komives et al., 2005, p. 606). This means that, like participants of Haber's (2012) study, leaders of identity-based organizations may equate the *process* of leadership exclusively with the *role* of leader (Renn & Ozaki, 2010).

Garcia et al. (2017) also used the LID model (Komives, et al., 2005) as a guiding framework— focusing less on the identity stages, and more on the contextual factors that contributed to Latino male students' "beliefs about their leadership development, leadership capacity, and experiences as leaders" (p. 6). For participants in this mixed methods study, social self-concept, social fraternity membership, ethnic student group membership, and peer interactions emerged as significant influences of Latino male leadership development. With regard to developing a leader identity, social self-concept (confidence in social skills) and peer interactions played important roles. For these students, adult mentors—such as precollege teachers—instilled a sense of confidence in the students' abilities, which translated into their college experiences. Several participants in this study also credited their peers with boosting their confidence in their leadership abilities, citing instances where "their peers saw leadership potential in them before they saw it in themselves" (Garcia et al., 2017, p. 12). Although these Latino male participants discussed the importance of peer and adult mentors in their development in their ability to see themselves as a leader or change agent, but findings from the study did not point to low self- confidence to begin with (Garcia et al., 2017). This is consistent with other research on gender and leadership self-efficacy.

Kezar and Moriarty (2000) found that both African American and White male college students viewed their leadership abilities more favorably as incoming students—and four years later—than African American and White women. Incoming Asian Pacific American women students more strongly agreed that they did not possess the skills necessary to be a leader on campus than their male APA peers in a study conducted by Liu and Sedlacek (1999). Fear of negative evaluation emerged as a significant predictor of college women's aspirations for leadership (Boatwright & Egidio, 2003), with higher leadership aspirations being correlated with lower fear.

Motivation to Lead

Boatwright & Egidio's (2003) findings align with another study that showed White women focusing more on trait-related leadership development goals, such as increasing their confidence to speak up in groups, than the White men—who were more interested in developing skills to advance their goals (Rosch et al., 2014). Some of the other driving forces behind college women's aspirations for leadership include the opportunity to (a) develop communication skills (Rosch et al., 2014), (b) foster meaningful connections with others (Boatwright & Egidio, 2003; Renn & Ozaki, 2010), and (c) advocate for social justice issues (Broido, 2000; Renn & Ozaki, 2010).

Additional literature has suggested that students of different identity groups may be driven to engage in leadership-oriented activities for different reasons. For some students of color, the decision to become involved in student organizations on campus stemmed from the encouragement of peers or mentors (Arminio et al., 2000; Garcia et al., 2017; Renn & Ozaki, 2010). Students of color also join campus organizations to meet peers with similar interests (Renn & Ozaki, 2010), deepen understanding of their personal and/or social identities (Renn & Ozaki, 2010; Sutton & Terrell, 1997), learn about and/or how to interact with other cultures (Arminio et al., 2000; Harper & Quaye, 2007), and advocate for issues important to them (Harper & Quaye, 2007; Renn & Ozaki, 2010).

In some cases, students of color and/or women reportedly started their own organizations after feeling excluded from traditionally White and/or male-dominated positions and groups

(Arminio et al., 2000; Broido, 2000; Renn & Ozaki, 2010; Sutton & Terrell, 1997). Women leaders of color in the Arminio et al. (2000) study reflected on the double-oppression they faced as women and racial minorities, and the stereotypes they encountered that their same-race male peers did not have to contend with.

Upon joining an organization, students of color may feel compelled to take on a leadership role or create change within the organization due to the model set by peers who have held that position previously (Arminio et al., 2000; Garcia et al., 2017). Moreover, once in these positions, the students felt a responsibility to carry themselves as mentors and role models as well. An Asian American woman in the Arminio et al. (2000) study explained that the "responsibility that comes with leadership is that you are a role model for other people" (p. 502). Similarly, a Mexican American/Chicano leader in an ethnic student organization reflected on the organization's guiding philosophy, "It's always been, look towards others…be the leader that develops others and puts people in the position where they get the responsibility, and they feel like they are investing time [in] something" (Garcia et al., 2017, p. 11). Motivation to lead due to a sense of responsibility toward your peers also emerged as a significant leadership outcome for Black men participants of an all-Black-male leadership program, suggesting that participating in a leadership immersion experience with others who share your identity may increase the sense of duty you feel to "step up" as a leader (Collins et al., 2017).

Civic Knowledge/Social Responsibility

Prior research has shown that students of color tend to possess a stronger awareness of their racial identity than White students (Komives et al., 2005), are more likely to increase in their cultural knowledge during college relative to their White peers (Antonio, 2001), and are often driven to engage in leadership opportunities or behaviors in an effort to address issues that affect their communities (Harper & Quaye, 2007; Renn & Ozaki, 2010).

African American male students, at Predominantly White Institutions (PWIs) in the Midwest expressed awareness and knowledge of key issues facing Black students on campus, such as low graduation and retention rates, and lack of access to important resources for Black and other minority organizations (Harper & Quaye, 2007). This awareness served as the impetus for them to get involved in both Black/minority student organizations as well as predominantly White organizations (Harper & Quaye, 2007). Harper & Quaye (2007) elaborate, "Each student leader articulated a commitment to uplifting the African American community and devoted himself to dispelling stereotypes, breaking down barriers, and opening new doors for other African American students on his campus" (p. 134). These students also cited the ability to communicate and collaborate with people from different racial, ethnic, socioeconomic, and sexual orientation backgrounds as pertinent skills gained through their student organization involvement (Harper & Quaye, 2007).

In a study of leadership and co-curricular perception of incoming Asian American men and women, Liu and Sedlacek (1999) found that although Asian American women view racism as an important social issue, they expressed an overall lack of interest in political and social groups on campus and, more than men, felt that social demonstrations were a waste of time. Liu and Sedlacek (1999) suggested that this may be due to a cultural value of harmony that stands in opposition to engaging in antagonistic behavior. In relation to the Social Change

Model (Higher Education Research Institute, 1996; Komives et al., 2009), Asian American students have been found to score significantly lower than students from all other racial groups on the measure of consciousness of self (Dugan & Komives, 2010; Dugan et al., 2008). The consciousness of self- value describes an awareness of beliefs, values, attitudes, and emotions that motivate one to take action (Dugan et al., 2008; Komives et al., 2011).

Although students of color may possess a stronger sense of their social identities and the privileges and forms of oppression they are likely to face because of them, several studies exist pertaining to the social justice ally development of White students as well as other members of dominant groups who work to end the oppression of marginalized groups (Broido, 2000; Munin & Speight, 2010; Reason & Broido, 2005).

For these students, awareness of social issues and processes of meaning-making around their own identity served as important precursors to social justice action (Broido, 2000; Reason, Millar, & Scales, 2005). Several factors in the college context contribute to cultural awareness and knowledge for White students including participation in diversity workshops (Antonio, 2001; Kezar & Moriarty, 2000), interacting students of another race (Antonio, 2001; Broido, 2000), and developing interracial friendships (Antonio, 2001). Moreover, precollege influences such as the intentional education about diversity and privilege by parents were crucial to the development of White students' orientations toward social justice (Broido, 2000; Munin & Speight, 2010; Reason et al., 2005).

Part 2: Theoretical, Methodological and Student Population Gaps

This section addresses the second research question: What theoretical, methodological, and student population gaps currently exist in the literature that might be addressed through applications of critical theory?

Student Population

Of the 24 examined in this review, 46% (n = 11) relied exclusively on populations from Predominantly White Institutions (PWIs). Moreover, 33% (n = 8) of samples reported a demographic breakdown that was more than 60% White. Lastly, 33% (n = 8) of studies focused on particular race or gender group.

Several studies compared leadership outcomes by race (Antonio, 2001; Collins & Rosch, 2017; Dugan & Komives, 2010; Dugan et al., 2008; Haber, 2012; Kezar & Moriarty, 2000; Kodama & Dugan, 2013; Rosch et al., 2014, 2016; Rosch, Collier, & Thompson, 2015). Three studies focused on students of color broadly defined (Arminio et al., 2000; Collins & Rosch, 2017; Renn & Ozaki, 2010). Five studies centered on African American/Black students, with three focusing on Black males specifically (Collins et al., 2017; Harper & Quaye, 2007; Sutton & Terrell, 1997), one examining experiences of both Black women and Black men (Kimbrough & Hutcheson, 1998) and one that did not disaggregate by gender (Flowers, 2004). One study focused on differences in leadership perceptions among Asian American men and female incoming first-year students (Liu & Sedlacek, 1999). One study examined Latino Male leadership development (Garcia et al., 2017). Three studies explored the social justice ally development of White students (Broido, 2000; Munin & Speight, 2010; Reason et al., 2005).

One study added a measure of collective racial esteem (CRE) to assess variance in students' capacities for socially responsible leadership, by race (Dugan et al., 2012).

Lastly, one study examined women's leadership aspirations, but did not disaggregate by race (Boatwright & Egidio, 2003).

Theory and Methods

Within the body of 25 studies, 60% (*n* = 15) used quantitative analytic methods, 28% (*n* = 7) used qualitative approaches, and 12% (n = 3) used mixed methods designs. With regard to theory, the most oft-used frameworks were the Social Change Model (HERI, 1991) 20% (*n* = 5) and Astin's I-E-O (1991, 1993) model of which 20% (*n* = 5) of included studies used alone, or in conjunction with another framework. Forty percent of studies (*n* = 10) used some other theoretical or conceptual framework such as the Ready-Willing-Able (Keating, Rosch, & Burgoon, 2014) model of student leadership capacity (Collins et al., 2017; Rosch et al., 2016) or the Komives et al. (2005) Leadership Identity Development (LID) model (Garcia et al., 2017; Renn & Ozaki, 2010). Lastly, 36% (*n* = 9) did not report using a theoretical or conceptual model of any kind.

Implications & Recommendations: Applying Critical Theory

According to Stage and Wells (2014), quantitative criticalists must work toward three important ends. First, they must "use data to represent educational processess and outcomes on a large scale to reveal inequities and to identify social or institutional perpetuation of systematic inequalities in such processes and outcomes" (Stage & Wells, 2014, p. 2). Secondly, critical quantitative inquiry seeks to "question the models, measures, and analytic practices of quantitative research in order to offer competing models, measures, and analytic practices that better describe the experiences of those who have not been adequately represented" (Stage & Wells, 2014). Lastly, critical quantitative scholars are called to, "conduct culturally relevant research by studying institutions and people in context" (Stage & Wells, 2014, p. 3). My suggestions for future research align with these aims.

It is evident that within the present body of student leadership development literature, voices of Latinx students, Asian American students, Native American/Indigenous student populations, and Black women continue to be silenced. In order to best serve the increasingly diverse populations on today's college campuses, it is important to deepen our understandings of the ways these students develop. This means we must:

Diversify the institutional types that serve as our data collection hot-spots. Although the nation's college campuses are becoming more diverse with respect to race, ethnicity, national origin, age, and gender (Kena et al., 2014), these demographic shifts are not happening at all *types* of institutions at the same rates. Scholars must be diligent in conducting research with participants at community colleges, Hispanic-serving institutions, Historically Black Colleges and Universities, Tribal Colleges, and Liberal Arts institutions.

Actively recruit students of color to participate in leadership experiences and/or find the spaces where they are engaging in leadership and meet them there. In addition to diversifying research samples, leadership educators and student affairs administrators must make sure that the students on their campuses are actively engaged in meaningful leadership development experiences. The present review showed that ethnic or identity-based student organizations are particularly impactful avenues through which students of color gain leadership confidence and skill. These students are often compelled to join these organizations

after seeing their friends and peers join. On one hand, this points to the power of peer influence as a means to increase student engagement for uninvolved students. On the other hand, this highlights the need for more visible and accessible adult mentors such as faculty members and staff advisors who reflect the diversity of the student body.

Allow students to speak for themselves. Much of the present student leadership literature is quantitative in nature. However, much of what we know about developmental processes for students of color, and White social justice allies have come from qualitative and mixed-methods research (Arminio et al., 2000; Broido, 2000; Garcia et al., 2017; Haber, 2012; Harper & Quaye, 2007; Komives et al., 2005). Without this important work, we may not have otherwise become attuned to the sometimes *negative* connotation of the leader label for students of color in relation to systems of power and privilege (Arminio et al., 2000), or the importance of pre-college mentors and parents to the development of college leaders (Garcia et al., 2017; Munin & Speight, 2010). It is critically important that studies of student leadership continue to uncover the rich stories and experiences for students prior-to and during their college years.

Be clear about the kinds of generalizations that can be made given the study sample. In the same way that qualitative and mixed methods studies offer incredible depth and nuance to research findings, qualitative findings can sometimes be misleading in their generalizations. For example, Kezar and Moriarty's (2000) oft-cited study provides important insight into the experiences and contexts that aid in the leadership development of African American men and women and White men and women. However, when this study is cited, it is not often noted that 94% of the sample of 9,731 students was comprised of White men and women. Leadership scholars and educators should thoughtfully consider notions of accuracy and generalizability of a study wherein African American women and African American men make up 3.7% and 2.2% of the sample.

Similarly, Boatwright, Egidio and colleagues (2003) offer findings about the influence of 213 female college students' aspirations for leadership in their future careers. The sample included 213 female college students at a Predominantly White liberal arts college, 200 (94%) of whom identified as White, 8 (4%) who identified as African American, and 4 (2%) who identified as Asian American. Boatwright et al. (2003) explain that, "due to our sample's racial/ethnic homogeneity, ethnicity was not included in the primary design" (p. 661). This is problematic; however, due to the inclusion of constructs such as *femininity*, *connectedness needs*, *fear of negative evaluation,* and *self-esteem*, which would likely have very different implications for these women depending on their racial group membership.

Root research findings in context. Thus, it is incredibly important to situate findings in context. Many studies of student leadership development rely on samples from Predominantly White Institutions. What might this say about the students in the study and the leadership experiences they may or may not have access to? What does this mean for students of color who may be one of the only participants who looks like them in a given leadership context? How might the PWI context affect opportunities for mentorship for students of color? What is the campus racial climate like at these institutions, and how does that shape the ways students see themselves and others as capable of leading change?

Attend to Intersectionality. In *Cultivating Leader Identity and Capacity in Students from Diverse Backgrounds,* Guthrie et al. (2013) discuss the importance of considering

intersections of identity as well as the relative importance students place on each of these identities, asserting, "Paradoxes of privilege create complex identity dynamics, thus influencing the salience of some social identities" (p. 41). Stage (2007b) also discusses the importance of intersectional work explaining, "When populations differ, separate analyses are needed. Differences in peoples' experiences require closer focus on racial or ethnic groups. Furthermore, we must push to examine within racial groups . . . exploring difference and resisting the temptation to make blanket comparisons across groups" (p. 99).

Evidence of these intersectional influences arose in the Arminio et al. (2000), Broido (2000), and Renn and Ozaki (2010) studies. For example, women advocates for social justice discussed the need to carve out their own spaces when excluded from traditionally male-dominated positions and groups (Broido, 2000; Renn and Ozaki, 2010). Likewise, women leaders of color in the Arminio et al. (2000) study reflected on the double-oppression they faced as women and racial minorities, and the stereotypes they encountered that their same-race male peers did not have to contend with.

Those engaged in survey research in particular, then, must find ways to account for intersectionality and social identity salience. Dugan, Kodama, and Gebhardt (2012) included a measure of collective racial esteem for this very purpose, but this study design was an anomaly among the quantitative pieces included in this review. Other ways to contextualize identity- related findings may come through the use of more robust applications of student development theories—which offer rich information about how college students develop in various aspects of their psychosocial identities, but are rarely used to theorize or contextual student leadership findings.

Conclusion

Given the call for increased clarity in research around student identity and leadership development (Arminio et al., 2000; Dugan, 2011; Dugan et al., 2012; Guthrie et al., 2013; Kezar & Moriarty, 2000), and the surge in dialogue around the use of critical approaches to identity- based research, the present article utilized critical quantitative inquiry (Stage & Wells, 2014) to guide a synthesis of leadership development literature published in highly-rated, peer-reviewed higher education and leadership journals from 1997-2017. Findings from the review suggest that student race and gender relate strongly with leadership conceptualizations, identity, confidence, motivation; and civic knowledge and/or social issues awareness/advocacy. The present body of literature relies most heavily on quantitative research designs, student populations from Predominantly White Institutions, and often-times does not employ the use of any theoretical or conceptual framework. Thoughtful applications of critical theory can strengthen the study of student leadership development by providing more opportunities to learn from the lived experiences of students of color, questioning the generalizability of research findings, and situating findings in context.

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Appendix

Table 1

Empirical Studies of Student Leadership Development by Gender and Race

Study	Sample Demographics	Analytic Method
Antonio (2001)	CIRP, 8,877 first-time, full time students attending 115 4-year PWIs.[a,b]	Hierarchical multiple regression[c]
Arminio et al. (2000)	22 African American women (12 men); 18 Asian American women (25 men); 12 Latina women (17 men) ages 18 -21.	Standardized open-ended interviews
Boatwright & Egidio (2003)	213 female college students at liberal arts institutions in Midwest. 94% White; 4% African American; 2 % Asian American[b].	Standardized open-ended interviews
Broido (2000)	White heterosexual undergraduate students at Pennsylvania State University, University Park. 3 women, 3 men.[b]	Open-ended interviews
Collins & Rosch (2017)	2,405 Leader Shape participants; 67% women, 30% men. 54% White; 15% African-American; 7% Asian-American, 9% Latino/a, 8% multi-racial; 1% Middle Eastern.	Split-Plot Analysis of Variance (or SPANOVA)
Collins et al. (2017)	Sample 1 (n = 46 in all-Black Male session); Sample 2 (n = 47 Black males across other sessions); Sample 3 (n = 148 racially diverse males).[b]	Coarsened exact matching & independent sample t-tests
Dugan (2006)	MSL: 8,510 students across 101 4-year institutions. 64% women, 36% men, 73% White, 8% Asian Pacific American, 8% Multiracial, 5% Black, 4% Latino.	Hierarchical linear modeling[c]
Dugan & Komives (2010)	14,252 seniors from 50 institutions. 61% women; 39% men; 72% White; 7% Asian Pacific American; 5% Black; 5% Latino.	Hierarchical linear modeling[c]
Dugan et al., (2008)	MSL; 50,378 students across 52 institutions. 62% Women; 38% Men; 28% students of color; 3% Lesbian Gay or Bisexual.	Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA)
Flowers (2004)	CSEQ; 7,923 African American students across 192 postsecondary institutions. 35% men; 65% women.	Convergent parallel mixed methods. OLS Regression and interviews
Garcia et al. (2017)	CIRP; 222 Latino males; 43% Mexican/Chicano; 11% Puerto Rican; 46% Other. Qualitative: 24 Latino males across 4 institutions.	Convergent parallel mixed methods. OLS Regression and interviews

Table 1 (cont.)

Study	Sample Demographics	Analytic Method
Haber (2012)	MSL: N = 1100. 220 each White; Black; American Indian/Alaska Native; Asian American/Asian Latino/Hispanic.	Loglinear analysis and content analysis
Kezar & Moriarty (2000)	CIRP: 9,731 students at 352 institutions. 94.5% Caucasian (48.3% males; 51.7% females) 5.5% African American (37.6% males; 62.4% females).	Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA)
Kodama & Dugan (2013)	57,894 students across 101 institutions. 64% female; 36% male. 73% White; 8% Multiracial; 8% Asian American; 5% African American; 4% Latino.	One-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)
Komives et al. (2005)	13 students. White (n = 8); Asian American (n = 1); African American (n = 3); African (n = 1). 8 men; 5 women.	Structured interviews
Liu & Sedlacek (1999)	376 incoming Asian-Pacific-American freshman at University of Maryland, College Park. 59% male; 41% female[b].	One-way Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA)
Munin & Speight (2010)	First Year Study: 11 White women first-year students at a large public PWI[b]. Ally Study: 15 upper-class White students from same PWI; 12 women, 3 men.	Interviews
Renn & Ozaki (2010)	18 leaders of identity-based student groups[b]. 8 women, 7 men, 3 Transgender.	Open-ended interviews
Rosch et al. (2014)	92 students university in the Midwest[b]. 57% women; 43% men; 37% Caucasian; 33% Asian/Asian American; 10% Latino/a; 21% African American.	Thematic analysis and content analysis
Rosch et al. (2015)	MSL; 1,338 students at a large, research institution the Midwest. 54% women; 46% men. 62% Caucasian; 23% Asian/Asian American; 4% Black; 3% Latino/Hispanic.[b]	Logistic regression
Rosch et al. (2016)	1,333 Leader Shape participants; 58% women, 32% men. 48% Caucasian; 17% African-American; 12% Asian-American, 6% Latino/a, 5% multi-racial.	Matched sample t-tests
Sutton & Terrell (1997)	55 African American men across two PWIs[b]	Open-ended questionnaire

Table 2.

Data Sources Key

Cooperative Institution Research Program (CIRP)	https://heri.ucla.edu/cirp-freshman-survey/
College Student Experiences Questionnaire Assessment Program (CSEQ)	http://cseq.indiana.edu/cseq_generalinfo.cfm
Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership (MSL)	https://www.leadershipstudy.net/

Examining and Explaining the Relationship Between Generativity and Socially Responsible Leadership

Abstract

This study will examine and explain the relationship between generativity and socially responsible leadership using an explanatory sequential mixed methods design. The first, quantitative phase will examine the predictive relationship between generativity and socially responsible leadership among college student leaders who mentor at a four-year, Midwestern, land-grant university using multiple regression. The second, qualitative phase will seek to explain the quantitative results using a phenomenological design by conducting semi-structured interviews among a sub-sample of the quantitative phase participants. Results from this study will advance research in social change and community development (priority 6 in the National Leadership Education Research Agenda) and will advance ALE's mission of strengthening leadership educators' expertise by improving instruction that develops socially responsible leadership and by helping leadership educators demonstrate their outcomes related to generativity and social responsibility.

Introduction

Higher education institutions and educators within those institutions are increasingly called upon to develop socially responsible leaders (Dugan & Komives, 2007). The Council for the Advancement of Standards in Higher Education (CAS), the Association of American Colleges & Universities (AAC&U), NASPA: Student Affairs Administrators in Higher Education, ACPA: College Student Educators International, disciplinary accreditor members of the Council for Higher Education Accreditation (CHEA), the National Association of Colleges and Employers (NACE), and the Degree Qualification Profile (DQP), for example, all recommend student learning outcomes related to the development of leadership and social responsibility (Adelman, Ewell, Gaston, & Schneider, 2011; AAC&U & NLC, 2007; CAS, 2015; Dreschsler Sharp, Komives, & Fincher, 2011; NASPA/ACPA, 2004; NACE, 2016).

Several strains of research in K – 12 and higher education have identified mentoring as an important tool in developing leadership, in particular socially responsible leadership (Campbell, Smith, Dugan, & Komives, 2012; Collins-Shapiro, 2006; Dugan & Komives, 2007; Dugan & Komives, 2010; Dziczkowski, 2013; Hancock, Hyjer Dyk, & Jones, 2012; Hastings, Griesen, Hoover, Creswell, & Dlugosh, 2015; Komives & Collins-Shapiro, 2006; Komives, Longerbeam, Mainella, Osteen, & Owen, 2009; Priest & Donley, 2014; Thompson, 2006). Each type of mentoring experience will generate unique leadership development experiences and outcomes. For example, while we might expect faculty mentoring to impact the majority of leadership values associated with the Social Change Model (SCM; Higher Education Research Institute, 1996) ranging from consciousness of self to controversy with civility, peer mentoring can fill in the gaps by impacting leadership values such as commitment and collaboration (Dugan & Komives, 2007; Dugan & Komives, 2010). Recent research on college student leaders who mentor revealed a significantly higher level of generativity when compared against their peers (Hastings et al., 2015). Generativity refers to "primarily the concern in establishing and guiding the next generation" (Erikson, 1950, 1963,

p. 267) and has emerged as the strongest predictor of social responsibility (Rossi, 2001), indicating that students who demonstrate a higher concern for establishing and guiding the next generation are more likely to spend their time and money building a strong family, a strong workplace, and a strong community.

While previous research studies (i.e. Hastings et al., 2015; Rossi, 2001) point to a suggested relationship between generativity and socially responsible leadership and other studies have documented a significant association between mentoring and socially responsible leadership (Barnes, 2014; Dugan & Komives, 2010), there has not been a systematic comparison of one sample of mentors' socially responsible leadership scores with the same sample's generativity scores. The purpose of this study is to examine and explain the relationship between the two concepts through systematic investigation using an explanatory sequential mixed methods design. The first, quantitative phase will examine the predictive relationship between generativity and socially responsible leadership among college student leaders who mentor at a four-year, Midwestern, land-grant university using multiple regression. The second, qualitative phase will seek to explain the quantitative results using a phenomenological design by conducting semi-structured interviews among a sub-sample of the quantitative phase participants. Understanding and explaining the predictive relationship between generativity and socially responsible leadership will advance research in social change and community development (priority 6 in the National Leadership Education Research Agenda). Additionally, these research results will advance ALE's mission of strengthening leadership educators' expertise by improving instruction that develops socially responsible leadership and by helping leadership educators demonstrate their outcomes related to generativity and social responsibility, which is increasingly important as demands for accountability rise (Reinelt & Russon, 2003).

Literature Review and Theoretical Framework

Generativity. Generativity has been a focus of developmental theory for decades (Browning, 1997; Gruen, 1964; Kotre, 1984; McAdams, 1985; McAdams &Logan, 2004; McAdams, 2001). Erikson, often believed to be the first theoretician to write an account of generativity (Wakefield, 1998), wrote of the concept as the seventh phase of the eight successive stages of psychosocial development (Kotre, 1984) in which a midlife adult either seeks to create and leave a legacy that will live on after death, labeled generativity, or reverts to increased self-centeredness, labeled stagnation (Erikson, 1950, 1963). When individuals embrace generativity, most commonly expressed through parenthood (Erikson, 1964; McAdams, 2001; Erikson, 1950, 1963), teaching (Kotre, 1984), sharing cultural understanding (Kotre, 1984; Leffel, 2008), mentoring (Azarow, Manley, Koopman, Platt-Ross, Butler, & Spiegel , 2003) and leadership (Huta & Zuroff, 2007), they demonstrate increased levels of psychological well-being (Ochse & Plug, 1986), life satisfaction (Grossbaum & Bates, 2002; Huta & Zuroff, 2007), work satisfaction (Ackerman, Zuroff, & Moskowitz, 2000), and positive affectivity (Ackerman et al., 2000; Huta & Zuroff, 2007; McAdams & Logan, 2004). In addition to the personal benefits of increased generativity, society also relies on generativity. Without the generative actions of individuals through parenting, teaching, identity and morality formation, leadership, and creations that serve others (Azarow et al., 2003; Browning, 1973; Erikson, 1964; Imada, 2004; Wakefield, 1998), "our communities would grind to a halt" (Huta & Zuroff, 2007, p. 47).

Generativity has also been identified as the strongest predictor of social responsibility (Rossi, 2001). Rossi analyzed domains and dimensions of social responsibility among 3,032 respondents (aged 25 to 74) using the Midlife Development in the United States (MIDUS) survey, a survey that examines patterns, predictors, and consequences of midlife development. Results indicated that generativity was the most significant predictor of all four dependent variables of social responsibility (time, money, family, and community). In other words, the higher one scored on generativity, the more likely he or she was to contribute time and money (dimensions of social responsibility) to both the family and the community (domains of social responsibility), indicating that the more generative a person is, the more likely he or she will be socially responsible. Considering generativity's relationship with social responsibility, what about generativity's role in developing socially responsible leadership?

Socially responsible leadership. The Social Change Model (SCM) is a model of leadership development designed to facilitate positive social change and to enhance student self-knowledge and leadership competence (Higher Education Research Institute, 1996). In higher education, SCM is considered the most widely used student leadership development model (Haber & Komives, 2009), thus making it most relevant to this study's purpose. SCM positions leadership as a "purposeful, collaborative, values-based process that results in positive social change" and identifies three groups of leadership values, namely individual, group, and community/society (Dugan & Komives, 2007, p. 9). Individual-level values include *Consciousness of Self*, *Congruence*, and *Commitment*; group-level values include *Collaboration*, *Common Purpose*, and *Controversy with Civility*; and community/society-level value includes *Citizenship*. Collectively, these values contribute to social *Change* for the common good, the eighth value associated with SCM (Dugan & Komives, 2010). Tyree (1998) developed an instrument, the Socially Responsible Leadership Scale (SRLS), designed to measure socially responsible leadership in college students by measuring the values associated with SCM. Items for the test were centered around the eight constructs of SCM.

SCM has served as the theoretical foundation for the Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership (MSL), a national study designed to examine which factors develop leadership capacity in college students conducted with over 50 higher education institutions representing 25 states (Dugan & Komives, 2007). Hierarchical multiple regressions conducted on the data from seniors (n = 14,252) revealed the importance of mentoring to developing socially responsible leadership. Faculty mentoring emerged as one of the top three predictors across all SCM values, with the exception of *Citizenship* and *Collaboration*. Peer mentoring filled in the gaps by emerging as a significant predictor for *Citizenship*, *Collaboration*, and *Commitment* (Dugan & Komives, 2010). But what is it about mentoring that develops socially responsible leadership? And should we expect a similar finding when the college students are the mentors as opposed to the mentees?

Mentoring, generativity, and socially responsible leadership in college students. Hastings et al. (2015) conducted a mixed methods study assessing generativity levels amongst 273 college students at a four-year, public university. MANCOVA results in the quantitative phase indicated that college student leaders who mentor demonstrated significantly higher generativity than other college student leaders and general college students. Phenomenological

results from interviews with nine mentoring students during the follow-up qualitative phase revealed that while a "seed of generativity" may have already been planted, their mentoring experience served as a "lab" for learning how to be generative (p. 651). Barnes (2014) compared the SRLS scores of college student leaders who mentor (N = 119) to MSL national averages, results of which indicated that college student leaders who mentor demonstrated significantly higher capacity for socially responsible leadership along all eight values of the SCM. Considering mentoring's association with generativity (Hastings et al., 2015), generativity's predictive relationship with social responsibility (Rossi, 2001), and mentoring's association with socially responsible leadership (Barnes, 2014; Dugan & Komives, 2010), one could reasonably argue that the development of generativity perhaps explains why mentoring demonstrates a significant association with socially responsible leadership.

While previous research studies (i.e. Barnes, 2014; Dugan & Komives, 2010; Hastings et al., 2015; Rossi, 2001) point to suggested relationships between mentoring, generativity, and/or socially responsible leadership, there has not been a systematic comparison of one sample of college student mentors' socially responsible leadership scores with the same sample's generativity scores. The purpose of the current mixed methods study serves to fill this existing gap by examining and explaining the relationship between generativity and socially responsible leadership among college student leaders who mentor. Research questions for each phase are outlined below:

Quantitative phase: To what extent does generativity predict socially responsible leadership after statistical adjustment for gender?

Qualitative phase: What meaning do college student leaders who mentor ascribe to their experiences with generativity and socially responsible leadership in the context of mentoring?

Mixed methods: How do the qualitative results explain the quantitative outcomes?

Methods

Figure 1 outlines the explanatory sequential mixed methods design utilized in this study. In this design, the researcher collects both quantitative and qualitative data sequentially, with one form of data playing a supportive role to the other (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007). The supporting qualitative data, in the current study, will be collected after the quantitative phase. The qualitative data collected in response to the quantitative results will allow important findings to surface that otherwise might have been missed by the quantitative instruments alone. The rationale for integrating both types of data is that the quantitative results will need enhancing in order to be fully understood. Neither quantitative nor qualitative methods alone will be sufficient to completely capture the predictive capacity of generativity on socially responsible leadership and to fully describe the influence of mentoring on the relationship between generativity and social responsible leadership.

Figure 1. Explanatory sequential mixed methods design (adapted from Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007).

The first, quantitative phase will utilize multiple regression because the intent of the analysis is to examine the predictive relationship between generativity and socially responsible leadership among college student leaders who mentor. Additionally, the intent of the current study is to generalize information obtained from the sample to the larger population of college student leaders; thus, utilizing statistical inference will be important. The second, qualitative phase will utilize phenomenology to further extend the quantitative results by explaining the impact of mentoring on the predictive relationship between generativity and socially responsible leadership among college student leaders who have shared experience with mentoring.

Sampling procedure. Participants for the quantitative phase will be 180 college students attending a four-year, Midwestern, land-grant university who are participating in a leadership mentoring program. College student participants in the leadership mentoring program are selected on the basis of demonstrating leadership talent and are paired in one-to-one mentoring relationships with K – 12 students in the local community who have been identified by their schools as demonstrating significant leadership talent. The qualitative phase sample will be selected from the quantitative phase participants who demonstrated the highest correlation between socially responsible leadership and generativity (approximately 4 - 6 students will be randomly selected from the top third of the correlational results) and a sample of students within the quantitative participants that demonstrated the lowest correlation (approximately 4 - 6 students will be randomly selected from the bottom third of the correlational results).

Sample size requirement was calculated based on Tabachnick and Fidell's (2007) recommendation of $N \geq 50 + 8m$ where m is the number of independent variables (IVs). Since we have three indicators of generativity and one gender variable, a sample size of 82 will be required in order to enable accurate and reliable statistical judgments.

Data collection. Quantitative phase data will be collected by administering the Loyola Generativity Scale (LGS), Generativity Behavior Checklist (GBC), open-ended reports of personal strivings (measure of generative commitment), the Socially Responsible Leadership Scale (SRLS), and a demographic form to capture gender data to the 180 college student leaders involved in the aforementioned leadership mentoring program. The administration of LGS, GBC, and open-ended reports of personal strivings to measure generativity follow recommended measures from seminal generativity studies (McAdams & de St. Aubin, 1992; McAdams, de St. Aubin, & Logan, 1993).

The Loyola Generativity Scale (LGS) is a 20-item self-report scale using a four-point Likert-type response option (0=Statement never applies to you, 3=Statement applies to you very often) that assesses primarily individual differences in generative concern. The 20 items load

into five subscales: (a) passing on knowledge to the next generation, (b) making significant contributions for the betterment of one's community, (c) doing things that will have an enduring legacy, (d) being creative and productive, and (e) caring for and taking responsibility for other people. The LGS has demonstrated high internal reliability (Cronbach Alpha for adult sample, α = .84; Cronbach Alpha for college sample, α = .83 in McAdams & de St. Aubin, 1992). In both the college and adult samples, each item showed relatively (a) wide response variability, (b) high correlations with the total LGS score, (c) high correlations with external generativity measures (demonstrating convergent validity) such as Ochse and Plug's (1986) 10-item generativity subscale and Hawley's (1984) 14-item generativity scale, and (d) low and nonsignificant correlation with Ochse and Plug's (1986) Social Desirability (SD) scale (demonstrating discriminant validity) (McAdams & de St. Aubin, 1992). Further, the LGS demonstrated moderately high test-retest reliability (r = .73 over a three-week interval) (McAdams et al., 1993). With regard to its use with a younger population, Lawford, Pratt, Hunsberger, and Pancer (2005) discovered that LGS scores of respondents aged 17 to 23 were significantly correlated to measures of positive adjustment (social support, lack of depression, and self-esteem), mirroring McAdams' (2001) report of similar findings among adult populations. Lawford et al. (2005) also reported considerable consistency in individual LGS scores between ages 19 and 23, further demonstrating strong test-retest reliability. Since the LGS has demonstrated both convergent and discriminant validity, one might conclude that the LGS has adequate construct validity, meaning that the LGS effectively measures the psychosocial construct of generative concern.

The Generativity Behavior Checklist (GBC) is a 50-item objective self-report that measures real- life generativity acts where 40 items measure generativity while 10 are considered fillers (McAdams & de St. Aubin, 1992). The respondent rates each item on a scale from 0 to 2 based on how often each generative action was performed in the previous two months (0=Act had not been performed during the previous two months, 1=Act had been performed once during the previous two months, 2=Act had been performed more than once during the previous two months). Each item on the checklist is phrased as a behavioral act that corresponds with generative action: creating, maintaining, or offering (McAdams & de St. Aubin, 1992). Scores on generative acts demonstrated positive and significant associations with LGS scores (r = .59, p < .001, McAdams & de St. Aubin, 1992; r = .53, p < .001, McAdams et al., 1993; r = .46, p < .001, Hart, McAdams, Hirsch, & Buer, 2001)

The open-ended reports of personal strivings is a data collection procedure adapted from Emmons (1986) that measures generative commitment. Respondents are prompted to write ten sentences, each beginning with "I typically try to…", and each describing a personal striving, defined as "the things that you typically or characteristically are trying to do in your everyday life" and as the "objectives or goals that you are trying to accomplish or attain" (McAdams et al., 1993, p. 223). Each respondent's list of ten strivings is then coded for generativity themes. Data from McAdams et al.'s (1993) study revealed significant, positive correlations between summed personal strivings scores and the total LGS score (r = .23, p < .01) as well as the summed 40 generativity items on the GBC (r = .20, p < .05). Hart et al.'s (2001) data analysis also revealed that personal strivings scores correlated significantly and positively with both the

total LGS score and the sum of the 40 generativity items on the GBC ($r = .29$, $p < .001$ and $r = .26$, $p <$
.001, respectively).

The SRLS consists of 68 items that load to eight scales, each of which correspond with a value of the social change model. The test assesses the knowledge of, attitudes about, and skills for using the eight constructs of socially responsible leadership with Likert-type response options ranging from 1 = Strongly Disagree to 5 = Strongly Agree (Tyree, 1998). Internal reliabilities for each scale ranged from .69 to .92, and Cronbach alphas for each scale ranged from .71 to .90 (Dugan, 2006a, 2006b).

Gender demographic data will be collected based upon the results of Dugan's (2006b) study which revealed women scoring significantly higher on seven out of eight SCM value constructs than men.

Data will be cleaned and entered into SPSS v. 23. Outliers, as indicated by z-scores +/- 3.0 with unusual response patterns, will be treated as missing data. If item missing data rates are less than five percent, missing data will be removed using listwise deletion. Multiple imputation procedures will be conducted for item missing rates greater than five percent given that data are missing at random, as suggested by Graham (2009). To address assumptions associated with multiple regression, multicollinearity among IVs will be assessed via variance inflation factor (VIF) statistics, and normality, linearity, and homescedasticity will be assessed via examination of residuals scatterplots (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Additionally, participants will only be allowed to take the surveys once, ensuring independence of observations. After entering the respondent data into SPSS, data will be analyzed using multiple regression to determine the predictive value of generativity to socially responsible leadership after controlling for the statistical influence of gender. Effect size will be calculated via the squared multiple correlation coefficient, R^2, which will indicate the proportion of variance in socially responsible leadership accounted for by generativitiy. Both R^2 and the adjusted R^2 values will be reported.
Additionally, both unstandardized and standardized regression coefficients will be reported, along with their corresponding confidence intervals.

Data will be collected for the qualitative phase via semi-structured interviews (see Appendix A for interview protocol) with a sample of approximately eight - 12 quantitative phase participants who fully completed the quantitative surveys. Analysis in the qualitative phase will follow recommended guidelines for phenomenology as outlined in Creswell (2007) and Moustakas (1994), which will involve identifying significant statements within the interview data and then grouping similar significant statements into meaning units (themes). Relationships between and among meaning units will be drawn to draft a textural statement (what the participants have experienced related to the relationship between generativity and socially responsible leadership) and a structural description (how the participants experienced the relationship between generativity and socially responsible leadership through their mentoring experience). The textural and structural descriptions will then be examined together to build a composite description of the phenomenon, called the essence of the experience.

Interview themes, essence, and textural and structural descriptions will then be integrated with the quantitative data results to provide a richer explanation of the quantitative results.

Research Plan

The current research study began in fall, 2017 and will end May 4, 2018. Below is the research plan and timeline associated with this study: Phase 0 (December, 2017): IRB consent granted

Phase 1 (January, 2018): Administer LGS, GBC, personal strivings, demographic form, and SRLS surveys to participants upon obtaining IRB approval.

Phase 2 (February, 2018 – March, 2018): Analyze quantitative data to ascertain statistical direction and strength between socially responsible leadership and generativity using correlational analyses and examine the predictive relationship between generativity and socially responsible leadership using a multiple regression analysis.

Phase 3 (March, 2018): Select qualitative sample and set up semi-structured face-to-face interviews.

Phase 4 (March, 2018 – April, 2018): Transcribe, code, and analyze the qualitative interviews utilizing a phenomenological approach. Then integrate the qualitative and quantitative findings.

Phase 5 (April, 2018 – May, 2018): Prepare research manuscript for presentation at the 2018 ALE conference. After presentation, prepare a research manuscript for dispersal among leadership organizations and scholars through submission to an appropriate journal.

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Appendix A: Interview Protocol

1. Tell me about your [leadership mentoring program] experience. What dimensions, incidents, and people intimately connected with your [leadership mentoring program] experience stand out for you?
2. How do you feel about your work in [leadership mentoring program]? What feelings have been generated by the experience?
3. How would you describe your relationship with your junior counselor?
    a. How did the relationship develop?
    b. How would you describe the relationship when you started?
    c. How would you describe the relationship now?
4. Tell me more about your relationship with your junior counselor.
    a. What kinds of things do you do with your junior counselor?
    b. What are you trying to accomplish with your junior counselor?
    c. How do you feel you've influenced his/her development?
5. How has your [leadership mentoring program] experience affected you? What changes do you associate with the experience?

Generativity and Socially Responsible Leadership Definitions: In this interview, I am particularly interested in the relationship between generativity and socially responsible leadership and the impact of your [leadership mentoring program] experience on that relationship. If you are unfamiliar, generativity is defined as "primarily the concern in establishing and guiding the next generation." And leadership, in the social change model, is defined is "a purposeful, collaborative, values-based process that results in positive social change."

6. In particular, how has your [leadership mentoring program] experience impacted your generativity? What changes, if any, in your generativity do you associate with your [leadership mentoring program] experience?
7. In particular, how has your [leadership mentoring program] experience impacted your capacity as a socially responsible leader? What changes, if any, in your socially responsible leadership do you associate with your [leadership mentoring program] experience?
8. In your view what is the relationship between generativity and socially responsible leadership? What impact, if any, has your [leadership mentoring program] experience had on the relationship you draw between generativity and socially responsible leadership?
9. The results from the first phase of this research revealed that… What are your reactions to these findings?
    a. What explanation, if any, might your [leadership mentoring program] experience offer to these findings?

Conclusion: This concludes the formal portion of our interview. Is there anything else relevant to your [leadership mentoring program] experience that we have not discussed in this interview?

Thank you for taking the time to interview today. I will contact you when the transcript is finished for your review of its accuracy.

Is it worth it? A case study exploring volunteer leaders' perceptions of leadership training

Abstract

Volunteer-based organizations are dependent on volunteers to meet the goals of the organization. Identifying and training volunteers as leaders of the organization is one way to increase positive social change in their community. However, there is limited literature investigating the outcomes of providing leadership training to volunteers. This case study determined participants' perceptions of a volunteer leadership training experience compared to observations of the actual leadership training. A focus group revealed three themes that were both justified and refuted by observations of the training: 1.) the need for refreshers and follow-up trainings, 2.) a disconnect between understanding leadership concepts and applying them in the volunteer scenario, and 3.) the transfer of for-profit skills and experience to the non-profit setting.

Introduction and Literature Review

Nonprofit and volunteer-based organizations are dependent on volunteers to sustain and reach their organizational goals (Fuller, 2011). Moreover, long-term volunteers in leadership positions are vital to the sustainability of non-profit and volunteer organizations (Nihart, 2012). Volunteer leaders are an underutilized resource in nonprofit organizations (Cooperation, 2007). However, as volunteer directors are stretched to their capacity, others in the organization must provide leadership to volunteers. One way for nonprofit organizations to increase their capacity is to develop the leadership skills of identified volunteer leaders ([Author], 2017).

Until recently, the topic of leading volunteers in any capacity has been untouched by the research community (Jager, Kreutzer, & Beyes, 2009). In one of the first grounded theory studies on how paid employees lead volunteers, Jager et al., (2009) propose that understanding the behaviors of volunteer leaders is imperative for organizations to fully benefit from their already limited resources. Although the importance of volunteer leaders is evident, researchers have yet to describe what identifying, training, and assessing volunteer leaders actually looks like ([Author], 2017). Moreover, it remains unknown if identifying, training, and assessing volunteer leaders is worth the effort for non-profit organizations with already limited resources ([Author], 2017).

According to Browne (2014) volunteers lend a hand, lend an ear, and lend a voice; however, they cannot do everything. Volunteers are "willing and able to take on extra responsibilities and [are] interested in other flexible opportunities which might take place outside the [organization]" (Browne, 2014, para. 5). It takes good volunteer management to insure the "expectations and needs of volunteers continue to be met, and that the skills, interests and passion of volunteers are used to their maximum potential" (Browne, 2014, para. 5). In addition, it is important to remember that some volunteers often do not have specialized skills or the willingness and time to take on extra duties within the organization (Browne, 2014).

Volunteer-based organizations play a critical role in the 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 on volunteers to carry out their missions under the direction of one or more paid staff members ([Author], 2017). 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 ([Author], 2017). Leaders influence how employees experience their daily job responsibilities and play a role in their overall happiness at work (Tuckey, Bakker, & Dollard, 2012). However, in non-profit organizations, there is a lack of leadership cultivated within the volunteer ranks (Cooperation, 2007).

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, et al., 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, by 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). Moreover, Jamison (2003) explains effective training should contain three parts: orientation to the training, refresher trainings that periodically remind leaders of their role in achieving the organization's mission, and team building that brings paid staff members together with volunteers to boost morale and develop a cohesive team. However, Paton, Mordaunt, and Cornforth (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 purpose of this case study was to compare the primary researcher's observations of a one-day volunteer leader workshop to the workshop participants' perceptions of the training. The following research objectives guided this study:

1. Identify volunteer participants' perceptions of a volunteer leader workshop.
2. Compare and contrast participants' perceptions of a volunteer leader workshop to observations of the volunteer leader workshop.

Conceptual Framework

The volunteer population in this study consisted of adult learners. Thus, the conceptual framework was based on Knowles's (1980) theory of adult learning, or andragogy. Knowles (1980, 1984) advanced several assumptions with regard to adult learners:

1. As a person matures, they become more self-directing, and thus will resist what they perceive to be "forced" learning, or learning under conditions that challenge their autonomy.
2.
3. Adults accumulate experiences, that in turn, provide a rich resource for learning. This means they have more to contribute to the learning, both their own and others, they possess a broader set of experiences to connect new learning to, and they have a greater number of fixed habits which may decrease their ability to be open-minded.
4. An adult's readiness to learn is closely related to developmental tasks of their social role. In essence, as people age, their social roles and corresponding expectations change. For example, an adult may move from full-time employee to retired volunteer. This presents new developmental tasks that produce a readiness to learn in order to fulfill their new social role.
5. As people mature, their time perspective changes from future application of knowledge to immediate application, meaning adults are more problem-focused learners. Thus, adult educators should base their curriculum development around problems adults are likely to be experiencing, rather than general subject matter.
6. Internal motivations are more potent than external. While adults may be motivated by external "rewards" such as bonuses or advancements, internal motivations are more important to adult learners.

Applying Knowles's assumptions, 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 (CE), reflective observation (RO), abstract conceptualization (AC), and active experimentation (AE). 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 volunteer workforce is made up of adults of varying 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. 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 supervisors must learn to communicate in a way each group will understand and identify with (Conners, 2011). The majority of the volunteer population at [organization] 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. 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 those involved (Proctor, 2012).

Methodology

For the purpose of this research, a case study methodology was employed to identify volunteer participants' perceptions of a volunteer leadership workshop and compare their perceptions to observations of the workshop itself. One non-profit organization was selected for this study by researchers based on need and availability. A four-hour volunteer leadership workshop was conducted over one day. The workshop was observed and observation notes were recorded.
Three months after the training, a focus group was conducted with the workshop participants to determine their perceptions of the training experience. IRB approval was obtained prior to data collection.

The primary researcher collaborated with two external experts in volunteer development to facilitate the leadership workshop. Leadership competencies identified during a previous study guided the objectives of the training. The training was delivered to volunteer leaders from [organization] by the two external experts on February 11, 2016. The workshop participants were purposively selected as leaders of [organization] by the organization's Executive Director. The selected volunteers were invited to the training via email. Attached to the email was an informed consent form, which the volunteers completed in order to participate.

The volunteer leader training was developed to provide an experiential learning opportunity for the individuals in attendance. Because of the limited amount of time for the training, the previously identified 42 competencies 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 complete 42 competencies and skills for them to use as a reference during the training and after its completion.

The primary researcher attended the volunteer leadership training to conduct an unstructured observation of the learning experience. She arrived early and chose a seat away from the area where the participants were going to sit. During the workshop, she took detailed field notes including the time each component took place. She did not interact with the participants during the training. This type of nonparticipant observation was least likely to affect the actions of the group (Fraenkel, Wallen, & Hyun, 2015). After the training, she transcribed the observations into a two-column template with the field notes typed into the left column and comments about the experience in the right column for analysis (Fraenkel et al., 2015).

A focus group was conducted three months following the training to determine the participants' perceptions of the training experience and to what extent they believed they were applying what they learned in their volunteer efforts. All workshop participants were invited to engage in the focus group via email and were provided informed consent to participate. The focus group session attendees participated in a partially structured interview and discussion, with topics both on and off of the intended script (Fraenkel et al., 2015). During the focus

group, participants were asked to describe what they did and did not like about the volunteer leader training, their background in leadership roles, and their affinity and capacity to use the leadership skills taught.

Additional topics included each individual's level of leadership training in the past, preferred means of completing training, and implementation of leadership skills in the organization.

An audio recorder was used to capture the participants responses for transcription (Fraenkel et al., 2015). In addition, the primary researcher took handwritten notes during the discussion for use during transcription and analysis. This method of triangulation was selected to increase validity and reliability of the data collected (Fraenkel et al., 2015).

The data was transcribed with assistance from transcribing software that slowed the audio for accurate transcription. A research assistant recorded the exact responses and dialog that occurred during the focus group (Fraenkel et al., 2015). The participant responses were separated chronologically by which individual said them and when they said it. The data from the focus group was then analyzed individually by the primary researcher, the research assistant, and an additional faculty member to identify prominent themes found throughout the transcript. We then met as a group and agreed on three common themes expressed by the participants (Fraenkel et al., 2015).

Findings

Volunteer Leader Training Observation

The volunteer leader training took place on February 11, 2016 from 10:00am-2:00pm. Ten volunteers were invited and eight volunteer leaders attended the workshop ($n = 8$). The training was hosted at [location] in [city, state] by two experts in volunteer leadership development. The eight volunteer leaders in attendance were selected by the Executive Director of the [volunteer organization]. Participants included three males and five females who were all retired, with an average of seven years volunteering experience with [volunteer organization]. To ensure the participants' responses remain anonymous the pseudonyms Bill, Todd, Ronnie, Ruby, Cora, Susie, Kendall, and Darla will be used to report the results of the observations. The same names will be used to report the results of the focus group. In addition, the observation findings will be reported in first person from the viewpoint of the primary researcher.

I arrived at the site of the workshop a little before 10am. The workshop was held in the boardroom of the [location]. [Volunteer organization] recently moved their main office into the [training location]. In addition, [volunteer resource organization] is also housed in the [location]. The boardroom is a large rectangular room with a large conference table in the middle of the room with medium size caster chairs around the outside of the whole table. At three of the chairs on the right and five of the chairs on the left there was a notepad and a pen for each participant. At the head of the table against the wall is the projection screen with a large easel with a giant post-it notepad propped up on the easel to the right of the projection

screen. I took a seat at the end of the table to assume an outside view of the workshop. The workshop facilitators chose the chairs closest to the doors entering into the room.

The participants begin to arrive and choose seats based on who they are familiar with. They talk amongst themselves until everyone is settled into their seats. The facilitators welcomed the volunteer leaders to the workshop and introduce themselves. [Facilitator 1] asked the volunteer

leaders to introduce themselves and state one goal they each have for the training. Bill began the introductions and the participants move clockwise around the table introducing themselves. Bill did not state his goal for the workshop and as a result none of the other participants did either. [Facilitator 1] asks the participants to go around one more time and state their goals. Bill started again and worked their way around clockwise until all participants stated their goals.

Bill explained he was retired military and had been volunteering with the organization for two years. He stated that he felt like he was not active or a leader within his volunteer role. He also did not understand why he was selected to attend the volunteer leader training. However, his goal for the training was to consistently donate time to the organization. The other volunteers quickly chimed in to say he is an incredible leader and a teacher to the episodic volunteers.

Todd has been an [organization] volunteer for 12 years and his goal is to make the community aware of the organization's potential. Ruby has been an [organization] volunteer for ten years, before she was involved in an affiliate organization in [city, state]. She is involved in multiple aspects of the organization and her goal for the training was to get other people to recognize their leadership potential. Ronnie has served [organization] since 2012 and works as the coordinator of several subgroups of the organization. His goal for the training was to learn strategies to politely turn down donations. Cora has been involved with the organization for four years and she helps out were she can. Her goal was to learn the processes and procedures in [organization] and be a good representative of the cause. Susie has been volunteering for [organization] for seven years, she serves in multiple roles and her goal was to be more persuasive and gain stakeholders support. Darla originally volunteered at the hospital and was asked to help out with the organization. She was relatively new but has already assumed leadership roles. Her goal was to become well versed in how [organization] works. Lastly, Kendall, is also retired military, and a specialized volunteer with [organization], only volunteering in one role. Her goal was to learn how she could get more involved and define followership.

The introductions took almost 30 minutes and the facilitators began the workshop by asking the participants to work in small groups to develop a list that characterizes a volunteer leader (objective one). The participants worked in three groups: 1) Darla, Kendall, Susie; 2) Bill, Todd, Ruby; and 3) Ronnie and Cora. Ronnie immediately gets up to make himself some coffee leaving Cora there to work on their list alone. Ronnie returned, agreed with what Cora had written down and then began to talk about the status of the [organization]. The other groups worked together for about five minutes to develop a list and then began to discuss specific things they are currently doing with the [organization] amongst themselves.

[Facilitator 1] asked the groups to share their list as she wrote the characteristics on the giant post-it note. Darla, Kendall, and Susie shared first, then Bill, Todd, and Ruby, followed by Robbie and Cora. [Facilitator 1] put tally marks by characteristics that were repeated. All groups repeated compassion and the ability to train and teach volunteers. Dedication, selflessness, reliability, patience, and willingness to work were repeated by two of the groups. The three groups then worked to formulate a definition for volunteer leader based on those words.

The groups shared their definitions and [facilitator 1] wrote their answers on the post-it note. Again Darla, Kendall, and Susie shared their definitions first, followed by Bill, Todd, and Ruby,and then Ronnie and Cora. All groups included the mission of the organization and achieving the goals and objectives of the organization in their definitions. [Facilitator 2] mentioned that none of the groups indicate that a volunteer leader is not paid. [Facilitator 1] pointed out that all of the groups agreed on certain aspects of defining a volunteer leader. She then shows the participants the definition of volunteer leader she and [facilitator 2] put together based on literature:

> *An unpaid individual with a formally defined role within the organization who 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 a nonprofit organization.*

The facilitators walked the participants through comparing and contrasting the definitions the groups developed with the one developed from literature.

[Facilitator 1] then moved to the next objective of the workshop: *The importance of a volunteer leader*. The participants are instructed to work in their groups to discuss why volunteer leaders are important, especially to [organization]. The groups shared why volunteer leaders are important to their organization. [Facilitator 1] wrote their answers on a new post-it note. Once again the groups share in the same order. The groups shared the following reasons:

- Need someone to lead, to give directions, to achieve goals and objectives of the organization
- Someone to match the volunteers skills/abilities to the needs of the organization
- Can positively communicate/share the needs, resources, goals, results, and provide feedback and appreciation to the team.
- Heart of the organization/represents a cross-section of local community so they can identify other volunteers who can be assets to the nonprofit team
- Volunteer leaders' expertise help the organization accomplish goals

At this point the volunteers once again began discussing things that needed to get done in the organization and frustrations they have with the visibility of the organization. [Facilitator 1] struggled to get their attention but eventually reminded the participants they are on a strict time schedule and they need to stay focused if they plan to get through everything in the amount of time they have left. [Facilitator 1] then led the participants through a discussion about specific reasons why volunteer leaders are important to nonprofit organizations based on literature:

- Take charge of a project by coordinating it and taking accountability for its successful completion
- Communicates the details of the project with other volunteers and serves as a resource for them throughout the project
- Organizes, leads, and inspires a group of volunteers before, during, and after the project
- Oftentimes initiates new projects in order to achieve organizational goals
- Represents the nonprofit to other volunteers and to the community

After a short break the facilitators began the second half of the workshop focused on the competencies and skills a volunteer leader should possess according to a Delphi study conducted with a panel of nonprofit directors in a previous study. [Facilitator 1] passed out a handout and discussed the 42 competencies divided into six families. The participants jotted down the competencies from each family they felt were the most important. Next, [facilitator 1] introduced the different volunteer types in a non-profit organization: 1.) Ideal Ian - Skilled and motivated to work within the guidelines, 2.) Trainable Tina - Motivated and willing to work within the guidelines but lacks skills, 3.) Disruptive Dan - Has skills but not willing to work within the guidelines, and 4.) Freeloading Freddy - Disinterested and lacks skills.

The participants had a great discussion about their experiences with each of the four types of volunteers that lasted about ten minutes. The participant groups then shared the competencies and skills they felt were most important from families A - D. Because of time constraints families E and F were discussed but no activities were completed to reinforce them. [Facilitator 1] marked each competency that was repeated by the groups: Family A - Recruit and mentor other volunteers, Ability to network with others, Delegate and support team activities, Identify strengths of other volunteers, Family B - Ability to teach, Ability to motivate, Willingness to give oneself, Lead by example, Service oriented, Family C - Dedicated, Commitment, Organized, Willingness to go above and beyond, Possess integrity, and Family D - Patience, Positive attitude, Compassion, Conflict resolution, Respect to others, Communication.

At noon the participants ate lunch while working through role play activities for competency families A through D. During the activities, the participants focused on one aspect of the volunteer organization rather than the organization as a whole, and the groups tended to repeat the competencies they chose for each role play activity. This caused a lack of variation when sharing each group's experience with the activities. For family A, each group shared how they would delegate and support the team activities of each of the four volunteer types. Each group

also discussed the characteristics they would want in a volunteer when recruiting volunteers, and possible barriers that deter a volunteer from serving.

Due to lack of time, the family B activity was a take-home challenge for the participants to teach another volunteer a skill specific to an organization-related task. For family C the participants shared how they would apply their skills of dependability, integrity, and willingness to go above and beyond to each of the four volunteer types. For family D the participants identified instances in the past where a conflict had arose. They then labeled the volunteers involved as the four volunteer types and then role-played a conflict resolution scenario based on conflict management techniques provided by [facilitator 1].

At 2:08pm the workshop concluded with [facilitator 1] reviewing the objectives they covered and challenging the participants to apply what they practiced today in their roles as volunteer leaders. The participants were dismissed and they left the training with their competency handouts and the notes they jotted down on their notepads. As the participants were leaving they made comments about how much they enjoyed the training.

Volunteer Leader Focus Group

The focus group took place on May 31, 2016, just over three months from the date of the volunteer leader training. This date was chosen due to its convenience for the volunteers and to allow for the participants to apply what they had learned during the training. No contact was made with the participants between the training and the focus group. All eight participants who attended the training were invited to engage in the focus group; Darla, Cora, Todd, Ronnie, and Susie attended the focus group discussion which lasted one hour.

The goal of the focus group was to determine the volunteers' perceptions of the training experience and to what extent they believe they have applied what they learned during the training in their leadership roles within their organization. The focus group revealed three themes: 1.) the need for refreshers and follow-up trainings, 2.) a disconnect between understanding leadership concepts and applying them in the volunteer scenario, and 3.) the transfer of for-profit skills and experience to the non-profit setting.

The need for refreshers and follow-up trainings

As we moved through the questions during the focus group the participants often had a hard time recalling specifics about the training and mentioned they needed "to do this [focus group] closer to the time of the training" (Cora). Ronnie agreed with Cora's statement followed by a consensus of agreement from the rest of the group. When the conversation moved to suggestions for future trainings Cora stated again, "if we had something that reinforced what we were doing as a reminder...maybe just an email...then we will be like, Okay. We need to be thinking about that". Ronnie built on Cora's response with, "reminder emails from [the facilitators] just saying 'have you put this in action yet?' and just pick one or two things…[from the training]". Susie then suggested [facilitators] "pick out information...gathered from the [training] and send...several little emails along the way, and then maybe have the [training] again". Susie paused briefly then followed with, "Keep [the

training] at four hours, we had a good turn out...it is hard to find time where everyone can do it. I think it is better than breaking it up. You aren't going to be able to get everyone back...so while you got them…". Moreover, towards the end of the discussion, Todd mentioned that the training was general in nature and he suggested that in the future it could be "tailored to the group…[with] specific examples".

A disconnect between understanding leadership concepts and application

Over the course of the focus group discussion, participants referenced "thinking" about the leadership concepts, but did not provide tangible examples of actual application of the learned leadership concepts and skills between the training and the focus group. In essence, participants seemed to consider the workshop content as suggestions for alternative practices in their role with the organization rather than instruction on best practices to be applied in their role with the organization. Cora stated "It gave us a lot of things to chew on and think about". Todd followed later with "[the training] caused us to refocus some things...think about where we are". When asked about how they were applying their leadership skills to the four volunteer types discussed the training, Darla replied, "I think [the training] gave us a different way of looking at how we are using volunteers." However, during the entire focus group conversations, none of the

participants actually provided examples of implementing the competencies and skills while volunteering.

The transfer of for-profit skills and experience to the non-profit setting

Focus group participants consistently referenced their previous for-profit work experience in explaining their ability to lead volunteers in [organization]. While several participants acknowledged that the training was new to them, they also indicated that the concepts were not new. There was no clear distinction between where learning from their previous experiences ended and new learning from the training began. For the participants, the training was used as a reinforcement to what they already learned throughout their various career paths. Cora exclaimed, "I think that it's any experience that we have had professionally or whatever has laid the groundwork for knowing how to relate and appreciate other people's gifts and abilities and try to bring those out". Later, Susie redirected the conversation back to previous work experience with, "You know we were talking about how our past has led us to know some of the stuff already". Darla added, "[the training] reinforced some things we may have learned at some point, but may have forgotten. Susie's reply, "it had slipped to the back", garnered laughter and agreement from the group as a whole.

Conclusions / Recommendations

Non-profit organizations rely on volunteers to carry out their mission and goals. These organizations recognize the importance of volunteer leaders, however they do not always take advantage of the leadership abilities of these unique volunteers. As non-profit organizations continue to address an increasing need in communities across the country, they must find a way to increase their capacity without exceeding the capability of their paid staff. However,

as organizations with limited resources, it is necessary to invest in effective volunteer development and leadership capacity building. For this qualitative case study, a leadership workshop was developed and delivered to volunteer leaders identified in [organization]. The workshop was observed and observation notes were recorded and analyzed. Three months following the training, a focus group was conducted with workshop participants. The workshop observation was compared and contrasted with the focus group discussion to gain a richer understanding of the perceived value and effectiveness of the leadership training.

Knowles's (1980) first assumption of andragogy is that adults' self-concept is one of self-directing rather than dependency. In particular, adults will resist structured learning that challenges their autonomy, or ability to choose what and how they learn. In this instance, it was observed that the adults participating in the training, while voluntarily attending, asserted their autonomy by moving freely around the learning space and electing to talk about components of the organization that were not being addressed in the workshop. Additionally, in the focus group discussion, workshop participants noted their need for reminders and follow-up contacts. This further indicates these volunteer leaders felt a need to direct their own learning in a way that best suited them.

The second assumption of andragogy is that adults bring a significant amount of prior experience to their learning (Knowles, 1980). Workshop participants in this study not only had a considerable amount of work experience, but most had also volunteered for [organization] for a number of years. As Knowles (1980) indicated, this can aid learning in that an adult not only has a larger quantity of experiences but also a wider variety of experiences to connect new learning to, providing for a richer learning experience and a deeper understanding. However, adults may acquire a greater number of fixed habits and patterns of thought that restrict their ability to be open-minded (Knowles, 1980). Knowles (1980) suggests emphasis on experiential techniques as well as practical application, both of which were implemented during the leadership workshop. While it was clear from the observations that participants drew from their previous experiences to understand and apply the leadership concepts during the workshop itself, the focus group discussion indicated that participants had greater difficulty articulating the transition of their
for-profit experiences into application in the non-profit organization after the training. This may indicate that a greater emphasis is needed on unfreezing for-profit experiences so that volunteer leaders can approach their role in the non-profit organization free of pre-conceptions about leadership. Having workshop participants clearly articulate the ways in which non-profit and volunteer leadership differ from for-profit leadership may provide a means of assisting with unfreezing prior experiences to allow for new application of their understanding.

Knowles's (1980) third and fourth assumptions have to do with readiness and orientation to learn. Adults encounter "teachable" moments when a change in their social role provides a new developmental task. In the case of our participants, most had been volunteering for a number of years and had already distinguished themselves as leaders. This may mean that their "teachable" moment was passed. Thus, it may be more important to identify volunteers with leadership potential who are approaching a change in social role, from volunteer to volunteer leader, and thus are faced with a new developmental task, volunteer leadership. With regard to

orientation to learn, Knowles (1980) suggests that adult learners are problem-focused, with a perspective of immediate application. The workshop observation indicates that participants were highly engaged when discussing current issues they saw in [organization]. They focused on the content that held immediate applicability for them. In addition, during the focus group discussion, there was nearly no reference to application of the concepts from the workshop, rather they spoke about the workshop content as "something to think about". This may indicate that participants were not met with situations which called for their application of the workshop content quickly enough for them to intentionally apply what they learned. This may also explain their request for occasional reminders, which indicates that they wanted to apply what they had learned, but the occasion to apply their learning was not immediate following the training.

Finally, Knowles (1984) indicated that internal motivation of adults is more potent than external motivation. During both the observation as well as the focus group, participants expressed appreciation for and enjoyment of the training. Further, the personal goals they expressed at the beginning of the workshop indicated all participants were intrinsically motivated to attend the leadership workshop, as there was no reward or incentive provided by [organization] or [volunteer support organization]. Clearly these participants were interested in developing their ability to serve [organization].

As there is a relative dearth of literature on the effectiveness of various leadership training models to build leadership capacity among volunteers in non-profit organizations, a number of

recommendations can be gleaned from this study. First, it is important that adults have some autonomy in their learning, and that educators act as guides and facilitators for learners who construct their own learning. Research indicates that volunteer training should be provided to volunteer leaders in a method and manner that fits the needs of the organization, utilizing teaching methods and a learning environment appropriate for learners' age group and skill level (Proctor, 2012; Conner, 2011; Genis, 2008). Encouraging volunteer leaders to be involved in the identification of needs, planning, implementation, and evaluation of learning (Knowles, 1980) could increase effectiveness. Although the training in this study did not include the follow-up workshops or activities that included 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 organization's goals and their roles in achieving them, as well as to allow for immediacy of application.

Second, adult learning benefits from teachable moments, which occur when new developmental tasks arise as the result of a social change (Knowles, 1980). If an organization wishes to teach its volunteers to lead, they must identify and select those approaching the social change from volunteer to volunteer leader, as opposed to those who have already entered successfully into a volunteer leader role. 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 volunteers' 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).

Third, adults cannot be separated from their experiences. In fact, Knowles (1980) suggests that adults largely define themselves by their experiences. Thus, as with this training, volunteers' experiences must be acknowledged and incorporated in the learning. However, attention should be paid to unfreezing prior experiences so that learners may be more open-minded in acquiring and applying new learning.

In addition to recommendations for practitioners, this study provides 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). In addition, research should be conducted to determine what efforts are being made to

support and evaluate those volunteers who are in leadership roles and the impact of volunteer leader development on organizational outcomes.

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Evidence-based Student Learning Outcomes from Curriculum Alignment of the Research Process and Complex Systems

Abstract

It is important to develop a future leader's ability to discern a dearth of information, both effectively and efficiently (Seemiller, 2014). As leadership educators, we believe developing student's competence in the research process builds their capacity to discern information in complex, adaptive situations. This research paper will explore student learning outcomes from a leadership studies capstone course focused on curriculum that aligns learning adaptive leadership approaches with a full-scale research project (Heifetz, Grashow, & Linsky, 2009). Preliminary findings suggest that students develop three predominant competencies through learning the research process and complex challenges including l) learning and reasoning, 2) group dynamics, and 3) self-awareness and development. This work is important for determining evidence-based learning strategies that contribute to student leadership outcome achievement.

Introduction

It is important to develop a future leader's ability to discern a dearth of information, both effectively and efficiently (Seemiller, 2014). This is especially true in today's information age, where information is at the fingertips of not only leaders, but followers and stakeholders, as well. As leadership educators, we believe developing student's competence in the research process builds their capacity to discern information in complex, adaptive situations. This research paper will explore student learning outcomes from a leadership studies capstone course focused on curriculum that aligns learning adaptive leadership approaches with a full-scale research project (Heifetz, Grashow, & Linsky, 2009). We examine how students develop leadership competencies (Seemiller, 2014), contributing to the following outcome(s): 1) designing, developing, and executing a leadership research project, and 2) distinguishing effective leadership in complex systems.

Our hope is to add to existing literature on student learning outcomes of leadership education. Further, we hope to examine student learning and leadership competencies which continue to be a research priority in the field of leadership studies (Andenoro et al., 2013). This work is important for determining evidence-based learning strategies that contribute to student leadership outcome achievement. With this, we hope to provide insight into the benefits of leadership studies as a field of study and what students learn from leadership education.

Literature Review

Undergraduate Research

Undergraduate research is known as a high-impact educational practice (Kuh, 2008). High- impact practices are active learning strategies that have been tested widely and demonstrated benefit to college student learning across. In addition, these practices have been found to increase student retention and engagement. Undergraduate research has

often been used in the sciences. However, many disciplines and fields provide undergraduate research opportunities and require capstone research projects for their degree programs (Balczon, Corrett-Bennett, Resendes, Robertson, & Robertson, 2014), providing students an opportunity to more deeply engage with their discipline or field (Malachowski, Osborn, Karukstis, & Ambos, 2015).
Similarly, undergraduate research provides leadership students an opportunity to engage with a deeper understanding of the leadership process.

Leadership educators have identified research projects as strategies used in their courses, additionally research skills are competencies needed for leadership. Research projects and presentations ranked nine with 10.9% of leadership educators indicating use of the strategy, (n = 33, with 303 leadership educators in the sample (Jenkins, 2012, p. 13). In a review across leadership education theory, leadership program standards, and academic program accreditation, research was identified as a competency within learning and reasoning that leadership education, as well as various academic programs saw important for student learning (Seemiller, 2014). We have chosen to use research projects as the capstone component for our undergraduate research course, believing when students create and conduct their own research project, they build skills necessary for collecting and analyzing data about leadership, recognizing bias and limitation.
We believe these abilities are necessary for leadership in a global, rapidly changing world.

Learning Outcomes and Instructional Strategies

Developing meaningful and relevant learning outcomes based on appropriate leadership competencies are important in leadership education. Outcome based assessment is pertinent for creating empirically based leadership curriculum that contributes to leadership learning (Andenoro et al., 2013). Identifying leadership outcomes and competencies is the first step in developing leadership education design (Jenkins & Allen, 2017). Once this has been set, the appropriate learning strategies can be applied (Jenkins & Allen, 2017). Assessing these outcomes is important for identifying appropriate learning strategies and developing research based curriculum.

Jenkins (2012) conducted an analysis of learning pedagogies leadership educators use in their courses. Classroom discussion, followed by interactive lecture, and discussion were the most commonly used instructional strategies by a survey of leadership educators (Jenkins, 2012). However, given the nature of leadership, educators know the importance of using active learning strategies. Leadership educators also identified using case studies, service-learning, research projects, team building, simulations, and role play (Jenkins, 2012) as effective strategies for deeper student learning. Empirical analysis of leadership learning outcomes is important for connecting learning pedagogies with outcomes and competencies.

Utilizing engaging pedagogies and experiential learning is essential for student learning in leadership education (Andenoro, et al., 2013; Guthrie & Bertrand Jones, 2012; Meixner & Rosch, 2011). Meixner and Rosch (2011) identified powerful pedagogies for leadership education, including experiential learning, team based learning, peer education, sociocultural discussion, service-learning, mentoring and advising, and contemplative practice. Using pedagogy that is learner-centered is important for leadership learners to

develop leadership competencies – the knowledge, values, attitudes, and behaviors – needed to engage in the leadership process (Andenoro et al., 2013; Jenkins & Allen, 2017; Seemiller, 2014). Research is an important competency for students to develop their analyzing abilities. Utilizing research as capstone projects is one learning strategy to build these competencies.

Assessing Student Learning

Owen (2015) warned against the use of pedagogy without understanding of the levers contributing to learning, the reception from students with diverse backgrounds and experiences, and understanding the learning process. Assessing learning strategies and outcomes is important for building evidence based curriculum in leadership education (Andenoro et al., 2013; Owen, 2015). In addition, assessing student learning is important for preparing students for practicing effective leadership in corporate, community, and educational contexts (Andenoro et al., 2013; Rosch & Priest, 2017).

Filling the gap between what students should learn due to their engagement in leadership education and what they learn is an important area of empirical exploration. In addition to the need to research evidence based learning strategies for leadership education, many scholars have declared a need for researching learning outcomes and competencies (Andenoro et al., 2013; Rosch & Priest, 2017; Seemiller, 2016). Rosch and Priest (2017) argued that previous data in student leadership learning has not demonstrated consistent results, making this an important endeavor of empirical exploration.

We believe research are important for students' capacity to practice effective leadership. In addition, we seek to identify how research, as a learning strategy, contributes to competency building in students and their understanding of the leadership process, building upon the literature on evidence based curriculum in leadership education.

Theoretical/Conceptual Framework

We employ Seemiller's (2014) student leadership competencies as a framework to explore how engaging in research leads to learning related to the outcome: distinguishing effective leadership in complex systems. Seemiller (2014) defines a competency as the "knowledge, values, abilities, and behaviors that help an individual contribute to or successfully engage in a role or task" (p. xv). Knowledge, values, abilities, and behaviors make up the dimensions of a competency and allow for measurements in learning. Learning outcomes represent what students should be able to do or demonstrate upon completing a learning activity or experience. Competencies are used to build the knowledge, values, abilities, and behaviors that are need for students to achieve a desired learning outcome.

Our study focuses on the contribution of the research competency in the learning and reasoning domain to gain in the learning outcome: distinguish effective leadership in complex systems.

We use the dimensions of competencies – knowledge, values, abilities, behaviors – to analyze student learning both in the competency of research and the content of the learning outcome.

Capstone Course Curriculum

A significant piece of this study is conceptualizing the curriculum of the leadership capstone course. The capstone course is the culminating class of an interdisciplinary leadership studies certificate and minor program. The course utilizes the text*, The practice of adaptive leadership: Tools and tactics for changing your organization and the world* (Hiefetz et al, 2009*).* Students learn adaptive strategies to challenges within our world and within larger systems. The course utilizes case study methods to apply concepts while also using real-world examples through campus partners. For example, guest lecturers from leadership positions on campus, present real cases of adaptive challenges that they faced in their jobs and engage the students to diagnose and mobilize adaptive strategies to address the culture and problem. Furthermore, students complete several critical reflection analyses of the textbook and applied knowledge as a way for deeper reflection of material.

Subsequently, students in the course are tasked with developing a semester-long research project focused in leadership. The research project can focus on any leadership-related topic they choose. Students from across disciplines work to inquire about a leadership challenge or how leadership could answer a problem in their field. The course text, *The Research Toolkit: Problem Solving Processes for the Social Sciences* (Friedman, 2017) provides an introduction into the social science process, aligned with undergraduate student cognitive processes. By the end of the semester, students present their research paper which encompasses a literature review, methodology, findings, and discussion in open forums on campus such as the campus-wide research symposium.

Through the parallel process of learning adaptive leadership and the research process, students begin to see how research is a critical component of adaptive leadership and "diagnosing the system" (Hiefetz et al, 2009). Students work to engage critical thinking through research inquiry and find solutions based on the research findings. The course hopes to develop strong adaptive leaders, focused on critical inquiry and problem-solving skills for the 21st century.

Methodology

Qualitative inquiry guides this study in order to examine the meaning students make of material in a leadership capstone (Chase, 2018; Merriam, 2009). The inductive nature of coding student assignments drives qualitative methodology to ensure deeper understandings of descriptive data sets such as student learning achievement. Using a grounded theory approach (Charmaz, 2006; Glaser & Straus, 1967), we remained open to themes that emerged from the data to gain a better idea of how students learn the dimensions of the student leadership competencies and how they apply these dimensions to learn about the complexity of leadership.

Data Collection

The researchers used purposeful random sampling to recruit students that were previously and recently enrolled in the leadership capstone course (Merriam, 2009). Purposeful random sampling creates opportunities for more credibility in data collection and analysis due to existing purpose in participants' experiences (Merriam, 2009; Patton, 1990). Researchers had access to student class lists and solicited 29 students that had completed the course in the past two years through email and verbal announcements.

The researchers recruited 20 students that completed a leadership studies capstone course at a large, Midwestern research university. To avoid coercion, the co-primary investigator recruited students and administered the informed consent. Students consented to have their capstone assignments coded for the purposes of this study. All student reflection assignments and final projects (see appendix A) were collected and downloaded from the university learning management system by the research assistant.

Data Analysis

The researchers used NViVO, a qualitative coding system, to analyze and code data sets including critical reflection assignments and final capstone projects. For data analysis, we employed a thematic process to interpret the data sets. The two areas of the thematic process that were executed are the initial coding phase and focused phased coding (Charmaz, 2006). More specifically, initial coding leads to better narrowing and conceptualization of categories and themes. Initial coding with NVivo involved using the word frequency function. This allowed us to see which predominant words students used in their reflections. These words transformed into themes and were consulted with the researchers and aligned with student leadership competencies (Seemiller, 2014) for triagulation of data sets.

Subsequently, the next step of coding was the focused phase, in which we finalize themes and supportive claims through the NVivo software. Charmaz (2006) describes the focused phase of coding as contributing to the advancement and involvement of the data analysis. Theoretical coding is an aspect of the focused phase as it strengthens the early emergence of data by validating the themes and supporting context (Charmaz, 2006). In NVivo, the focused phase included using the themes in initial coding to design coding strategies to find illustrative quotes from student reflection analyses and aligning claims to support the main areas of competence.

Results

Preliminary results of this qualitative study indicate several key student leadership competency themes that are present in student learning outcomes from the capstone course. Student learning is essential to understanding how students made sense of material which aligned the research process with adaptive leadership approaches. In this section, we present three predominant themes emergent of the student data sets.

Learning and Reasoning

As a result of the course research project, students were able to discern and using reasoning skills to effectively evaluate the purpose of the capstone course and why adaptive leadership

is a theory that deconstructs culture in organizations. Further, students used reasoning to ensure their could apply material from the class to concepts that matched their cognitive learning level.

Britta illustrates a level of reasoning for understanding the importance of choosing a theory to apply and guiding research studies:

By choosing a particular theory that speaks to you--one that not only makes sense, but you believe that you utilize--you are examining the "goggles" that you are viewing the information and performing the research while wearing. Having these goggles that you control and understand ensures that you can see exactly what connotations you putting with the denotations of the text. Knowing the bias that you come to the table with and understanding what that bias can do to your attempts to research a topic is of the utmost importance as we begin such a large project.

Britta is able to deconstruct and critically think about the importance of choosing a theory that resonates with an individual. She begins to reason with how choosing a theory is balanced with a level of bias and the significance of knowing the bias exists because it impacts position within research studies. This is an excellent example of a leadership competency that connects students with engaging with a field or discipline (Malachowski, Osborn, Karukstis, & Ambos, 2015).

Micca provides context for reasoning on how he connects adaptive leadership strategies with the research process:

> Where adaptive leadership further outlines a model for this is in its experimental approach towards change and the subsequent implementation. That is due to the varied facets of early childhood where the physical environment, the children within the group and the adults attending them are different in every instance so applying the concept is personal to the situation which should bode well towards encouraging adaptation.
>
> Additionally, the changes I would propose are situated within the hallmark of adaptive leadership theory "change for the continuance of the species"- in that the changes would help to bolster the development of children to best prepare them for what is to come in later years of development.

In other words, Micca is aligning his research question and topic with adaptive leadership approach and applying learning outcomes through his reasoning for examining the topic. This is an essential competency as outlined by Seemiller (2014).

Group Dynamics

Another predominant competency that students mastered through the capstone course is group dynamics. Through the concept of "diagnosing the system" (Heifitz et al., 2009), students found that diagnosing an organization or environment they participate in, created an awareness and necessity of understanding group structure and dynamics.

Margot provides an example of her keen sense of group dynamics within her organization:

> We have been facing an adaptive challenge, specifically, we are an organization that is dying. Since the economic downturn around 2008, it has been more and more difficult for our members to participate in our events due to the high travel costs. A large portion of our organization is also reaching the upper years of their life, as a result, it is more difficult for them to compete in the events due to the physical activity required. As a leader in this organization, it is important that my fellow members and I truly understand our system and the challenge we face so we can adapt to a changing environment and continue as an organization by recruiting new members while not creating conflicts of interest.

This reflection is a competency of leadership learning, which elicits Margot to analyze the current system she has a role in and offer solutions. She is developing how the group has adaptive challenges and how she might address these areas of deficit with defined strategies.

Further, Paul describes an executive board he contributes to within an organization and how group dynamics influence the culture:

> For example, I'm in the infantry of my student organization which means that I anticipate a period of growing pains. Anytime there is a grievance of the Cabinet, the Chairman is the quotidian fault. An approach to resolving this more amicably as propounded by the text, is to referring the blame to the system rather than the person so that people may be less defensive from the attack and more willing to rectify.

Moreover, Paul is dissecting the problems within the group dynamic and analyzing how the culture takes shape. The course and adaptive approaches assist in his developmental action plan for the members which aligns with the importance of students learning effective leadership practices in multiple contexts (Rosch & Priest, 2017).

Self-Awareness and Development

The final student learning outcomes is self-awareness and development. The capstone course aligns the research process and adaptive leadership styles, which led students to process and reflect deeply on their personal challenges and values. This deep reflection is an essential leadership competency and the ability apply adaptive leadership approaches and define a research question of interest assisted in communicating this. Sri outlines this in a journal reflection:

> Personally I have struggled with mental health over the past three and a half years since coming to college, but in that time I have been able to learn so much about myself and about leadership and have gained knowledge and skills that have made me a better leader. At first I had a hard time talking about what was going on in my head and with me emotionally, but once I opened up to a few people, I was able to understand my feelings and become aware of why I was feeling those things. Being more in tune with my emotions has helped me to be more confident in myself and in my actions.

As part of an reflection exercise, Sri analyzes the personal challenges, he faced within being in college. This self-awareness is an essential part of learning leadership and the ability to identify how leadership promotes better developmental competencies. The course design helped facilitate an analysis of consciousness of self.

Finally, Brock helps communicate how reflecting on personal adaptive challenges assisted in his personal awareness:

> Ultimately, as time went on, my voice started to be heard and I eventually started to obtain the power of influence by my actions and words on and off the court because I was able to adapt to this new lifestyle as well as intertwine whom I was as a person to bring out several leadership capabilities. By accepting the change, it helped the transition and change.

As a part of learning adaptive leadership, students felt compelled to analyze how they played a role in a system and apply how they may have used adaptive leadership strategies in challenging situations. The research process revealed much about personal perseverance to students as well, contributing to increased overall leadership development strategies.

Discussion and Recommendations

As Andenoro and colleagues (2013) and Owen (2015) suggest, it is important to provide evidence-based learning outcomes in leadership education based on curricular objectives. Furthermore, assessing student learning is important for preparing students for practicing effective leadership in multiple contexts (Rosch & Priest, 2017). This study provides empirical data evidence to the importance of offering capstone courses that involve extensive research projects as well as leadership strategies. Students developed several skills that can be applied to other contexts and help set up strong foundations for career readiness.

It was our goal to provide evidence-based learning outcomes that contribute to the following outcome(s): 1) designing, developing, and executing a leadership research project, and 2) distinguishing effective leadership in complex systems. This study highlights three predominant student leadership competencies that provide insight into what students learn from a capstone course that aligns adaptive leadership and the research process. By examining the student learning outcomes, we provide recommendations for leadership educators to consider when designing future courses and supportive learning environments.

Based on this study's findings, we recommend that leadership educators consider the following when designing leadership courses and specifically capstone experiences:

- While this study situates itself in adaptive leadership curriculum, other leadership theories have the potential to parallel the research process and increase positive student learning outcomes.
- Provide opportunities for frequent and extensive critical reflection on the parallels of theory and practice.

- Construct supportive problem solving projects to increase learning and reasoning strategies. More specifically, developing smaller scale research projects can help strengthen critical thinking skills in leadership.
- Even without explicit group development, design reflection around group dynamics and how students play a role within systems.
- Create opportunities for students to develop educated recommendations and supportive arguments. Using research conclusions helps strengthen voice and support statements that contribute to learning outcomes.
- Foster and mentor students to present their conclusions in public forums which increase problem solving and adaptive learning.

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Appendix A

Critical Reflection Analysis Prompts

CRA 1
Discuss what the author argues about adaptive leadership. In your own words, what is it? What is the importance of using theory as a foundation for inquiry and research? Further, from reviewing leadership theories, discuss one that will inform your research project this semester.
CRA 2
Chapters 4 - 6 discuss diagnosing the system. What does the author mean by the "system"? How does this term influence cultural norms and the status quo? In this course, we will examine a problem and analyze phenomena related to it. Why it is important that leaders "diagnose a system"?
CRA 3
How does making interpretations influence "mobilizing the system" as the author states in the these chapters? What interventions will you design in the course? How does this relate to research and working toward change? What are specific examples from the "mobilize the system" chapters that you will use in your organizations? Describe some of the main concepts from these chapters (8-12) that resonate with you,
CRA 4
The "see yourself as a system" section of the book focuses on how we can employ strategies to mobilize and change our organizational systems. Discuss how you understand your role in a system and how you identify your prioritizes in that system. How does the author articulate personalizing our experience? What are examples of strategies from the text and in your own experiences that you can work on to build upon your yourself in a system of leadership? What does it mean to deploy yourself and thrive in a system or organization?
CRA 5
Chapters 2 through 5 in the Kouzes and Posner text, *Credibility*, give us a conceptualization around how credibility serves as a tool for leaders. Why and how does credibility in leadership matter? What is an example (either personal or in our culture) of where you have experienced credible or non-credible leadership? What characteristics (cited from the text) did you observe in this process? What are critical factors of credibility that the authors discuss? How does what we have learned about adaptive leadership connect to credibility? What are examples?
CRA 6
In Chapters 6 through 8, how do the authors discuss building capacity? In what ways can you build your capacity as a leader? How do strategies from adaptive leadership help us build capacity? How does our research projects help build capacity and build credibility? What final components of credibility do the authors discuss and how do we work on these?

POSTERS

Building a Foundation of Intention and Quality: Program Assessment for Leadership Education
Kaley Klaus, Instructor, Leadership Studies; Jeni McRay, Assistant Professor, Leadership Studies; Jill Arensdorf, Chair & Associate Professor, Leadership Studies, Fort Hays State University

A Model of Leader and Follower Experiences as a Source of Transformational Learning
Daniel Jenkins, Chair & Associate Professor, University of Southern Maine; Kathy Guthrie, Educational Leadership & Policy Studies, Associate Professor, Florida State University

Developing Meaning Making and Adaptive Leadership Capacity in Leadership Learners: An Approach for Addressing Complex Adaptive Problems
Cameron J. Outlaw, Graduate Assistant, Challenge 2050 Project; Anthony C. Andenoro, Assistant Professor of Leadership Education, University of Florida

Using Exit Survey Data for Continuous Improvement in an Interdisciplinary Ed.D. Program
Candace Bloomquist, Assistant Professor; Debra J. Ford, Associate Professor, Creighton University

Leaders On and Off the Field: A Look at Strengths of College Student Athletes' Enrolled in a Personal Leadership Course
Megan Stein, Graduate Student; Avery Martin, Undergraduate Student; Summer F. Odom, Associate Professor, Texas A&M University

Yes I'm Biased, but I'm Ok With That: Examining Implicit Bias in an Undergraduate Personal Leadership Course
Zachary Schaefer, Undergraduate Student; Allison Dunn, Assistant Lecturer; Megan Stein, Graduate Student; Summer Odom, Associate Professor, Texas A&M University

Self-Perceived Youth Leadership Life Skills Development Outcome of Virginia Governor's School of Agriculture: A Case Study
Ibukun Alegbeleye, Ph.D. Student; Eric Kaufman, Associate Professor; Curtis Friedel, Assistant Professor, Virginia Tech University

A Pilot Program in College Mentorship: Is There Value?
Kristi M. Bockorny, Assistant Professor; Michelle Lesnar, Instructor, Northern State University

Who Enrolls in a Leadership in Social Justice Program?
Katherine McKee, Assistant Professor; Jackie Bruce, Associate Professor, Joy Morgan, Assistant Professor; Wendy Warner, Associate Professor, North Carolina State University

Teaching Intersectional Social Justice at the Apex of Leadership

Daniel Collins, Graduate Student; Jackie Bruce, Associate Professor; Katherine McKee, Assistant Professor, North Carolina State University

Implementation of a Competency-based Model as the Theoretical Framework for the Re-design of an Online Bachelor's of Arts in Organizational Leadership
A. Greg Bowden, Associate Professor of Education / Director of Masters in Organizational Leadership; Dirk Davis, Associate Vice President for Academics / Professor of Education; S. Jeannette Guignard, Associate Professor of Organizational Leadership, California Baptist University Division of Online and Professional Studies

The Development of Healthy Behaviors through Intentional Leadership Learning Initiatives
Saneh Ste. Claire, Graduate Student; Cecilia E. Suarez, Assistant Professor, University of Florida

Undergraduate Leadership Students' Perspectives on Experiential Learning in Leadership
Benjamin Morris, Graduate Student, University of Florida

The Art of Leadership: Exploring the Use of Photography and Narrative in understanding Adaptive Leadership Concepts
Jason Headrick, Graduate Teaching Assistant; Kate McCain, Graduate Teaching Assistant; Gina Matkin, Associate Professor, University of Nebraska-Lincoln

Austin College: Community Connect
Martinella Dryburgh, Director, Posey Leadership Institute, Austin College

Beyond the Weekly Discussion Board Post: Increasing Content Engagement in an Online Survey of Leadership Theory Course
Allison Dunn, Assistant Lecturer, Texas A&M University

NCC LEAD: A Structural and Strengths-based Partnership for Social Change Leadership Development
Abigaile VanHorn, Associate Director of Leadership, Ethics, and Values; Rachel Pridgen, Director of Student Involvement, North Central College

Preparation Practices of Community College Leaders of Color: Diversification of the Community College Presidency
Matthew A. Cooney, Assistant Professor; Crystal Cleggett, Graduate Student; Alexandra Horton, Graduate Student, Governors State University

Exploring the Unique Challenges and Opportunities of Female Leaders Within the Agricultural Industry: A Panel Discussion
Lauren Lewis Cline, Graduate Teaching Associate; Haley Rossen, Graduate Teaching Associate; Penny Pennington Weeks, Professor, Oklahoma State University

Building a Foundation of Intention and Quality: Program Assessment for Leadership Education

Abstract

This poster presentation will discuss one regional state comprehensive institution's method in designing a comprehensive and systematic assessment plan for an academic undergraduate major in organizational leadership. Five stages of the assessment process are presented, including: writing program learning outcomes, mapping courses, selecting assessment methods, collecting data, and analyzing and sharing pertinent results with interested stakeholders. At its core, this poster presentation continues the commitment to intentional conversations and action about learning outcomes assessment in leadership education.

Introduction

In 2009, Goertzen called upon leadership educators to "intentionally engage in a conversation regarding how we ensure participants of our programs are learning what we hope they learn" (p. 148). In other words, are our students learning what we are teaching? He asserted the same calling in 2013, adding that in order to do such a thing, we must be willing to embrace the concept of assessment. A quick search of the Journal of Leadership Education database returns a multitude of articles focused on assessing leadership behaviors in college students using singular assignments, activities, or courses; however, little is discussed on assessing leadership education programs as a whole. This poster presentation will discuss one regional state comprehensive
institution's method in designing an assessment plan for an academic major in organizational leadership in all delivery modalities, including traditional on-campus, online, and internationally. Components of the assessment plan are presented, including: writing program learning outcomes, mapping courses, selecting assessment methods, collecting data, and analyzing and sharing pertinent data with stakeholders. Our intention is to map the entire assessment process, and share that process and the related documents and tools with other institutions responsible for the academic quality of leadership education programs.

Background

It has been argued that in order to move the leadership studies discipline forward, and legitimize the area of study, formalized learning outcome assessment, as a component of formalized program review, is necessary (Sowcik, Lindsey, & Rosch, 2013). The creation of the *Guiding Questions: Guidelines for Leadership Education Programs* by the International Leadership Association (2009), has prompted more intentional discussion about learning outcomes assessment and formalized program review; yet, it seems little progress has been made in this area.

When it comes to learning outcomes assessment in leadership education, there are a variety of reasons programs have been reluctant to take on the task. Riggio, Ciulla, and Sorenson (2003) believed that the complex nature of leadership, as a whole, makes the discipline difficult to

assess. According to the International Leadership Association's *Guiding Questions*, programs are most often designed as a result of the institution's or organization's identity, politics, and/or culture (2009). For example, research conducted by Brungardt, Greenleaf, Brungardt, and Arensdorf (2006) about academic leadership programs confirmed that programs are housed in a variety of departments, and there is little consistency across collegiate institutions. At one institution, it may be housed in a department of business management, while others are housed in stand-alone schools; as a result, the program's context influences its conceptual framework. Sowcik (2012) asserted that the context and conceptual framework of each individual program hinders the discipline's ability to formalize an assessment of all leadership programs across the field, as each context influences the framework, pedagogy, and assessment of the program. Some leadership programs focus on the development of self-efficacy, others on the development of relationships, and others focus solely on leadership in organizations (ILA, 2009). Because of this, no leadership program is exactly the same, or works to achieve the exact same learning outcomes; although, there are likely commonalities between them. Additionally, an institution's culture impacts its approach to assessment (2009).

Arensdorf and Klaus (2016) sought similarities in leadership program student learning outcomes via a roundtable discussion at the Association of Leadership Educators' (ALE) annual conference in Sacramento, CA. The discussion resulted in an apparent need for further training about student learning outcomes assessment in leadership education. As a follow-up, an educator workshop was facilitated at ALE's annual conference in Charleston, SC to assist ALE member institutions in developing quality student learning outcomes for their leadership programs, both academic and co-curricular. This was just the first step in assisting institutions to prepare a template for quality learning outcomes assessment in leadership education. In an effort to continue the conversation for this year's ALE conference, faculty at this institution sought to improve upon their current program assessment plan, and offer a framework for a comprehensive program assessment plan for an undergraduate degree program in organizational leadership, which could arguably encompass outcomes of other leadership studies programs no matter their context, scope, length of program, or delivery modality.

Description of Practice

Our assessment of an academic undergraduate major in organizational leadership takes place in five stages: 1) identify and compose program learning outcomes, 2) map program learning outcomes to courses, 3) select learning activities and identify assessment methods, 4) collect assessment data, and 5) analyze and share results of data collected to adjust learning activities in future courses. These efforts involve all faculty and are intentionally driven and purposely designed within our academic unit and offers undergraduate degrees in three distinct modalities of instruction: face-to-face on campus, online, and at partner schools internationally. This complexity requires different assessment activities and/or rubrics to assess the same outcome. In other words, it is a highly complex endeavor.

To embark on this process, our department established a seven-person assessment committee (comprised of faculty members representing each modality) to work through the five stages. Once agreed upon by the committee, recommendations were sent to all full-time faculty members for discussion and revision. College and institutional support were also present

through each major stage of the assessment plan development. A template for each stage will be shared via the poster presentation with a keen awareness of how our insights in developing this plan may be for adapted in different leadership education contexts.

Stage One: Identify and Compose Program Learning Outcomes

Program learning goals are the foundation of any assessment plan. This onerous, yet critical, task functions as the basis for any opportunity to close the loop and better articulate student learning. Although the department had previously established program learning outcomes, a formal review took place in order to simplify the outcome statements. Most original program outcomes were written in a double-barreled manner, assessing more than one outcome per statement. After a detailed review and editing process, the assessment committee presented a set of newer, more clearly articulated program learning outcomes that utilized various levels of Bloom's Taxonomy (IACBE, 2018), and, most importantly, assessed only one type of learning in each statement.

Stage Two: Course Mapping

Without hesitation, faculty members in the leadership program will tell you that the most beneficial component of the assessment planning process has been course mapping. Not only does course mapping give way to meaningful connections between individual course objectives and program outcomes, but this exercise also increased the faculty members' understanding and appreciation for each course in each delivery modality and the necessary sequencing required for maximum scaffolding. Other studies and resources have found this phenomenon to be consistent with our experiences (Haworth & Conrad, 1997; Uchiyama & Radin, 2008). To begin this stage, faculty members teaching courses in all modalities (face-to-face on-campus, online, and face-to- face internationally) shared their syllabi, each of which included consistent course level learning objectives. The assessment committee then worked to create a first draft of the course map, mapping all major courses to program learning outcomes at three levels of student mastery: Introductory (1), Broadening (2), and Fulfilling (3). The departmental faculty then reviewed the committee's initial suggestions and tweaked the final course map after dialogue. This provided us with a solid foundation for moving on to the next stage.

Stage Three: Select Learning Activities and Identify Assessment Methods

The most challenging stage of the assessment plan creation has been stage three. With multiple modalities, courses, and program learning outcomes, it was imperative that careful selection of assessment methods took place so as to maximize the richness of the data collected, but not to be overwhelmed with the phenomenon of "too much data." Learning activities for each course in each modality were shared by faculty members through departmental discussions. The assessment committee then brainstormed program level assessment methods that could be embedded through course activities, with the entire department approving the final methods. A variety of holistic and analytic rubrics have been developed and adjusted for each assessment method. We are currently in the process of norming those rubrics. Developing interrater reliability and consensus estimates on each rubric is critical to the accuracy and consistency of scoring amongst the faculty team (Stemler, 2004;

Oakleaf, 2009). Upon conclusion of this stage, data collection begins for all program-level learning outcomes.

Stage Four: Collect Assessment Data

At this time, data collection has begun for three of the eight student learning outcomes in the organizational leadership undergraduate program. The assessment committee is working with the institution's assessment office to utilize the course management system to embed the rubrics into course shells for ease of data collection and analysis. The committee is also working to develop strategies to assist students in all modalities in understanding both the program learning outcomes and how their individual leadership course objectives connect to those higher level program outcomes. Although most of the program level assessment is summative, we are intentionally including some formative elements. Strategies for this will also be shared through the poster presentation.

Stage Five: Analyze and Share Results for Improvement

This stage should be a continual step in data collection and assessment. "Closing the loop" is critical in that data collected should systematically inform program revisions in each delivery modality. "Too few faculty are closing the loop – this is, studying assessment findings to see what improvements might be suggested and taking the appropriate steps to make them" (Banta & Blaich, 2011, p. 22). Although our current assessment plan has not yet achieved this stage, we are keenly aware of the importance of documenting and sharing our assessment results with stakeholders, but also analyzing results and using them to make improvements in the program. This stage will also include revising the assessment process, ensuring that the process is continuous rather than episodic.

Current Results and Recommendations

As of January 2018, the department has completed stages one through three. By the end of the spring semester, stage four will be completed, with stage five to follow. The poster will feature resources, specific tools, and an honest report of "lessons learned" on our assessment journey.

Although we are still in the midst of learning and growing through this process, one thing we have learned for certain is that educators should examine their institutional culture surrounding assessment and seek experts and allies who can assist them in developing a systematic structure and process that aligns with that culture. For us, it was important that our department drive its own assessment process from the ground-up rather than waiting for a prescribed framework from top-down. As a result, we are more confident that our assessment efforts will drive continuous improvement, so the administration has been willing to accept, promote, and champion the structure and process of our efforts and even use our systematic process as an example for other departments.

Conclusion

While the particulars of assessment plans in any academic program will vary in content, the

overall objective of continuous improvement in achieving the highest quality in academic learning and student experience is the same. Our five-stage process is a systematic and intentional framework based on recent literature and rich experience. We are eager to share our experiences and tools with our fellow leadership educators through this innovative practice poster presentation.

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A Model of Leader and Follower Experiences as a Source of Transformational Learning

Abstract

Experiential learning is requisite for leadership education. This poster proposal presents "A Model of Leader and Follower Experiences as a Source of Transformational Learning" that follows a similar cycle as Kolb's (1984) experiential model. In it, we focus students' attention to both leadership *and* followership experiences as a foundation for leadership learning. It is from this foundation that, through intentional curricular design, leadership educators facilitate students through the process of critically reflecting on these experiences, experiential abstraction (i.e., constructing meaning from their leader and follower experiences), and metacognitive discovery and exploration, where students experiment with new behaviors and skills while self-monitoring in the present.

Introduction and Background

Leadership education and experiential learning (Kolb, 1984) are inextricably linked (Allen & Hartman, 2009; Eich, 2008; Guthrie & Bertrand Jones, 2012; Guthrie & Thompson, 2010; Jenkins, 2013, 2018). Likewise, Leadership is a process of learning in which individuals make sense of their experiences, uncover leadership within themselves, and work in communities of leadership practice with others (Antonacopoulou & Bento, 2004). In fact, hundreds of peer-reviewed publications offer theoretical frameworks, instructional and assessment applications, as well as examples of experiential learning in leadership education.

Building off of Kolb's (1984) experiential model, we present the Leader and Follower Experiences as a Source of Transformational Learning model as a representation of the union between leadership education and experiential learning. We echo Wisniewski's (2010) proposition that, "the role of the leadership educator is not to deliver or transmit information," but instead, "to actively engage the learners in constructing personal theories and philosophies of leadership by creating a learning environment that builds upon learners' existing knowledge and experiential base" (p. 65). Correspondingly, sources of transformational learning in leadership education (i.e., instructional and assessment strategies) are themselves opportunities to facilitate leadership learning across all four stages of our model.

Background

The Model of Leader and Follower Experiences as a Source of Transformational Learning, introduced by Guthrie and Jenkins (2018), emerged from the growing emphasis in the field of leadership and leadership education on followership (Chaleff, 2009; Kellerman 2008, 2012; Riggio, Chaleff, & Lipman-Blumen, 2008) and teaching through the follower experience (M. Hurwitz, Chaleff, S. Hurwitz, & Thompson, 2017; Murji, 2015). This approach, which focuses on the tripartite lens of the leader, follower, and context (i.e., "The Leadership Triangle"; Kellerman, 2012) is taken into account in our model. For, "by fully understanding principles and concepts of followership, students can also better understand leadership" (Raffo, 2013, as cited in Murji, 2015, p. 172). According to Murji (2015), "Additional outcomes include a greater understanding of individual and group processes and dynamics as well as improved relationship

and emotional intelligence" (p. 172). As leadership and "followership educators", we must "accept that followership is integral to leadership and leadership is integral to followership" (Murji, 2015, p. 172) and thus embrace followership studies as a vehicle to "attain a greater perspective on the leadership phenomenon (Kilburn, 2010, p. 9). Thus, through the abovementioned emphasis on the leader *and* follower coupled with Kolb's experiential learning model, we aim to highlight the critical role that experience plays in the process of leadership education.

Description of Method

Figure 1 below from Guthrie and Jenkins (2018) is the process through which leadership educators may facilitate transformational learning.

Stage 1 - Experience as a Leadership or Follower
The first stage in the model represents any experience or set of experiences an individual might have in a leader *or* follower role. The experience could happen in the workplace, in a student organization, or while the student is volunteering at a local soup kitchen. Moreover, the individual does not have to be in a formal leadership role or position to have the experience, nor does the individual have to be an active participant (they could just as well be a passive observer). In fact, most experiences that contribute to leadership learning involve the individual in a follower role (Chaleff, 2009; Kellerman, 2008, 2012).

Stage 2 - Critical Reflection
The second stage represents the process of critically reflecting on the experience or set of experiences from Stage 1. By critical reflection, we mean the iterative process of returning to the experience or set of experiences and reflecting on what one studied, thought, did, and felt, and an autonomous but still relatively structured and disciplined process of synthesizing lessons, conclusions, uncertainties, and questions (Harvey & Jenkins, 2014; Owen, 2016).

Stage 3 - Experiential Abstraction
The third stage represents the meaning making process. That is, the process by which the individual constructs meaning (e.g., knowledge, skill, value) from the critical reflection of their experiences as a leader or follower. By meaning making we mean the set of assumptions that determine how an individual perceives and organizes their life experiences (Baxter Magolda, 2001; Kegan, 1994).

Stage 4 - Metacognitive Discovery and Exploration
The fourth stage represents opportunities for the individual to experiment with new behaviors and skills, while self-monitoring in the present. That is, the learner is practicing a heightened metacognition of leadership and followership.

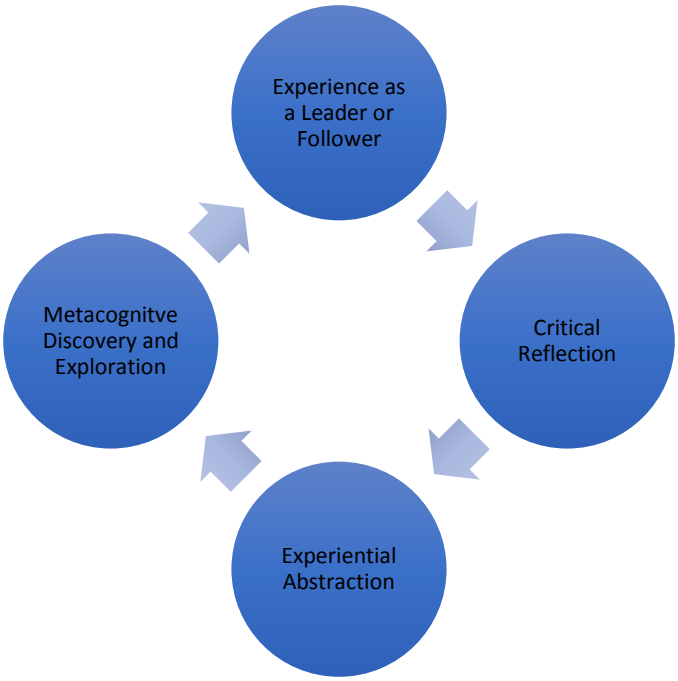

Figure 1. *A Model of Leader and Follower Experiences as a Source of Transformational Learning*

For example, consider Dellow and Jenkins's (2014) semester-long assignment that empowers students to utilize observation instruments to promote student mindfulness of leadership practices, theories, and behaviors. As part of the learning activity, students are asked to keep a log of the behaviors exhibited by a leader in their organization and to report the presence or absence of behaviors that aligned with each of the "Five Practices of Exemplary Leadership" from *The Leadership Challenge* (Kouzes & Posner, 2017). In this context, the student is a follower role (Stage 1) and moves towards critical reflection (Stage 2) about their followership experiences in their log. Specifically, each log is accompanied by a written reflection where students are asked to describe how they perceived and interpreted their observations. Dellow and Jenkins (2014) found that this learning activity often prompted students to reflect on their own leadership skills as a result of observing others, particularly with respect to Kouzes and Posner's (2017) five practices. Through the written feedback on students' logs and reflections provided by the instructor, students were guided through the sense making process. Equally, the learning activity required students to "log" at three points in time across the semester, providing additional opportunities for meaning making, reflection, and growth (Stage 3). As discussed above, the three sequential logs and reflections provided additional opportunities for the learner to hone in on the behaviors of their "observee" as well as their own behaviors. Another promising outcome of this process reported by Dellow and Jenkins (2014), "was that some students experimented with their own leadership behaviors or focused more intentionally on improving skills from the inventory" (p. 13) (Stage 4). The cycle begins again when students reflect on their experiences from these experiments.

Current Results

While no empirical data has been collected on the proposed model, we remain optimistic. Specifically, should leadership educators choose to intentionally align learning outcomes with "best practice" instructional and assessment strategies—like those offered in Guthrie and Jenkins (2018) and shared annually at the Association of Leadership Educators (ALE) Annual Conference—opportunities to facilitate students through transformational learning will abound. We look forward to reporting results at the 2018 ALE Conference and other venues.

Conclusions/Recommendations

The Role of Leadership Educators: Transforming Learning (Guthrie & Jenkins, 2018) was only recently published. Thus, it is premature to draw any conclusions about the proposed model. Instead, we aim to share our model and stimulate dialogue around educational strategies that capitalize on students' leadership *and* followership experiences as sources for learning leadership and followership.

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Developing Meaning Making and Adaptive Leadership Capacity in Leadership Learners: An Approach for Addressing Complex Adaptive Problems

Abstract

The uncertainty of how our world will unfold in the coming years confronts leadership educators with numerous problems with respect to preparing learners for adaptive challenges. However, if academia can unlock students' capacity for meaning making in educational contexts, then they will have a foundation for tackling the volatile, uncertain, complex, and ambiguous now (Carvan, 2015). This practice poster proposes three methods to enhance meaning making and adaptive leadership competencies: values clarification, deep learning engagement, simple rules establishment. In addition to the methods, three outcomes are predicted to result from the adoption of this educational practice: enhanced capacity for moral imagination, augmented emotional intelligence, and increased self-assurance. This practice will help cultivate leaders who are ready to critically and creatively address the world's problems.

Introduction

Complexity is entrenched in daily life. From international communication to dispersed, global corporations with structures consisting of thousands of employees, the world is accelerating towards a reality on the cusp of deeper chaos. The challenge that leadership educators continue to grapple with is preparing a generation of self-assured learners capable of addressing complex, adaptive problems. The key is cultivating capacity for meaning making in students and activating their adaptive leadership skills.

The 30,000-foot view of the problem is the nexus for meaning making and adaptive leadership does not clearly exist in leadership education and, therefore, fails to translate into morally imaginative, self-assured, and emotionally intelligent behavior.

In agreement with the National Leadership Education Research Agenda (NLERA), the current methodology of educating leaders is transactional and results "in a gap between content and how it translates to practice" (Andenoro et al., 2013, p.6). Universities are graduating students who have not developed the full battery of skills and abilities desired in a contemporary college graduate (Duch, Groh, & Allen, 2001). The fault lies in institutions lacking in adaptiveness. All human institutions must renew themselves continuously (Wren, 1995) or they shall fail to meet the challenges of the new era. The deficiency is not in number of courses, but the content of courses. This practice poster addresses this issue providing context for refined and more intentional leadership learning.

Background

The overarching outcome from this leadership education practice is the creation of a foundation for effective leadership practice post-graduation, primarily in the sea of complexity. This attempt at deepening educational approaches to leadership through increased capacity for meaning making and adaptive leadership is the streamlining process for cultivating adaptive solutions to complex problems.

Cultivating the capacity for meaning making and adaptive leadership starts with three educational and developmental objectives:

1) shift from shallow learning to deep learning (Entwistle, 2003; Stover & Seemiller, 2017),
2) provide for values clarification (Fritz & Guthrie, 2017), and
3) create pathways for developing simple rules (Eisenhardt & Sull, 2001).

The complexity of our world disarms the minds of students by halting the use of moral imagination, undermining self-assurance, and stymying acquisition of emotional intelligence. Without these fundamental competencies, learners are not ready to face the barrage of adaptive problems in the world.

According to Ignelzi (2000), meaning making is the process of how people construe, understand, or make sense of life events, relationships, and the self. Gillies et al (2014) writes that through meaning making persons are retaining, reaffirming, revising, or replacing elements of their orienting system to develop more nuanced, complex and useful systems. When overlaid onto leadership education, the utility of this approach is clear: coaching learners to make meaning of life events, relationships, and self while in college better prepares and equips them for making meaning in the complex world awaiting them after graduation.

Utilizing Heifetz's (2009) adaptive leadership approach as a framework for meaning making in complexity, leadership educators can meet the developmental and cognitive needs of learners. The six principles for leading adaptive work establishes a guideline for teaching students through the process of complexity, yet the important focus in the course is tying the adaptive leadership process back into meaning making. The creation of habits for processing complexity through meaning making cements the acquisition of knowledge and increases transferability and generalization.

Description of Program

It is imperative to understand the interconnectedness of each principle piece of the program. Without all three incorporated into the educational practice, the resulting knowledge is hollow, sterile, or muddled. This trilogy of learning themes (values clarification, deep learning, simple rules) paves the way for students to access their capacity for meaning making and adaptive leadership through operationalizing various grids and skill assessments.

Succinctly, the educational practice models coaching and scaffolding the learner's experience through these three themes. Through the use of intentionally designed value clarification exercises, true values and priorities can be identified (Whitworth, Sandhal, Kimsey-House, & Kimsey-House, 2009). Further this creates the foundation for students to consciously self-select and develop baseline values, which drive their daily actions and choices. The principle of awareness changes reality sums up what happens in this process.
For deep learning, the manner in which the instructor teaches informs the level of learning going on in the students. Thus, following the recommendations of Stover and Seemiller (2017), the role of the instructor is to 1) actively link information to various subject matter, 2) facilitate the "so

what?" process to dive into the why of the material, 3) provide opportunities to use evidence to support their values and positions, and 4) garner genuine interest in the subject. Below is a diagram depicting differences in approaches to studying in students. Its significance is in the application to teaching leadership to students; the goal is for leadership students to learn at a deep level, and this diagram provides a helpful blueprint of how to do so.

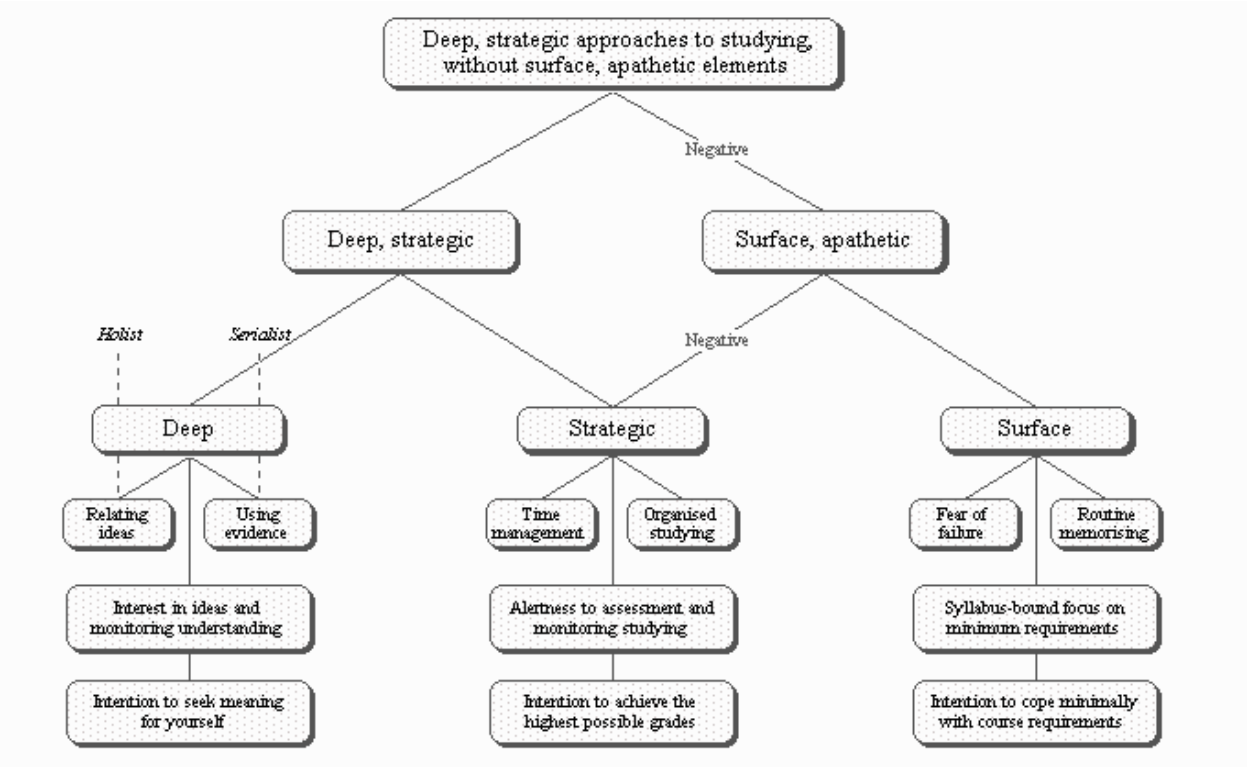

Diagram of deep learning from Entwistle, 2003

Similar to the values clarification process, guiding students through the simple rules formulation process further fills out the foundation for how they can address complex problems. By discussing the basic tenets of simple rules (Eisenhardt & Sull, 2001) as a class and intentionally sharing what simple rules mean and facilitate in relation to adaptive leadership, students need reflective space to synthesize their own simple rules. The process references all temporal points, By asking them to consider specific challenges they are currently facing, and comparing them to similar past challenges, and troubleshooting future similar situations, students engage in reflection, critical thinking, and moral imagination to produce simple rules that serve as guiding principles in adaptive situations.

Questions:

- What is meaning making? What is adaptive leadership?
- How do deep learning, values clarification, and simple rules enhance capacity?
- How do perspective-taking, emotional intelligence, self-assurance, and moral imagination find their roots in this approach?
- What are the adaptive problems to be faced with this methodology?

- What are the implications of meaning making and adaptive leadership in facing wicked problems?

Conclusions

Significant adaptive challenges litter the landscape of our complex global communities. However, through the process illuminated in this poster, leadership educators can position themselves to create capacity for learners to become change agents and create sustainability with respect to our most pressing needs. By shifting our leadership learning environments to prioritize deep learning, contextualize and clarify values, and create pathways for developing simple rules, enhanced capacity for moral imagination, augmented emotional intelligence, and increased self-assurance can be developed in leadership learners. This practice cultivates the critical leadership and the potential for critically and creatively addressing our most pressing global challenges.

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Using Exit Survey Data for Continuous Improvement in an Ed.D. in Interdisciplinary Leadership Program

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Abstract

Guided by Patton's developmental evaluation approach (2015), the core faculty in the Ed.D. in Interdisciplinary Leadership program at Creighton University conduct an exit survey with each graduating student post-dissertation defense. An analysis of the results of 64 exit interviews conducted with graduating students who began the program between January 2012, and August 2015, revealed key areas of improvement. These areas include facilitating connections among online students and the program during the coursework and the dissertation phase, strengthening the research course core, and enhancing faculty development, among others. Recommendations supported by the findings are in the implementation phase. Evaluation of those recommendations is an ongoing process.

Introduction

Many distinguishing features of doctoral programs (i.e., graduation rates, student-faculty ratio, online versus offline programs, etc.) provide information to guide prospective doctoral students and their families (Sweitzer & Volkwein, 2009). Information about these features also is useful to institutions for continuous improvement. One of these important features that differentiates doctoral programs is the dissertation or capstone project. What serves as a dissertation or capstone project varies across disciplines, institutions, and even committees (Blessinger & Stockley, 2016). What is essential is that a dissertation or capstone project be completed and that faculty must approve it before a doctoral degree is granted. Feedback from students about their preparation for, experience in, and growth from the dissertation phase of their program can provide program faculty a wealth of information to consider.

A continuing challenge in higher education is conducting program evaluations that are useful. There are many tools, such as exit surveys, that can be used by faculty members to help their personal teaching practices and help faculty make program-level improvements. The purpose of this project was to utilize the exit survey data that has been collected by the Interdisciplinary Ed.D. Program in Leadership at Creighton University to inform continuing efforts to drive meaningful improvement in the program.

This paper describes the findings of an analysis of the exit survey data that focused on gathering student feedback about the research/dissertation phase of the Ed.D. program.

Background

As faculty in an online/hybrid doctoral program, the core faculty of the Ed.D. program believe in energizing students through rigorous, challenging, and interdisciplinary learning opportunities. Patton's (2011) developmental evaluation approach provided the conceptual framework for this project. Briefly, the development evaluation approach features an ongoing evaluation plan as part of the design of a program. The Ed.D. program faculty gather feedback about the program through an exit survey. The exit survey is conducted by a faculty member in a private interview setting using a Qualtrics® survey following the student's successful defense of their dissertation.

Based upon an analysis of that feedback improvements in the program are made and evaluated on an ongoing basis.

Method

In April 2016, the Ed.D. Program implemented the use of an exit survey. Students that entered the Ed.D. program between January 2012 and August 2015 and successfully defended their dissertations were interviewed by a faculty member using a Qualtrics® survey as an interview guide and data collection tool. In the interview a faculty member sought to capture students' parting thoughts about their experience in the Ed.D. program. While participation in the survey is required upon program completion, identifying information about students was redacted for this analysis.

The 15-minute exit survey consists of nine demographic questions, 11 open-ended questions, and one multiple-choice question (see Appendix A). The one multiple-choice question asks students to indicate what types of program opportunities they might be interested in participating after they graduate. Eleven of the open-ended questions are related to demographics, continuing communication with the program, and career goals. The remaining questions invite students to provide feedback to the program about different facets of the program curriculum and experience.

For the purposes of this analysis, the word "dissertation" was used as a search term to identify the frequency and focus of the messages the students conveyed about the dissertation phase of their Ed.D. program. The findings are discussed below, followed by implications and recommendations for our program going forward.

Results

Data from the Qualtrics survey to date was downloaded in September 2017. Sixty-five students had provided feedback in the exit survey, representing approximately 35% of the 184 students that have graduated from the Ed.D. program to that date. Only the nine curriculum and experiential questions were searched for the word "dissertation." Dissertation was mentioned 64 times in those nine questions (see Table 1).

Table 1
Number of Times the Word Dissertation Appeared in Feedback by Question

Question Topic	# of mentions
Example: critical thinking	11
Ignatian values	4
Communicate effectively	13
Reflective practice	4
Your leadership approach	1
Ability to conduct research	11
Strengths and weaknesses of program	13
Change anything about program	7

Note: See Appendix A for the questions. The questions correspond to questions 11-16 and 20-21.

As seen in Table 1, there were two questions that elicited the highest number of responses about the dissertation process: 1) the question about when in the program the graduating student was most challenged to communicate well, and 2) the question about strengths and weaknesses of the program. Examples of the responses for the question--how the dissertation process challenged the students to communicate well--were related to how the dissertation process helped the students become more concise and precise in their language, express their thoughts more clearly, take out flowery language, pay attention to the importance of wording, and focus on what the student was really trying to say.

Thirteen graduating students explicitly used the word dissertation in their responses to the question about the strengths and weaknesses of the program. Twelve of the 13 responses were in the category of weaknesses and one mentioned dissertation as a strength. Upon closer analysis of all the weaknesses noted by students it was revealed that 25 weaknesses were related to research or dissertation, 11 students mentioned aspects related to the program being online or a lack of face-to-face time, and 8 students mentioned the quality of the adjunct instructors. Nine students mentioned no weaknesses, and the remaining 16 weaknesses discussed were related to other program challenges, such as the unclear communication when the program leadership changed, the challenge of learning how to use the learning management system, and the expense and financing of the program tuition.

The focus of this analysis was the 25 responses about research or dissertation-related weaknesses. Upon further analysis, it was revealed that 14 of those responses related to the student feeling disconnected or isolated during the research phase. Table 2 provides more specific wording around the essence of what students were saying about this less-attached feeling and how, in some cases, it impacts their feelings of preparedness to conduct research.

Table 2
Examples of Student Responses Related to Dissertation/Research

Quotes from Students
● I really felt alone during the dissertation process. It would have been nice to have the cohort people cheering you on-part of that is me-I could have reached out, but didn't.
● I'm more of a face-to-face person…and I didn't have that when working on my dissertation.
● Gathering my dissertation committee was difficult.
● In the dissertation phase - you guys don't have the time to walk us through that experience… The isolation…people feel that.
● I don't think it's possible for a human to really understand the amount of energy it takes to get the dissertation done.
● Early on, I don't think I understood the process of candidacy and dissertation and how that would play out/what it might looks.
● Sometimes you feel like you are kind of out there on an island - an issue for online learning as a whole.
● I didn't feel prepared to undertake a qualitative research project. I ended up finding a Saldana book which was my saving grace.
● I had the statistical support at Purdue, but I would have been in real trouble if I'd not had that resource to go to it.

Implications & Recommendations

Taken together, the results of the exit surveys revealed an interesting paradox experienced by students that have chosen online/hybrid graduate programs. Specifically, in many cases the students chose the online graduate program for the flexibility it afforded them in not having to be in classes or at meetings at specific times and places. However, as revealed in the survey results, the students desired more connection and face-to-face attachments and support with the faculty, particularly during the research/dissertation phase. The research/dissertation phase of the Ed.D. program was only mentioned as a strength of the program one time. In contrast, the research/dissertation phase was referred to 25 times as a weakness with 14 of them relating the student feeling isolated or disconnected. In view of these findings, the Ed.D. program has initiated the following activities, among others:

- Several faculty have added individualized writing and/or research consultation conferences by phone or by an online conferencing platform (i.e., Zoom);
- In March 2018 we will begin offering monthly online webinars with the goal of connecting with students on a regular basis. The standing agenda will include a short topic discussion (e.g., plan of study, candidacy process, dissertation process, etc.), time for hot topics, and time for questions-and-answers;
- We are in the process of revising the way the survey is conducted to allow students more flexibility in answering the survey questions;
- Careful recruitment, retention, and development of faculty prepared to coach research projects continues; and
- Further changes will include reviewing the research methods elective, among other strategies.

Each of these activities will be reviewed in relation to outcomes in future exit surveys.

Conclusion

As more online/hybrid graduate and doctoral programs are created and existing online/hybrid programs continue to use existing technology to improve their course-based instruction, the research/dissertation phase of the program will continue to be an important distinguishing feature in high quality programs. As the faculty in the Ed.D. program continue to learn from the feedback provided by students, one issue becomes clear: the ultimate convergence of flexibility and connection occurs during a trustworthy process. Therefore, efforts to explore what can be done to enhance the trustworthiness and quality of faculty-student interactions and guidance in the research/dissertation process is key to the development of a quality program. This approach will continue to push the Ed.D. program to the leadership edge and help the program stand out among other online/hybrid graduate programs.

Appendix A

Exit Survey Questions/Interview Guide in Qualtrics® Format

1. Name
2. Start date
3. Defense date
4. Graduation date
5. Do you plan to participate in the hooding ceremony?
6. Do you plan to walk in the commencement ceremony in May?
7. May we have a post-graduation email address?
8. Are you on Facebook? May we invite you to participate in the program's Facebook page?
9. Are you on LinkedIn? May we reach out to you through this channel?
10. Describe a leadership perspective or style that resonates with you.
11. Please provide an example of an assignment or course that affected your critical thinking skills.
12. One of the foundations of our program is Ignatian values. Describe your experiences with these values while in the program.
13. Share an instance from your time in the program when you were challenged to communicate more effectively.
14. The process of reflection is an important part of our program. Describe your own reflective practices.
15. How has the program changed (if it has changed) your leadership within the professional and community groups in which you participate?
16. Describe your thoughts on your ability to conduct research after graduation.
17. Sometimes we have opportunities for students to participate in the program after graduation. Check any that apply.
18. Where do you currently work and what is your position?
19. What are your career plans?
20. What are the strengths and weaknesses of the program? (These two parts are asked separately.)
21. If you could change anything about the program, what would you do?
22. Do you plan to embargo your dissertation? Why?

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Leaders On and Off the Field:
A Look at College Student Athletes Strengths Enrolled in a Personal Leadership Course

Abstract

This study sought to examine the strengths of student athletes in leadership courses in order to better understand characteristics of this specialized population. The population was undergraduate student athletes who were enrolled in a personal leadership course at [university] from Fall 2010 to Fall 2017. There were 53 students (N = 53) who were enrolled in the course and submitted the Clifton StrengthsFinder® assessment results. Eleven sports were represented in the population. The top five strengths of the population are, in order: competition, 28; positivity, 14; relator, 14; belief, 13; restorative, 12; adaptability, 12; and achiever, 12. Three strengths—self-assurance, discipline, and intellection—were not represented among the population. The domain of strategic thinking was not represented among the top six strengths of the population.

Introduction

Each college student brings unique characteristics to a classroom environment. Social identities such as gender, race/ethnicity, sexual orientation, disability, and socioeconomic status affect a leader's development and the behavior of learners. Individual differences in the college classroom should be accounted for by leadership educators if students are to effectively meet the needs of leadership learners. (Andenoro et al., 2013; Pascarella & Terenzini, 2015). A social identity not well documented in the literature is that of student athletes. Research shows that collegiate athletes believe professors make immediate judgements toward student athletes differently based on appearance (Adler & Adler, 1985). Socially, student athletes face challenges due to isolation fostered by the demands of their athletic schedules and lack of positive interaction with non-student athletes (Adler & Adler, 1985).

Background

The field of positive psychology is the study of the valued well-being and satisfaction from past events, as well as the expectation for future events and present contentment (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2014). The individual level is characterized by positive personal traits including the capacity for love and vocation, courage, spirituality, boldness, relational skills, resilience, individuality, and discernment (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2014). Rooted in positive psychology, the study of strengths involves a shift from a focus on an individual's gaps or weaknesses to an emphasis on their positives, or strengths, when designing training and development programs, performance management systems, and approaches to recruitment of individuals (Brewerton, 2009; Tomkovick & Swanson, 2014). The Clifton StrengthsFinder® assessment is a method of examining an individual's strengths and provides insight into recurring patterns of thoughts, feelings, and behaviors that can be productively applied for optimal performance and success (Buckingham & Clifton, 2001). According to Rath and Conchie (2008), the 34 specific strengths within the Clifton StrengthsFinder® assessment naturally cluster into four leadership domains: executing, influencing, relationship building, and strategic thinking. Individuals with strengths that exist in the executing domain "know how to

make things happen" (Rath & Conchie, 2008, p. 24). Those who possess strengths within the influencing domain are individuals who "take charge, speak up, and make sure your group is heard" (Rath & Conchie, 2008, p. 25) Those that possess the relationship building domain, "are the glue that holds a team together" (Rath & Conchie, 2008, p. 25). Lastly, those individuals with strengths within the strategic thinking domain keep teams looking forward "on what could be" (Rath & Conchie, 2008, p. 26).

Purpose

Priority five of the National Leadership Education Research Agenda reflects a need to focus on the influence of social identity on leadership education, research, and practice (Andenoro et al., 2013). This study examined social identity in regard to students who are athletes in leadership courses with a purpose to help leadership educators gain a more holistic view of the audiences being served through leadership education. There is a scarcity of empirical research in the academic literature on the benefits of understanding one's strengths (Tomkovick & Swanson, 2014). This study sought to examine the strengths of student athletes in leadership courses in order to better understand characteristics of this specialized population. Specifically, the purpose of this study was to identify the strengths and strength domains most prevalent among student athletes in a personal leadership course.

Methodology

The population was undergraduate student athletes who were enrolled in a personal leadership course at [university] from Fall 2010 to Fall 2017. A purposive sample was taken from the population of students enrolled in a personal leadership course. There were 53 student athletes (N = 53) who were enrolled in the course who took and submitted the Clifton StrengthsFinder® assessment results. The population included undergraduate student athletes from each fall semester from Fall 2010 to Fall 2017 and the spring semesters of years 2013, 2015, 2016, 2017.

The Clifton StrengthsFinder® assessment results provide students with their top 5 strengths; thus the top 5 strengths of each student athlete were used for analysis. Each of the 53 students has five strengths totalling 265 potential strengths in the population. Descriptive statistics were run on the anonymized data. Frequencies were recorded on each strength independently. The frequencies of each strength were then ranked from most frequent to least frequent. The top five strengths were selected as the top five ranked frequencies. Due to the tied scores, the top six were recorded. Separately, each strength was coded as its respective leadership domain (strategic thinking = s; executing = e; relationship building = r; influencing = i). Frequencies of each leadership domain were then recorded. Students were then analyzed by sport. Team sports--football, men and women's basketball, baseball, softball, and volleyball--were looked at separately from the individual sports of tennis, golf, swimming, and track and field.

According to Asplund, Lopez, Hodges, and Harter (2004), the item-to-theme correlation found that the psychometric structure of the Clifton StrengthsFinder® assessment was stable across countries, languages, age, and gender. Across the 34 themes, 23 themes had coefficient alpha levels above the accepted standard of .70 (Hodges & Harter, 2005). Only three themes had an alpha level below .65 (Hodges & Harter, 2005). Among college students, a sample of 106

students showed the average correlation of theme ranking of r = .71 (maximum test-retest reliability being r = 1.0) with two months between initial and follow-up evaluation (Hodges & Harter, 2005).

Findings

The objective of this study was to find which strengths and leadership strength domains are most prevalent among student athletes enrolled in a personal leadership course. Eleven sports were represented in the population including football, men and women's basketball, baseball, softball, tennis, golf, equestrian, swimming, volleyball, and track and field. Of these eleven sports, 38 athletes compete in team sports and 15 athletes compete in individual sports. The top five strengths of the population are, in order: competition, 28; positivity, 14; relator, 14; belief, 13; restorative, 12; adaptability, 12; and achiever, 12 (See Table 1). Three strengths—self-assurance, discipline, and intellection—were not represented among the population. The domain of strategic thinking was not represented among the top six strengths of the population.

Table 1

Strengths	*# of Athletes with Strength*	*Domain*
Competition	28	Influencing
Positivity	14	Relationship Building
Relator	14	Relationship Building
Belief	13	Executing
Restorative	12	Executing
Adaptability	12	Relationship Building

Table 2 shows the number of strengths in each leadership domain. Out of a total of 265 strengths of the athletes, the most prevalent domain was relationship building with 82 strengths. Executing followed with 76 strengths, then influencing with 70 strengths, strategic thinking was the least common domain with 37 out of 265 strengths.

Table 2

Domains	*# of Strengths in Domains*
Relationship Building	82
Executing	76
Influencing	70
Strategic Thinking	37

When analyzed based on team sports versus individual sports, the most common domain among team sports was relationship building (n = 62). The most common domain among individual sports was executing (n = 26).

Conclusions & Recommendations

Being a student athlete is a social identity of students that should be considered in leadership education. This study sought to examine strengths of student athletes in order to better understand this population. One finding from this study was that competition was the top strength of student athletes. Over half of students in the sample from this study had the strength of competition. Having awareness of this characteristic of student athletes can encourage professors of leadership education to implement competition-based learning or assessments in their classroom to better engage this group of learners in their leadership courses. This study had a small sample size of student athletes so further research with larger samples of student athletes in leadership courses should be conducted to confirm the finding that competition is one of the characteristic strengths of the student athlete population. Another recommendation for further research is examining student athletes' strengths of a larger population by sport.

Another finding from this study was the relationship building domain was the highest domain represented for all athletes. While all domains were represented, the strategic thinking was the lowest domain by less than half of the next highest domain. This suggests that student athletes benefit from working with other individuals and display talents that align with a natural leadership ability. Further research should be done to examine which domains exist most and least prevalently among team sports and individual sports.

Out of the 265 strengths analyzed from 53 athletes, there were three strengths not represented: intellection, self-assurance, and discipline. This may suggest student athletes tend to not be motivated and are not engaged by routine and structure (discipline), introspective and intellectual discussions (intellection), and confidence in their decisions (self-assurance). While this finding is something to note, due to the small sample size in this study, this implication should be taken with caution in how leadership educators account for this in their leadership courses with student athletes. Recommendations of further research include expanding this methodology to a larger population of student athletes among numerous universities with various levels of athletic and academic prestige.

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"Yes I'm Biased, but I'm Ok With That"
Examining Implicit Bias in an Undergraduate Personal Leadership Course

Abstract

This study sought to examine the learning of students enrolled in an undergraduate leadership course who completed an assignment on the topic of implicit bias. The population was undergraduate students (N=67) who were enrolled in a personal leadership course at [university] in Fall of 2017. A sample of students chose to complete an assessment that indicated their bias within the topic of race (n = 22) were examined. After analysis through the lens of Bloom's learning domains, evidence of cognitive, psychomotor, and affective learning was present. Analysis of the findings revealed students increased their self-awareness of implicit bias and the conversation around race is still a challenging conversation to have.

Introduction and Background

There is a societal expectation that individuals be congruent in the way one views others and makes decisions. However, in many instances, this is not the case. A discrepancy tends to exist between what an individual says about how they perceive others and more valid unconscious decisions one makes based on initial perceptions (Nosek & Hansen, 2008). This void is filled with what is called implicit bias. Implicit bias is "discriminatory biases based on implicit attitudes or implicit stereotypes" (Greenwald & Krieger, 2006, p.951). An examination of research throughout the 20th century confirms the phenomenon of implicit bias as a distinct construct (Greenwald & Banaji, 1995).

Implicit bias can affect academics, healthcare, law, leadership, and general relational dynamics (Gündemir, Homan, Dreu, & Vugt, 2014; Maddox & Sommers, 2017; Maina, Belton, Ginzberg, Singh, & Johnson, 2018; Staats, 2016; Wittenbrink, Judd, & Park, 1997). Results of taking an IAT based on race has led to an increased sense of self-awareness and the disconnect between explicit personal beliefs and implicit bias (Adams, Devos, Rivera, Smith, & Vega, 2014). Increased self-awareness creates an environment that reduces biases, creates a sense of unity, and offers room for conscious reflection as well (Lueke & Gibson, 2016).

Implicit bias research regarding race has been performed on diverse populations, but studies are limited relating to implicit bias and college students. Research shows college students examining their results from the IAT is a strategy for teaching implicit bias (Adams, Devos, Rivera, Smith, & Vega, 2014). Implicit bias fits into leadership education curriculum as an effective leader must remain self-aware and understand the implications of implicit biases (Shankman, Allen, & Haber-Curran, 2015).

Priority three of the National Leadership Education Research Agenda focuses on the psychological development of leaders, followers, and learners. One area within this priority is the development of learner psychological capacity. Understanding of self is critical to the development of positive relationships with others which is essential for leadership to occur (Andenoro et al., 2013). Little research exists that examines undergraduate leadership students' psychological capacity in regard to their beliefs and understanding of their own biases. The

purpose of this study was to examine the learning of students enrolled in a personal leadership course who completed an assignment on the topic of implicit bias.

Theoretical Framework

Emotionally intelligent leadership (EIL) synthesizes the research and theory of emotional intelligence and leadership and proposes that emotional intelligence is core to being an effective leader (Shankman et al., 2015). The three facets of EIL are consciousness of self, consciousness of others, and consciousness of context. All facets must be at high capacity to function as an effective leader. This study focused on consciousness of self and specifically what students in a leadership course learned about themselves after completing an assignment related to implicit bias. Conscious of self involves seven specific capacities including emotional self-perception, emotional self-control, authenticity, healthy self-esteem, flexibility, optimism, initiative, and achievement (Shankman et al., 2015, p. 21).

Bloom's Taxonomy of Learning classifies learning into three domains: cognitive, affective, and psychomotor. The cognitive domain reflects learning as knowledge and development of intellectual skills (Bloom, 1956). The affective domain consists of learning as how we react emotionally including feelings, what we value, appreciate, are motivated by, and any change in attitudes (Anderson & Krathwohl, 2001). The psychomotor domain includes changes in behaviors including physical movements. Bloom's taxonomy of learning enables educators to assess what students learn in each of these categories.

EIL provides a framework for this study as we examined how students developed consciousness of self through an assignment on implicit bias. Student learning was captured by analyzing what students learned in the cognitive, affective, and psychomotor domains.

Methodology

The setting of this study was a face-to-face, fifteen-week undergraduate personal leadership course. Having the students gain insight into their individual characteristics as leaders is a key aspect of this course. As such, one unit within the course introduced the concept of implicit bias. The affiliated assignment was twofold: first, to complete one of the Implicit Association Tests (IATs) located in Harvard's Project Implicit website and second, to complete a guided reflective writing assignment to explore and process the findings. Due to the richness of the reflections, the researchers chose to evaluate this assignment after the course was over to understand better the learning that occurred. This assignment was not assigned originally for research purposes. Thus, it is appropriate to complete a qualitative content analysis (Bryman, 2012).

A purposive sample (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016) of students enrolled in the personal leadership course in the fall 2017 semester was chosen for this study. There were 72 students enrolled in the course. Each reflection was downloaded from the online learning management system and given a code (N = 67) and will appear within the narrative as part of the audit trail. A sample of 22 reflections were chosen for review for the final data analysis (n = 22). Students were given eight topics included in the IAT from which to choose. Race was the most common IAT selected, with

22 students, followed by religion with 12. To be included in this population, students must have selected one of the IATs related to race. The total number of student reflections analyzed was 22.

The methodological framework in this study was qualitative content analysis because this study was focused on examining indirect human behavior by reviewing student's written reflections. As Borg and Gall (1989) note, the objectives of content analysis include: 1) generating descriptive data, 2) validating research findings, and 3) testing hypotheses. The researchers engaged in all three objectives through this study.

Bloom's learning domains (1956) was applied as the coding scheme. The units of analysis were words, phrases, or sentences within the individual reflections. An inductive approach was taken to unitize the data and then evaluated against the coding scheme. Through this open coding process, each interview was broken apart and reconfigured into the three learning domains or categories (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). The constant comparative method was applied, empowering the researchers to integrate data and theory through joint coding and analysis (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Three independent reviewers read each reflection. The unitized data points were then highlighted and labeled as one of the three learning domains or categories. Once initial coding was complete, the researchers engaged in a peer debriefing with one familiar with the course and the assignment, but who had not coded the data. The peer debrief served as a check for clarity and consistency in the categorization of the data between the three researchers.

Establishing and preserving trustworthiness is important in qualitative research. Trustworthiness was established through credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). Credibility was established through peer debriefing. Transferability was established through the use of participate quotes, and dependability and confirmability were established through the use of audit trails (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016).

Findings and Results

The student reflections were analyzed using the framework of Bloom's three learning domains. Evidence of all three kinds of learning were found in the student reflections, and will be discussed using quotations from the reflections.

In the cognitive domain, the two themes that are most prevalent are: gaining a heightened sense of self-awareness and those that were unaffected by the results. One student (35) referred to self-awareness stating that, "The test however did bring these biases to my attention and made me question biases in other aspects of my life". A student (43) stated, "I always thought that I was very accepting of other races and at the end of the test it made me feel like maybe I was not as much as I thought." Four other students (29, 30, 37, and 47) felt that the test did not inform them on any implicit biases that they may have. These students are aware of their biases already or were apathetic to the results.

In the psychomotor domain two themes found to be most frequent are: students' positions that lead them to reflect on implicit bias in future social contexts and the importance of inclusion in future leadership roles. Three students had similar statements, one student (26) said, "…it gave me more information to reflect on", the second student said (35), "…from now on I will be

closely evaluating myself," and the third student said (34), "This test had made me rethink my actions on a daily basis." Other students that referred to their results in regards to leadership addressed inclusion. One student (38) explained:

> Nowadays, most leaders experience a multicultural followership. Since I did receive those types of results [from the IAT], I think it would be extremely important for me to be inclusive of everyone, and not show any biases. Everyone brings something to the table and it's important that you don't jump to any conclusions based stereotypes.

In the affective domain, the most frequent themes were a lack of comfort, confusion, unfairness, and frustration. Six students (62, 53, 37, 36, 30, 1) claimed, "[The test] made me feel uncomfortable." Another student (17) said, "This test made me feel pretty confused." Four other student's (5, 15, 21, 47) noted that the test seemed unfair. Four more students (14, 41, 57, and 59) were generally frustrated or angry with the test. However, not all of the students had negative feelings after taking the test. Two students (26, 34) felt content with taking the test. One student (34) said, "I really enjoyed taking the test because it gave me more information to reflect on." Another student (26) stated, "...I am glad I took the exam because it opened my eyes to the implicit biases that I have in my life".

Conclusions and Recommendations

Bloom's (1956) learning domains provide a lens through which leadership educators can more closely examine the learning occurring in their courses. Through a content analysis of student reflections about an assignment in an undergraduate personal leadership course, evidence for all three domains of learning were found. However, the researchers did not examine if each reflection contained all three learning domains.

Based on the findings, two conclusions can be drawn: completing and reflecting on the assignment increased self-awareness of the students and that the conversation around race is still a challenging conversation to have. While many of the students responded in positive ways that this assignment provided them new insights into their thinking and their behaviors, some students readily acknowledged their comfort with their own biases. This finding supports previous research that we all have biases (Nosek & Hansen, 2008). Yet, this finding is also troubling. Having personal preferences is one thing, but when those preferences lead to exclusionary actions, organizations and society in general suffers. Our thoughts lead to reasoned actions or behaviors, which over time turn lead to habits. Thus, if we aspire to change our behaviors, we must first focus on changing our thoughts (Nosek & Hansen, 2008; Shankman et al., 2015).

Although the findings from this study are not generalizable to the population as a whole, the tone and lack of willingness to consider change in one's thoughts or opinions is indicative of larger issues facing our society. Consciousness of self and others is important for effective leadership to occur (Shankman et al., 2015). As leadership educators, we have a responsibility to help our students develop into principled leaders, who desire to improve the world around them. But if they are not open to having difficult conversations or confront potential limitations to their effectiveness as leaders, i.e. lack of inclusivity, more work is needed.

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Self-Perceived Youth Leadership Life Skills Development Outcome of Virginia Governor's School of Agriculture: A Case Study

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Abstract

This paper discusses the leadership development outcome of the Virginia Governor's School of Agriculture (VGSA), a pre-college residential program, whose mission is to develop future leaders and scientists for careers in agriculture. No leadership classes were taught, and participants can only be expected to learn leadership skills experientially. The Youth Leadership Life Skills Development Scale (YLLSDS) survey was completed by 91 participants of the VGSA. Findings suggest a "slight" to "fairly moderate" YLLSD among VGSA participants. Since there was not "a lot of gain" perceived in any of the YLLSD sub-domains, we assume this might be because the VGSA program does not teach leadership as a course. Therefore, we recommend the VGSA develop a leadership curriculum for future cohorts.

Introduction

Today's youth can be said to be privileged, considering the plethora of youth development interventions we have today (Seemiller, 2018). Formal and informal, in-school and out-of-school youth organizations are on the rise. However, in order to improve the quality of these programs, we need to know the programs that work and those that do not, the aspects of programs that work and those that do not (Anderson, Sabatelli, & Trachtenberg, 2007). This paper discusses the leadership life skills development outcome of the Virginia Governor's School of Agriculture (VGSA), a pre-college summer agricultural program, whose mission is to "develop future leaders and scientists for careers in Agriculture" (Friedel, 2017, p. 5). This is a 4-week residential program that focusses on acquainting high school students with careers in agriculture. While courses were being taught on five major career areas, however, there were no specific leadership classes taught, and participants can only be expected to learn leadership skills by participating in group projects and socializing activities, thereby making it experiential in nature (Gould & Voelker, 2012; Thurber, Scanlin, Scheuler, & Henderson, 2007; Turkay & Tirthali, 2010). Therefore, we refer to youth leadership life skills development as a secondary outcome of the VGSA. We are not aware of any research that has studied the youth leadership life skills development outcome of the VGSA. However, there is need for VGSA program planners to know if the VGSA is effective in developing future leaders and which leadership skills are developed (or not). The purpose of this study was to describe VGSA participants' self-perceived gain of leadership life skills as a result of participation in VGSA program. Specific objectives include:

1) Describe VGSA participants' demographics;
2) Describe VGSA participants' self-perceived Youth Leadership Life Skills Development (YLLSD) scores;
3) Describe the relationship between selected descriptive characteristics and YLLSD scores.

Background

Although there are many conceptual frameworks for studying leadership development in youth, there is a lack of concrete theory in literatures (Murphy & Reichard, 2011; Seemiller, 2018). According to Miller (1975) leadership life skills refer to competencies that are necessary for performing leadership roles. Miller identified and prioritized 68 leadership life skills that are necessary for youth leadership development among 4-H members. Out of the 68 leadership skills identified by Miller, only 34 leadership skills made the priority list (Miller, 1975). These skills were then categorized under six sub-domains: decision making, relationships, learning, management, understanding self, and group processes. Miller (1976) then re-conceptualized leadership life skills and added a seventh sub-domain: communication. Miller's (1976) conceptualization has been adapted by other researchers measuring youth leadership life skills development (see Ahrens, Cox, Burris, & Dykes, 2015; Real & Harlin, 2006; Seevers, Dormody, & Clason, 1995; Wingenbach & Kahler, 1997). In this study, we measured youth leadership life skills development with 30 leadership skills, categorized under seven sub-domains from Miller (1976): decision making, relationships, learning, management, understanding self, group processes, and communication. Many of the competency areas of youth leadership skills development frameworks in extant literature match some of the sub-domains from Miller (see Redmond & Dolan, 2016; Ricketts & Rudd, 2002; Seemiller, 2013). According to Miller (1976), the higher the life skills gained by youth, the higher their capability in performing leadership roles.

Description of program/Methodology

Description of program

The VGSA is a 4-week residential program that takes place every summer on the college campus of Virginia Tech. VGSA participants include junior and senior students from various private, public, and home schools across Virginia. In order to have a broad knowledge of agriculture, students are required to attend classes in all core areas (i.e. agricultural & biological systems engineering, agricultural economics, animal science, food science, and plant science). In the last week, students are then required to focus on one of the five core areas to gain a deeper understanding. Since this is a residential program, it is similar to what is experienced in youth camps (Thurber, Scanlin, Scheuler, & Henderson, 2007). Besides living on their own, away from parents and closer to peers, students engage in socializing activities like participating in field trips, and outdoor games. As part of the program, students are assigned to a group of five to complete a final project that focusses on one of the identified topics of interest. Survey questionnaires were administered to 91 participants of the 2017 cohort on the final day of the program, and all 91 participants completed the questionnaires. SPSS version 25 was used for data analysis. We received approval from Virginia Tech Institutional Review Board before starting this research. In addition, we received permission from the parents of the GSA participants, since most of the participants are younger than 18 years old.

Research Design

We used a descriptive survey methodology and a correlational design for this study (Ahrens, Cox, Burris, & Dykes, 2015; Real & Harlin, 2006; Wingenbach & Kahler, 1997). We adopted the Youth Leadership Life Skills Development Scale (YLLSDS) developed by Seevers, Dormody, and Clason (1995) to measure Youth Leadership Life Skills Development (YLLSD) score. This is a 30-indicator, unidimensional instrument that uses a four-point sub-scale ranging from 0 = no gain to 3 = a lot of gain. This instrument measures youth leadership skills under seven sub-domains, consistent with Miller's (1976) seven sub-domains: communication skills (e.g. I am a good listener), decision making skills (e.g. I consider all choices before making a decision), skills in getting along with others (e.g. consider the needs of others), learning skills (e.g. I can use information to solve problems), management skills (e.g. I can delegate responsibility), skills in understanding yourself (e.g. I am sure of my abilities), skills in working with groups (e.g. I trust other people). The Cronbach's alpha for YLLSDS in this study was 0.969. The descriptive variables correlated with summated YLLSDS score include: age, gender, and grade point average (GPA).

Current Results

1) Describe VGSA participants' demographics

VGSA participant demographics were described in terms of gender, age, and ethnicity. By gender, VGSA participants (N = 91) consisted of 70.3 percent females and 29.7 percent males. By age, 8.8 percent were 15 years old, 38.5 percent were 16 years old; 51.6 percent were 17 years old; and 1.1 percent were 18 years old. By ethnicity, the largest portion (45.1%) identified as "Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander", followed by "Asian" (38.5%); the rest included – "Black or African American" (7.7%), "Hispanic or Latino" (3.3%), and "White/Caucasian" (3.3%%).

2) Describe VGSA participants' self-perceived Youth Leadership Life Skills Development (YLLSD) scores.

All YLLSDS sub-domains have means of 1.41 or greater, which means VGSA participants perceived they gained leadership skills as a result of the program (Table 1). The top 3 skills gained included: learning skills, skills in working with groups, and decision-making skills; while the bottom three skills gained included: management skills, skills in getting along with others, and skills in understanding self.

Table 1
YLLSDS sub-domain means, standard deviation, and coefficients of reliability of VGSA Participants (N = 91)

YLLSDS domains	*Mean*[a]	*SD*	*Reliability coefficients*[b]
Learning Skills	1.72	0.80	0.858
Skills in working with groups	1.70	0.84	0.868
Decision-making skills	1.67	0.70	0.847
Communication skills	1.64	0.85	0.686
Skills in understanding self	1.58	0.81	0.909
Skills in getting along with others	1.51	0.83	0.928
Management skills	1.41	0.85	0.768

[a]Scale values are 0 to 3. Scale was 0 = No gain, 1 = Slight gain, 2 = Moderate gain, 3 = A Lot of gain. [b] Cronbach's Alpha.

3) Describe the relationship between selected descriptive characteristics and YLLSD scores.

Results of Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient showed a nonsignificant correlation (-0.106) between summated YLLSDS scores and age; a nonsignificant correlation (-0.18) between summated YLLSDS scores and gender: and a non-significant correlation (0.077) between summated YLLSDS scores and GPA. All three calculations were nonsignificant based on an alpha level of 0.05.

Conclusions/Recommendations

Findings suggest that there was a "slight" to "fairly moderate" gain in leadership skills among VGSA participants. This supports prior research indicating leadership skills can be developed through experiential learning (Thurber, Scanlin, Scheuler, & Henderson, 2007; Turkay & Tirthali, 2010). However, since there was not "a lot of gain" perceived in any of the YLLSDS, we assume the potential was limited by the fact that the VGSA program does not teach leadership as a course. Therefore, we recommend the VGSA develop a leadership curriculum for future cohorts. This is in consonance with the recommendation by Seemiller (2018) that leadership development programs must be intentional in teaching leadership skills. Moreover, the fact there was no significant relationship found between YLLSDS and all of the descriptive variables tested seems to suggest that VGSA participants can become leaders regardless of age, gender, and academic achievement. Since this is an evaluation of the VGSA, readers should be careful in generalizing its results. However, these results might be valuable to those interested in planning youth leadership development programs.

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A Pilot Program in College Mentorship: Is There Value?

Abstract

Mentoring has become a common practice in higher education and in the workplace. It provides the potential to positively impact many areas in higher education including student retention and leadership development. Crisp & Cruz (2009) called for researchers to continue exploring ways in which mentoring is experienced and developed by college students. The following pilot study was conducted to gain insight into the expectations of mentors and mentees within a mentorship program, as well as what could be gained from the program.

Introduction

The School of Business at Northern State University (NSU) has an Advisory Board that meets each semester with staff and faculty to discuss current trends in the business world. Recently members of the Advisory Board shared some key traits needed by business graduates today. These skills included communication skills, critical thinking, and decision making skills. During this same timeframe, there was a great deal of discussion regarding retention on the campus of NSU. Retention of freshmen students from the first semester to the second semester, as well as the retention from year 1 to year 2 are critical benchmarks for universities. To help with retention and skill development in the School of Business, a pilot mentorship program was developed utilizing upperclassmen business majors as mentors to first year business majors.

Background

While the term has origins dating back to ancient Greek representing the advisor of Odysseus (Dutton, 2003), there is a lack of consensus on a mentoring definition (Crisp & Cruz, 2009; Jacobi, 1991). Mentoring can be defined as "a formalized process whereby a more knowledgeable and experienced person actuates a supportive role of overseeing and encouraging reflection and learning within a less experienced and knowledgeable person, so as to facilitate that person's career and personal development" (Roberts, 2000, p. 162). Yomtov, Plunket, Efrat, & Marin (2015)'s definition has a stronger fit with mentoring in higher education by defining a mentor as someone who "provides guidance, support, and practical advice to a mentee who is close in age and shares common characteristics or experiences" (p. 2). Mentors are often seen as individuals who will provide guidance, knowledge, and experience with those being mentored (George & Mampilly, 2012).

According to Gershenfeld's (2014) analysis of mentorship programs, it is important to identify the facets of a mentoring program rather than focus on a single mentoring definition. Crisp and Cruz (2009)'s model of mentoring contains four roles or facets including psychological and emotional support, goal setting and career path, academic subject knowledge support and the existence of a role model. Psychological and emotional support involves a supportive relationship where the mentee and mentor can share their thoughts, feelings, and insecurities; and support will be given. Goal setting and career path encompasses setting goals for academic achievement, as well as setting career goals. The mentor is there to encourage realistic future goals. Academic subject knowledge support suggests mentors will be there to offer subject

knowledge to the mentee when needed. Lastly, the existence of a role model indicates the mentor is someone whom the mentee can look up to and see themselves emulate (Crisp & Cruz, 2009).

There are many benefits to a mentoring program. Mentoring can help foster responsibility and time management skills in mentors (McLean, 2004). The mentee can gain confidence, perseverance, and satisfaction with the university program through a mentoring program (Ferrari, 2004). Mentees in a mentorship program also saw an increase in academic success (Salinitri, 2005). Mentoring experiences offer support in many areas including professional, career and emotional support (Crisp, et al., 2017; Crisp & Cruz, 2009; Jacobi, 1991).

Utilizing the Social Cognitive Career Theory (SCCT), a mentorship program will be advantageous for mentors and mentees. SCCT has its roots in Social Cognitive Theory (Bandura, 1986). SCCT focuses on the relationship between an individual's self-efficacy and social interactions (Lent, Brown, & Hackett, 2002). The three main components of SCCT that aid in career development include self-efficacy, outcome expectations, and personal goals (Lent & Brown, 1996). Self-efficacy is one's belief in themselves "to organize and execute courses of action required to attain designated types of performances." (Bandura, 1986, p. 391). Outcome expectations are the results believed to occur based on making certain decisions. Lastly, setting personal goals will help an individual reach the desired outcomes (Lent, Brown, & Hackett, 2002). Each of these components work together to aid in developing an individual's career path. Mentoring can help enhance each of these three components.

The study's goals were to determine: 1.) if a mentorship program would be well-received at NSU; 2.) if value would be found in a mentorship program; and 3.) if assigning mentorship pairs based on major would be effective.

Description of Program/Methodology

Two Survey of Business courses were offered face-to-face on NSU's campus in the Fall 2017 semester. This course is the entry level business course offered to incoming freshmen. Between the two courses, there were 53 freshmen. Since this was a pilot program, each freshman was allowed to fill out a form indicating his/her preference of having a mentor. The three choices were "Yes, I want a mentor;" No, I do not want a mentor;" or "I do not have a preference on whether I receive a mentor." The freshmen were also asked to provide his/her chosen major(s). Of those 53 freshmen, thirty-two selected either "Yes, I want a mentor" or "I do not have a preference on whether I receive a mentor."

The mentors were selected by emailing business majors who had completed at least 90 credit hours and were in good academic standing. The email asked for mentors who would be willing to meet with a freshman business major at least three times during the semester. The willing mentor candidates were asked to contact the researchers and provide their declared major(s). The process yielded 32 mentoring pairs. Each mentee-mentor pair was grouped together based upon their selected majors. McLean, (2004) found that a mentee's satisfaction with the mentoring program increases when the mentor has the same career path. The mentee will see the mentor as a reliable source of information regarding courses to take and career goals (McLean, 2004).

The expectation of each mentee-mentor pair was to meet at least three times during the semester. The researchers emailed each mentee-mentor pair to inform them of whom they will be meeting with during the semester. The mentor was responsible for making the initial contact with the mentee. After the initial meeting, the pairs were in control of the communication, the alignment of schedules, and the selection of places to meet. The researchers emailed the mentors half-way through the semester for an update on the mentoring relationship. The researchers also reminded the mentees during the semester to utilize their mentors when they needed them. The researchers did not arrange any meetings between the mentors and mentees.

Current Results

At the end of the Fall 2017 semester, each mentor and mentee received an email to complete a brief qualitative survey regarding the mentorship program. Twenty-eight out of the thirty-two mentors completed the survey. Sixteen of the mentors were female (57.1%). The average age of the mentors was 21.5. Twenty-four mentors self-identified as white (85.7%). The majors of the mentors are fairly distributed between seven areas with the highest percentage (21.4%) including accounting, management, and double-majors. The remaining majors include: International Business = 14.3%, Finance = 7.1%, Marketing = 7.1%, and Business Administration = 7.1%. Eighteen mentors (64.3%) spent most of the time talking with mentees about the psychological and emotional support domain of the Crisp & Cruz's model (2009). Twenty-three mentors stated they would be willing to continue meeting with their mentor during the spring semester (82.1%).

Twenty-one out of thirty-two mentees completed the survey. Eleven of the mentees were male (52.4%). The average age of the mentees was 18.7. Twenty mentees self-identified as white (95.2%). The declared majors by the mentees were disbursed across eight options: Business Administration = 23.8%, Management = 19%, Accounting = 14.3%, Undeclared = 14.3%, Marketing = 9.5%, Banking and Finance = 9.5%, International Business = 4.8%, and double major = 4.8%. Twenty mentees (95.2%) were satisfied with his/her mentor. The one mentee who was unsatisfied with his mentor stated it was because they did not meet enough to establish a relationship. Sixteen mentees (76.2%) agreed the mentors provided support and encouragement.

Conclusions/Recommendations

Thirty of the thirty-two mentees are enrolled in the Spring 2018 semester. This is a 93.8% retention rate. All twenty-eight mentors (100%) said the mentorship program is valuable and should continue for future business students. Twenty of the twenty-one mentees (95.2%) agreed the mentorship program should continue each year for incoming freshmen. The mentor/mentee assignment based on academic major worked well based on the feedback from the mentees. The major was a common area of interest to start the conversation. The major also helps align future career goals and encourages the role model potential. These results indicate there is value and interest in a mentoring program in the School of Business. The mentoring program will be replicated in the Fall 2018 semester. Based on the feedback from the mentors and mentees, the mentoring program will utilize a structured format.

Future recommendations for the mentorship program include hosting an initial meet and greet to introduce the mentors to the mentees. This will allow for a safe environment for mentors and mentees to meet each other in a more comfortable and controlled environment. Another suggestion was to provide mentor training before the mentors meet the mentees. This training could help the mentor prepare and gain confidence with his/her own abilities to lead and mentor. It was also suggested to provide the mentors with pre-determined questions to help generate conversations with the mentees. A list of suggested activities would also be helpful for the mentors.

Future recommendations for research and development would be to analyze leadership development in mentors. A mentorship program has the potential to develop leadership skills in the mentors. Research should examine the relationship between Crisp & Cruz (2009)'s mentoring model and leadership. Mentoring experience may be a predictor in transformational or servant leadership development. It is important to understand the skill development that is being cultivated in mentors today.

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Who Enrolls in a Leadership in Social Justice Program?

Abstract

The [Program] is a year-long co-curricular leadership and justice/equity program. Rooted in transformative leadership, students in the program work on building the capacities needed to effectively lead towards a more equitable society. Program co-directors assessed in-coming students to examine their experiences in leadership and justice work and found that all students had undertaken efforts to be Learners and Allies. However, more active roles, Advocate and Activist, had not been enacted as much, as frequently, or at all. Program co-directors use this assessment to drive the programmatic experiences of the students in order to build an effective tool kit for future work

Introduction

The [Program] is a year-long co-curricular program to develop students' potential for transformative leadership - and thereby identity as transformative leader. The curriculum focuses on issues of social justice and the development of each student along a continuum from Learner to Ally to Advocate or Activist through formal class sessions with issue-related guest speakers and faculty lead leadership development activities, one-on-one mentoring with faculty, participation in external events, assigned readings and reading circles, program field trips, and individual final projects. The 2017-2018 academic first year was the first full pilot of the program and faculty sought to understand where on the continuum - Learner to Advocate or Activist - students were starting their journey so that revisions to the curriculum could target necessary development.

Review of the Literature

Transformative leadership addresses public and individual good by starting with questions of justice and critiques of inequitable practice (Shields, 2010). Once leaders have developed a critical awareness of oppression, exclusion, and marginalization, they must recognize and accept their role in moving society toward justice and inclusion (Astin & Astin, 2000; Brooks & Miles, 2006; Shields, 2010). To accept this role, transformative leaders must re-think their sense of self such that they incorporate leadership for social justice as part of their identities (Christensen and Raynor, 2003; Pava, 2003; Quinn 1996).

Faculty co-coordinators of the program developed definitions of Learner, Ally, Advocate and Activist identities from the literature in order to set behavioral benchmarks and evaluate student growth within the program. Students who enact Learner identities are aware of themselves, willing to uncover structures of oppression – including in their own thinking, developing understandings of control and domination, and willing to engage in critical reflection (Brown, 2006; Dunn, 1987; Senge, 1990). An Ally is a person from a majority group who personAlly supports those who are in an oppressed population with the goal of ending the oppression (Washington & Evans, 1991). Allies lend physical and emotional support to individuals experiencing marginalization and oppression. An Advocate is someone who communicates the urgency of a call to action that is rooted in shared values (Ganz, 2009). Advocates speak on behalf of those impacted by social justice issues (Ganz, 2009). An Activist works to engage others in the removal of injustice (Ganz, 2008; Trueba, 1999). Activists develop the strategies to mobilize and deploy resources to support a call to action (Ganz, 2008; Trueba, 1999).

Learner, Ally, Advocate, and Activist identities all stem from the public enactment of one's beliefs in social justice and ability to lead (Trueba, 1999). The Leadership for Social Justice curriculum is rooted in the premise that the transformation of self required to become a transformative leader can be supported through the facilitation of access to Learner, Ally, Advocate and Activist identities. In order to refine the curriculum for future years, faculty must understand the behaviors students have already engaged in – and thus the identities they are enacting.

Methods

Prior to the first session, participants in the program were asked to complete an anonymous, online survey that included knowledge and behavior items related to leadership and leadership for social justice. Four of the five undergraduate students completed the survey within two weeks of the request. Knowledge items asked students to define terms such as: transformative leadership, Learner, Ally, Advocate, and Activist. Behavior items asked students to choose "never", "once", or "more than once" for a list of items that researchers developed from the literature on Learner, Ally, Advocate, and Activist behaviors and from an examination of what experts in those communities do.

Results

Prior to the start of their experience in The [Program], all of the students have attended a meeting on a pillar of justice and have read books and watched movies related to issues of social justice while most had attended a cultural event (Table 1). Thus, they have engaged in four of the six behaviors representative of Learners and half have engaged in the other two - attending workshops and listening to podcasts.

Table 1
Engagement in Learner Behaviors

Question	Never	Once	More than once
I have attended a meeting on a pillar of social justice.	0.00%	75.00%	25.00%
I have attended a cultural event outside of my own culture.	25.00%	50.00%	25.00%
I have read books related to issues of social justice.	0.00%	50.00%	50.00%
I have watched movies related to social justice.	0.00%	50.00%	50.00%
I have attended a workshop or training related to an issue of social justice.	50.00%	25.00%	25.00%
I have listened to a podcast about an issue of social justice.	50.00%	25.00%	25.00%

All of the students have joined a social justice organization and have listened to a friend talk about a social justice issue while most have gone with a friend to an event important to them and supported a friend while they talked to a social justice issue (Table 2). Prior to The [Program], none of students have participated in a march or rally nor have they gone with a friend to an office or service related to an issue while half have not displayed t-shirts/bumper stickers/posters related to a social justice issue.

At the start of the first year of The [Program], all of the students had interrupted someone who was making an insensitive or offensive joke (Table 3). Most of the students had not engaged in other Advocate behaviors, one student had met with an elected official about a social justice

issue, one had participated in a fundraiser, one had created media, and one had spoken to a group about social media.

Table 2
Engagement in Ally Behaviors

Question	Never	Once	More than once
I have participated in a march or rAlly about a social justice issue.	100.00%	0.00%	0.00%
I have joined an organization for a social justice issue.	0.00%	75.00%	25.00%
I have a t-shirt/poster/bumper sticker related to social justice that I display.	50.00%	25.00%	25.00%
I have gone with a friend to a meeting or event related or event related to a social justice issue that is personAlly important to my friend.	25.00%	75.00%	0.00%
I have gone with a friend to an office or service related to a social justice issue that is personAlly important to my friend.	100.00%	0.00%	0.00%
I have supported a friend while they talked to other friends or family about a social justice issue that is personAlly important to my friend.	25.00%	75.00%	0.00%
I have listened while a friend talked about a social justice issue that is personAlly important to my friend.	0.00%	50.00%	50.00%

Table 3
Engagement in Advocate Behaviors

Question	Never	Once	More than once
I have met with an elected official about a social justice issue.	75.00%	0.00%	25.00%
I have written letters or emails about a social justice issue.	100.00%	0.00%	0.00%
I have participated in a phone bank for a social justice issue.	100.00%	0.00%	0.00%
I have participated in a neighborhood canvas for a social justice issue.	100.00%	0.00%	0.00%
I have participated in a fundraiser for a social justice issue.	75.00%	0.00%	25.00%
I have interrupted a peer/friend/family member/professor who was making an offensive or insensitive joke or statement.	0.00%	25.00%	75.00%
I have written articles for publication related to social justice.	100.00%	0.00%	0.00%
I have created videos or movies related to social justice.	75.00%	0.00%	25.00%
I have spoken to a group about a social justice issue.	75.00%	0.00%	25.00%

One student has organized a speaker or meeting on social justice and one has organized a fundraiser (Table 4). The students have not engaged in the other Activist behaviors.

Table 4
Engagement in Activist Behaviors

Question	Never	Once	More than once
I have organized a march or rAlly about a social justice issue.	100.00%	0.00%	0.00%
I have organized a speaker or meeting on a pillar of social justice.	75.00%	0.00%	25.00%
I have organized an email or letter-writing campaign for a social justice issue.	100.00%	0.00%	0.00%
I have organized a phone bank for a social justice issue.	100.00%	0.00%	0.00%
I have organized a neighborhood canvas for a social justice issue.	100.00%	0.00%	0.00%
I have organized a fundraiser for a social justice issue.	75.00%	25.00%	0.00%
I have lead an organization for a social justice issue.	100.00%	0.00%	0.00%

Conclusion

Students enter The [Program] in the Learner and Ally stages of the continuum. As the students have all engaged in learner and ally behaviors, program faculty can assume that the students have some exposure and experience in social justice issues before entering the program. This provides a baseline on which faculty can build a more focused and specialized programmatic experience for students. The [Program]'s curriculum can focus on helping students learn about a wider range of issues and on engaging in Advocate and Activist behaviors, more specifically.

Moving forward, students should be encouraged to continue to learn through workshops, readings, and listening to reinforce the objectives of the program. A key part of the philosophy of The [Program] is that while all students are moving along the continuum from Learner to Activist, the Learner piece is never left behind; you take it with you as you move. As society evolves and changes, so to do the issues, so learning is an essential piece of the other three identities.

While students have engaged in Ally behaviors, they should be encouraged to be more active with this part of their identities including engaging in rallies, displaying their allegiance, or lending personal support to those impacted by social justice issues. Engaging more actively in Ally behaviors can help students build the level of comfort with their relationships to social justice issues that are necessary to develop Advocate and Activist identities; however, some students have expressed that they cannot be open in their current communities so the program will need to address these issues of safety and comfort in their new identities.

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Leadership Certificate and Mentor Program in the School of Pharmacy based on a university's Leadership Framework

Abstract

This poster will summarize the findings of the initial year of the Leadership Certificate and Mentor Program through the School of Pharmacy based on the university's Leadership Framework. The program includes 30 pharmacy doctoral students paired with 30 practicing pharmacy mentors. The objective is to develop leadership skills amongst these students and the results from the students' surveys will be highlighted.

Introduction

Due to the need for leaders in the healthcare profession, this unique leadership program which incorporates didactic as well as 1-on-1 mentorship components was developed within the School of Pharmacy in partnership with the Center for Leadership & Involvement. Poster session attendees will gain an understanding of a leadership program gear towards future healthcare professionals and the early results of the program.

There is discussion amongst professional pharmacy organizations of the potential for a looming pharmacy leadership crisis.[1] Pharmacy practice leaders continue to report challenges in filling leadership vacancies, with 83% of vacant leadership positions reported unfilled within a two-month period.[2] Furthermore, an estimated 75% of pharmacy directors will likely retire in the following decade, with only half of pharmacy managers having developed a formalized succession plan for their leadership position.[3] Despite the increase in pharmacy graduates, pharmacy leaders identify difficulties finding interested candidates with appropriate leadership experience.[2] To help close this leadership gap in pharmacy practice, schools of pharmacy are uniquely positioned to develop innovative, co-curricular leadership training programs to better prepare students as pharmacy leaders and agents for positive change within the profession.[4]

In 2008, the AACP Argus Committee challenged Schools of Pharmacy to develop curricula focused on leadership development through didactic, experiential, and co-curricular innovation.[5] The 2016 ACPE Standards further promote the need for integration of leadership development within pharmacy school curricula. Special emphasis is placed on development of essential skills within ACPE Standard 4, which highlights the need for increased student self-awareness, leadership, innovation, entrepreneurship, and professionalism.[6] According to Somerset (2001), essential skills, also referred to as "soft skills", are a combination of "cognitive, emotional, social, and physical skills."[7] Essential skills are responsible for 40% of corporate productivity, and are among the most valued attributes to health system pharmacy leaders.[3] It is estimated that 80% of career success is attributed to one's ability to interact with others, which can be learned, while just 20% of success is based on technical ability.[8]

Schools of pharmacy are uniquely positioned to help fill the leadership void. However, it may be unclear which leadership concepts should be emphasized for student learning. The utilization of leadership frameworks may be beneficial for Schools of Pharmacy to design, integrate, and assess desired leadership components within co-curricular leadership programming. There are a wide range of research-based frameworks for leadership qualities and practices in educational and professional settings that can be adapted to the needs of School of Pharmacy programs. The

Collaborative Leadership Model, LeaderShape, Situational Leadership, and the Social Change Model represent a few of the many leadership frameworks described in the literature.[9–12] The integration of leadership frameworks as a foundation for conceptual design of leadership programming is one approach to design and assess co-curricular leadership programs within PharmD programs.[13]

This evaluation details both integration and assessment of its institution specific Leadership Framework, within a co-curricular leadership program emphasizing student development of essential skills (see table 1). The framework provides a theoretical foundation and illustrates the core components of a co-curricular leadership development program offered to students at this institution. The Leadership Framework focuses on student development of essential skills and is based on a multitude of validated leadership models, including the Social Change Model.[14] Like the Leadership Framework, the Social Change Model emphasizes a nonhierarchical approach to leadership and a central belief that everyone has inherent leadership capacity that can be cultivated.[12] Leadership, both through the Social Change Model and Leadership Framework, is viewed as a collaborative process focused on change of the individual, group, and community.[12,14] It is through direct application of these central beliefs that essential skills are developed.[12,14]

The Leadership Framework was created in response to meetings with more than 200 institutional campus stakeholders in 2011-2012. A student affairs department coordinated meetings with students, faculty, and staff across multiple schools, colleges and divisions. Given the overwhelming interest of leadership education stakeholders, the Office of the Provost, Division of Student Life and Office of Human Resources sponsored an organized effort to generate a campus-wide shared understanding of leadership. The effort resulted in the Leadership Framework, which represents the evolving leadership research and the unique context of the university. Although the Leadership Framework is unique to the university, it can serve as a template for pharmacy student development of essential skills that could be expanded to schools of pharmacy across the country.

The Leadership Framework is founded on the principles that leadership is an action-oriented endeavor not based on position or level of authority, that context matters – each situation requires unique engagement, and that the act of leadership is understood as the phenomenon of positive change in an individual, group, or community's beliefs, values, or behaviors. The Leadership Framework components include three values and seven competencies, with specific emphasis on how these components intersect to generate observable leadership outcomes. The leadership values represent a set of cultural beliefs or ideals that are consistent with the universities' history and mission and support the work of leadership development.[15] Leadership competencies within the framework encompass unique skills, abilities, and knowledge sets that can be taught or developed. All competencies can be observed and measured. Specific values and competencies, as well as their definitions, are summarized in Table 1.

Background

The Leadership Framework serves as the foundation for the Pharmacy Leadership Certificate and Mentor (LCM) Program at the School of Pharmacy. The Pharmacy LCM Program is part of a campus-wide Leadership Certificate Program at the university that integrates intentional reflection, co-curricular involvement hours, and mentorship to facilitate student growth within key leadership framework components.[14] Doctor of Pharmacy students enrolled in the pharmacy LCM Program complete pharmacy-specific didactic, co-curricular, and mentorship components based on the Leadership Framework directly to pharmacy practice. The program spans students' first through fourth years of the Doctor of Pharmacy program, with the intent of strengthening student understanding and application of the values and competencies of the Leadership Framework in their personal lives and professional pharmacy experiences.

As a component of the Pharmacy LCM Program students are assigned a practicing pharmacist mentor to apply the Leadership Framework directly to the pharmacy profession.[14] During mentor meetings, students reflect with a practicing pharmacist to further their understanding of how leadership framework competencies and values relate to pharmacy practice. Pharmacist mentors who volunteered to participate in the program are recognized as individuals who exemplify the leadership competencies and values of the Leadership Framework, and who can help facilitate student exploration of how leadership can positively affect their future practice.
In order to participate in the School of Pharmacy Leadership and Mentor Program, P1 students (first year Pharmacy Students) were invited to complete and submit an application to the LCM Program. Self-selecting students completed the application after learning about the program during a required didactic course focused on leadership and management principles. The program application was a questionnaire including questions designed to identify 1) specific competencies and values students hoped to improve upon as well as 2) perceived importance of the Leadership Framework competencies and values. The application included ten questions in total covering a broad range of topics, with five questions emphasizing leadership application, one question assessing mentorship, three questions focused on career information, and one question to collect basic demographic and contact information.

An additional free response prompt was included within the application for students to add additional considerations for the applicant reviewer in considering a pharmacist to serve as a student mentor in the Pharmacy LCM Program. Mentor-mentee match pairs were primarily determined based on alignment of career goals, with career-oriented questions designed to determine student practice areas of interest and tentative plans post-graduation. Students selected their top three practice areas of interest, selecting from a list with opportunities for open response for further clarification. Students then ranked from zero to 10 how certain they were of planning to pursue their ranked pathway, with zero being not at all sure and 10 being extremely sure. Students indicated their tentative plans immediately following graduation through indicating options of pursuing employment, postgraduate training, or unsure at this time. If students selected the postgraduate option, a drop-down menu appeared from which students could choose between common postgraduate training options such as fellowship and residency.

Pharmacy leaders practicing in the state were recruited to serve as mentors for students participating in the LCM program. The names of potential pharmacist mentors were obtained using a snowball sampling method targeting a variety of pharmacy career pathways, including hospital, ambulatory care, managed care, and community pharmacy practice. Pharmacist mentor

recruitment applications were sent to pharmacist mentors in April 2017, with a deadline or completion by May 1st, 2017. The pharmacist mentor application included eight questions in total, and the format and wording of these questions mirrored that of the student survey emphasizing career information, leadership, mentorship, and demographic information. The application included two questions each dedicated to career and leadership-based information, mentorship, and demographic data.

Career-focused questions were designed to identify practice areas for pharmacist mentors as well as previous postgraduate training. One leadership question was free response and explored leadership application in pharmacy practice, while a second leadership question asked mentors to rate the importance of the Leadership Framework competencies and values as indicators of leadership. The latter question was presented and measured identical to the student application using a five-point Likert scale ranging from extremely important (5) to not at all important (0). Mentorship questions were designed to determine pharmacist rationale serving as a mentor to pharmacy students, as well as how mentorship has personally impacted the pharmacist mentors' career. As with the student application, mentors were asked to complete one free response question regarding demographic information and were given the option to express additional information to be considered during the mentor-mentee match process.

Description of Program/Methodology

Of the 149 eligible students in the first year Doctor of Pharmacy class, 34 students completed a program application. Two students were removed from the program due to conflicts. The data represent the results for 32 students enrolled in the program. A total of 62 pharmacist mentors were contacted and asked to participate in the program. A total of 34 pharmacists expressed interest to serve as mentors. Two of the 34 mentors were removed from the data set corresponding to the two students who were removed of the program.

As a result of participation in the LCM, students will be able to 1) Engage in leadership opportunities with the purpose of creating positive change 2) Develop and communicate a plan of action on how they will apply leadership skills in the future 3) Apply leadership skills learned to a variety of settings and experiences 4) Reflect on leadership-related strengths and areas for improvement.

In addition to the mentorship component of the program, students are asked to complete one-hundred hours total in three involvement requirements (organizational/group leadership, civic engagement, trainings and workshops), three on-line learning modules-which each accompany a one-page reflection papers, a two-thousand word competency essay and a leadership for change capstone two-thousand word paper or twenty minute presentation. Students also have to receive a letter grade of a B or better in two required courses; S & A 414, Managing Pharmacy Systems for Patient Care and S & A 515, Managing Pharmacy Systems for Patient Care, which has the language and content of the Leadership Framework woven into the curriculum.

Student participants in the LCM are required to meet with their mentor three times, once per semester for three consecutive semesters. Student participants are required to do three assessments, one each fall semester for three years, 1) a baseline assessment 2) a midpoint assessment 3) final assessment. All assessments include questions to evaluate student

participant's self-efficacy**;** personal accountability for ones decisions and the decision-making process. However, the mid-point and final assessment also include questions that ask students to rate their growth in relationship to the Leadership Framework competencies and values (see table 4). Both mentees and mentors are required to fill out a questionnaire after each mentoring session. Student participants are also asked to attend a debriefing session each semester which asks the following questions: 1) What did you learn at your last mentor meeting? 2) Why does this matter to you? 3) What change will you make moving forward?.

Data from the first and second mentee and mentor questionnaires will be shared on the poster, both mentees and mentors are asked to reflect on which leadership competency and which leadership value was explored most during their mentoring session (see table 6 & table 7). The questionnaires were created using Qualtrics survey software.

Conclusions/Recommendations

The findings thus far suggest that a broad spectrum of leadership competencies and values should be introduced and built-upon within pharmacy leadership curricula. Consequently, it may be considered that leadership programs with a narrow scope of leadership competencies and values risk excluding key leadership principles valued by both students and practicing pharmacists alike. A challenge for Schools of Pharmacy will be to develop leadership programming that is broad enough in scope to address a wide breadth of valuable leadership concepts, but also able to operate within the constraints of institutional resources.

The Leadership Framework can be considered a framework not only for the Pharmacy LCM Program in the School of Pharmacy, but as a template for developing novel leadership programming at other schools of pharmacy working to develop leadership programs specific to their institution. The concept of using leadership theory as a guide for framework development provides unique opportunities to tailor leadership concepts to the pharmacy profession, and develop well-structured longitudinal leadership programs.

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Current Results

Table 1: The Leadership Framework Competencies and Values

VALUES	
INTEGRITY	Transparency and truth are central touchstones for integrity. We aim for transparency of information and processes, because we believe openness and accessibility facilitate trust, particularly when there are diverse and divergent perspectives on an issue. We hold ourselves accountable to reach decisions through an ethical process and accept responsibility for acting in the interest of all stakeholders.
INCLUSIVE ENGAGEMENT	The heart of leadership is the art of inspiring active, informed engagement, and decision-making in the pursuit of the common good. Inclusive Engagement is the process by which we strive to seek and value the input of all, thereby realizing the benefit of the breadth of intelligence among us. At its core, Inclusive Engagement values the crucial knowledge, experiences, and contributions of us all.
CONNECTION AND COMMUNITY	Leadership requires working with communities rather than working on communities by identifying, aligning, and pursuing goals that are mutually beneficial for all people impacted. With humility, we seek to foster active partnerships rather than imposing solutions.
COMPETENCIES	
SELF-AWARENESS	Consistently self-reflecting in order to reveal strengths, limitations, beliefs, values, and attitudes that generate engagement; Committing to personal development in order to provide greater understanding of multiple identities and experiences that affect the ability to facilitate change
INTERPERSONAL COMMUNICATION	Developing essential relationships through listening, considering, and responding to the needs of individuals and the situation; Having the ability to communicate in tactful, compassionate, and sensitive ways to enable these relationships to evolve
SUPPORTING LEARNING AND DEVELOPMENT OF OTHERS	Developing the capacity and engagement of individuals and groups through feedback and coaching
HONORING CONTEXT AND CULTURE	Seeking to understand the organization, culture, system, politics, and dynamics, and their influence on actions needed to achieve the group's goals
DECISION-MAKING	Arriving at decisions that impact others and the organization in which the decisions are made; Employing critical and strategic thinking to enable creative solutions to be considered and pursued; Recognizing that with important systemic dimensions, analysis and ideas from multiple sources give way to implementation and evaluation

FOSTERING BRIDGE-BUILDING AND COLLABORATION	Through cooperative participation, encouraging everyone to take ownership of the work that is being done and the outcomes that are created; Creating an environment where differences are appreciated, knowing that conflict can serve to expose new solutions to complex problems
MOVING IDEAS INTO ACTION	Offering a compelling vision that inspires groups to engage in the ambiguous transformation process; Being aware that co-creation processes focused on common goals require steady, yet flexible, interventions based on evaluation and the needs of the group.

Table 1: Leadership competencies and values incorporated within Leadership Framework are copyright as of 2017 by the Board of Regents of the University System. This framework serves as a foundation for the School of Pharmacy Leadership Certificate and Mentor Program. Leadership Certificate applicants are asked to reflect on what they have learned through their various leadership activities, then be able to articulate their strengths and areas of growth within the competencies and values associated with the Leadership Framework. In addition, applicants create an action plan on how they will continue to live the principles of the Leadership Framework once they leave the university.

Figure 1: Process for P1 student and pharmacist mentor recruitment

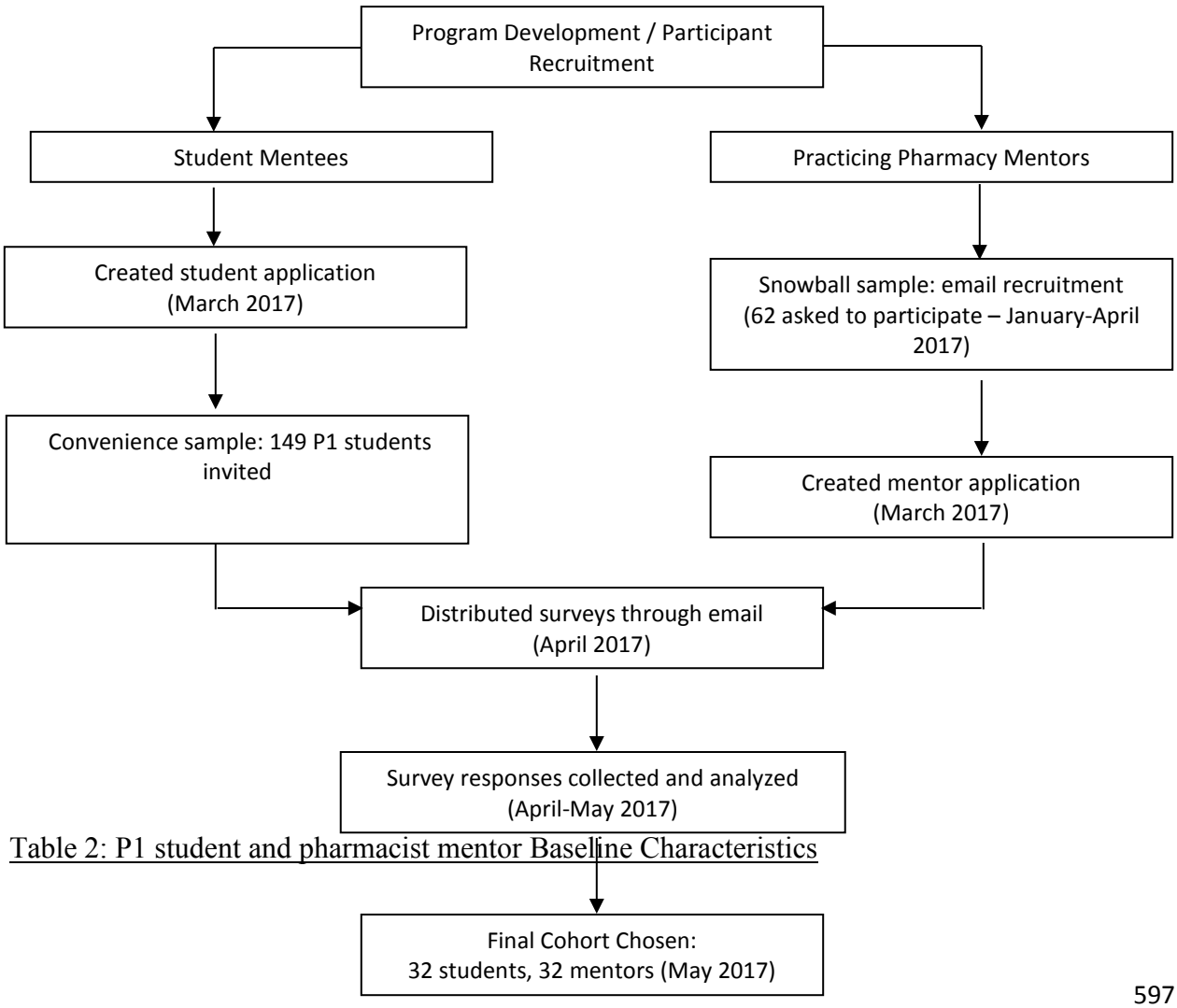


Table 2: P1 student and pharmacist mentor Baseline Characteristics

Characteristic		P1 Student	Pharmacist
Gender	Female	23 (72%)	13 (41%)
	Male	9 (28%)	19 (59%)
Post-Graduate Training[A,B]	None (employment in pharmacy practice)	9 (25%)	14 (33%)
	Residency or Fellowship	20 (55%)	18 (42%)
	Other Higher Education (graduate or doctoral degree)	1 (3%)	11 (26%)
	Unsure	6 (17%)	*Not an option for mentors*
Area of Practice[A,B]	Ambulatory Care	18 (20%)	12 (14%)
	Hospital Pharmacy	19 (21%)	16 (19%)
	Pharmacy Administration	9 (10%)	17 (20%)
	Global Health	9 (10%)	3 (4%)
	Rural Health	8 (9%)	4 (5%)
	Government	4 (4%)	5 (6%)
	Pharmaceutical Industry	6 (7%)	2 (2%)
	Managed Care	2 (2%)	5 (6%)
	Clinical/Translational Research	4 (4%)	3 (4%)
	Other	2 (2%)	2 (2%)

A= *For mentees, this is desired/anticipated, for mentors this is actual.*

B= *Both mentees and mentors could select more than one option.*

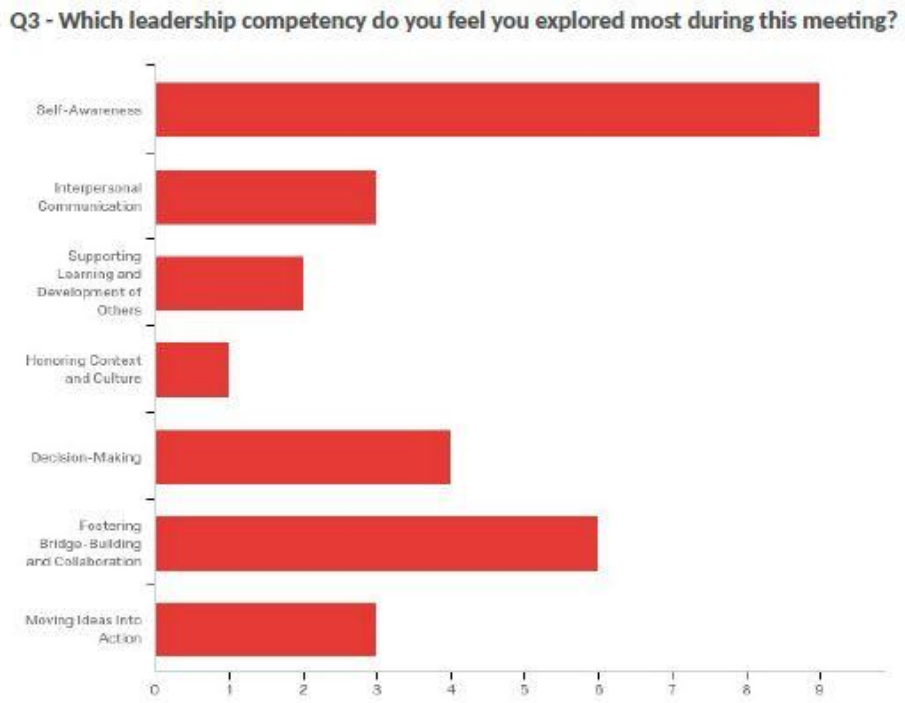
Table 3: Longitudinal Assessment Plan

DPH-2		**DPH-3**		**DPH-4**	
Fall	**Spring**	**Fall**	**Spring**	**Fall**	**Spring**
Mentee questionnaire #1	Mentee questionnaire #2	Mentee questionnaire #3	Mentee questionnaire #4		Review Final Outcomes*
	Mentee debrief #1	Mentee debrief #2	Mentee debrief #3		
Baseline (self-efficacy)		Midpoint (self-efficacy, rate your growth on competencies/values)		Final eval (self-efficacy, growth on competencies and values)	
Socially Responsible Leadership Scale					
	Mentor #1	Mentor #2	Mentor #3		

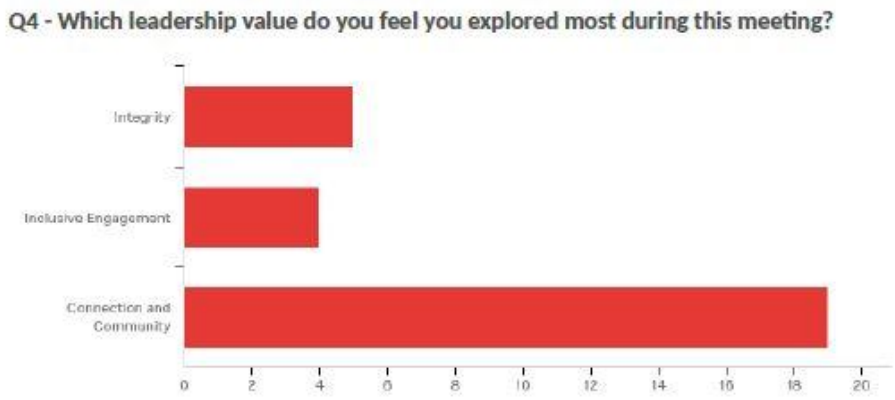
*Final Outcome

- % students that achieved certificate
- # involvement hours completed mapped to specific competency and value that it pertains to
- Grades from competency essay, leadership for change capstone, on-line learning module reflections

Table 4: Mentee Questionnaire #1



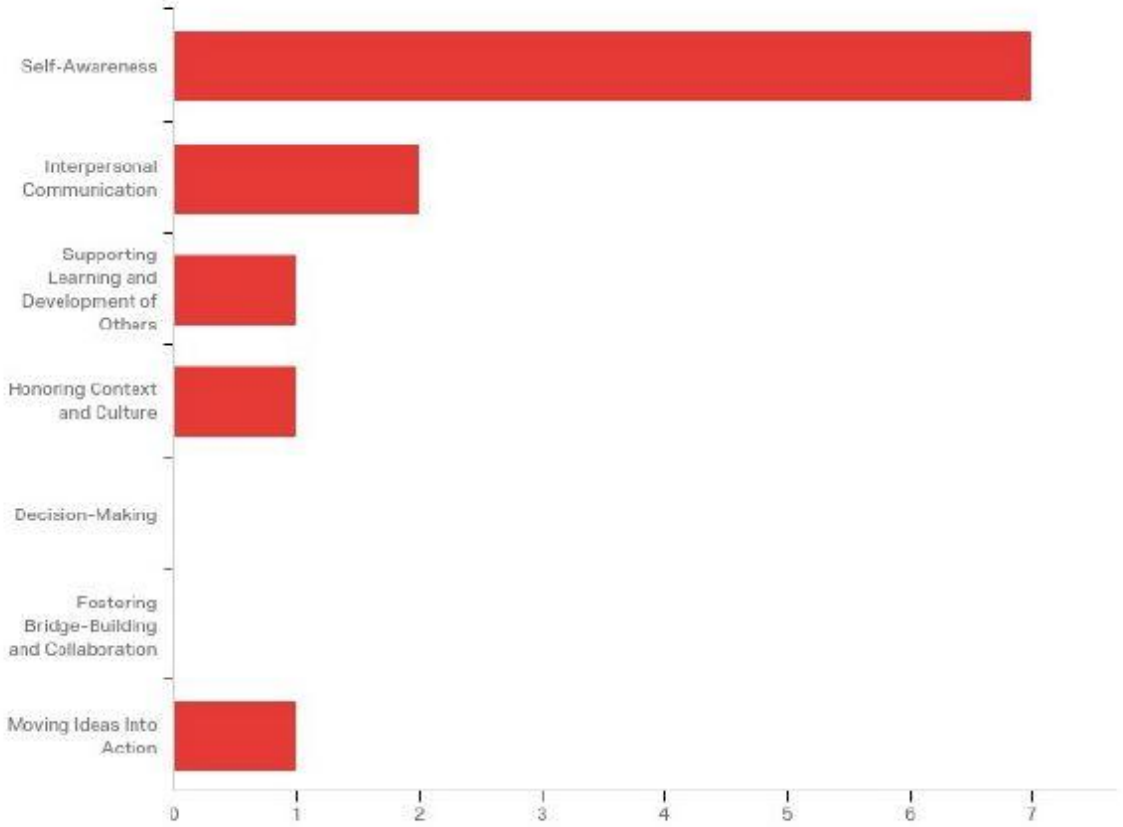
#	Answer	%	Count
1	Self-Awareness	32.14%	9
2	Interpersonal Communication	10.71%	3
3	Supporting Learning and Development of Others	7.14%	2
4	Honoring Context and Culture	3.57%	1
5	Decision-Making	14.29%	4
6	Fostering Bridge-Building and Collaboration	21.43%	6
7	Moving Ideas Into Action	10.71%	3
	Total	100%	28



#	Answer	%	Count
1	Integrity	17.86%	5
2	Inclusive Engagement	14.29%	4
3	Connection and Community	67.86%	19
	Total	100%	28

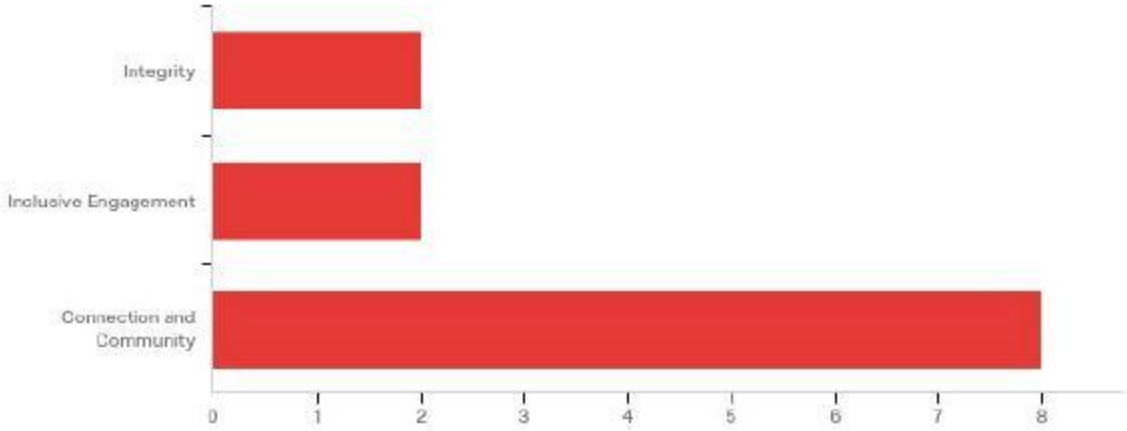
Table 7: Mentor Questionnaire #1

Q3 - Which leadership competency do you feel you explored most during this meeting?



#	Answer	%	Count
1	Self-Awareness	58.33%	7
2	Interpersonal Communication	16.67%	2
3	Supporting Learning and Development of Others	8.33%	1
4	Honoring Context and Culture	8.33%	1
5	Decision-Making	0.00%	0
6	Fostering Bridge-Building and Collaboration	0.00%	0
7	Moving Ideas Into Action	8.33%	1
	Total	100%	12

Q4 - Which leadership value do you feel you explored most during this meeting?



#	Answer	%	Count
1	Integrity	16.67%	2
2	Inclusive Engagement	16.67%	2
3	Connection and Community	66.67%	8
	Total	100%	12

Teaching Intersectional Social Justice at the Apex of Leadership

Abstract

Using literature as the catalyst for change is grounded in Freirean pedagogy. In the case of the [Program] leadership educators are crafting an environment for building transformative leadership skills using foundational social justice texts as starting point for capacity building and reflection. Students read the texts on their own, in conjunction with the workshop instruction, then discuss the texts in session. To extend their thinking, students have the opportunity to attend option reading circles where a formal lesson is prepared. However, the student driven discussions often move in directions that allow for other meaning making. Project co-directors have seen that the texts have energized students to act.

Introduction

The [Program] engages purposefully in the development of transformative leadership skills to effect positive change throughout program participants' lives. The networks that students create in this program - with leadership, justice, and equity change agents - will facilitate continued engagement in leading change after they complete the program.

At the heart of the program lies student leadership development. Furman (2012) creates a conceptual framework that engages learners in developing the capacities to be transformative leaders. The three prongs of that framework are: "*Praxis*, involving both reflection and action, *dimensions*, including the personal, interpersonal, communal, systemic, and ecological, and development of *capacities within each dimension* on the part of the leader for *both* reflection and action" (pg.191). The program texts are a catalyst for capacity building and reflection.

Background

"Transformative leadership begins with questions of justice and democracy; it critiques inequitable practices and offers the promise not only of greater individual achievement but of a better life lived in common with others," (Shields, 2010, pg. 559). Leaders who enact the behaviors of transformative leadership can enhance equity, justice, within their communities. Transformative leaders work to understand themselves and others while critically examining their own practices (Shields, 2004). Leadership is a process among and between people. Leaders then, must be concerned with the formation and perptuation of more just and equitable societies. The overlap of leadership and social justice work, then, is natural.

Educators should adopt a constructivist lens, where their goal is guiding knowledge construction through inquiry-based dialogue (Koballa & Glynn, 2007; Yuen & Hau, 2006). Nurenberg (2011) encourages educators to "draw on Freirean pedagogy, which encourages socially conscious educators to help make learning authentic and relevant by engaging students with curricula focused on issues of social injustice" (pg.50). Freire, 1970; Frey & Fisher, 2005; McLaughlin & DeVoogd, 2004 share (as cited in Harven & Soodina, 2016), "educators should assist students in deconstructing texts (e.g., books, movies, television programs, ads, songs, and spoken word) that have been written and developed by people from diverse communities for messages that reproduce and reject oppression and inequality" (p. 7).

Daniels (2002) references literature circles as part of a cooperative learning, student-led experience. Further stating that the goal of literature circles is to have natural and sophisticated discussions, Eeds & Wells (1989) share that circles show an increase in content comprehension, higher levels of thinking through the reading, and a deeper engagement with the text the students are reading (p. 557). Klages, Pate & Conforti (2007) share that the association required in literature circles shows an increase in motivation, influences social and communication skills, and allows students to gain critical understandings. As a method of developing meaning, understanding others and the systems the perpetuate oppression, The [Program] uses foundational social justice texts and literature circles to reinforce knowledge, extend thinking and reflection, and engage in the transformative leadership skills of questioning systems and motivation to make change.

Description of Program/Methodology

The [Program] provides students with an extensive reading list covering the spectrum of justice and equity issues that correspond with the topic under study each month. One text is used each month during the academic year. The books provide context and background for the issue under study. Students read and discuss the texts at the formal cohort meetings, but are then encouraged to extend their thinking by attending optional reading circles offered once a week.

The books used in the program are:

- Chimamanda Ngozi Adichie's *We Should All Be Feminists,* highlights the dangers of the single story that Adichie feels perpetuates a misleading narrative about feminism. This book was adapted from her TED talk.
- David Shipler's, *The Working Poor,* details case studies of people throughout the US specifically related to their work, and how their work is viewed within the larger society. Shipler delves into tenets of class struggles and poverty among those who work.
- Patricia H. Collins & Sirma Bilge's *Intersectionality,* further defines the concept of intersectionality and how the concept can be applicable across systems in our society.
- *Hope in the Dark: Untold Stories, Wild Possibilities,* by Rebecca Solnit, is an essay-based account for working for transformative change. This book reinforces the need for hope and understanding when undertaking the work of transformative leadership. The book was chosen to set the stage for the program.
- Michelle Alexander's, *The New Jim Crow,* is a foundation text in the area of racial justice. Alexander details the rise of the criminal justice and prison industrial complex from the foundation of slavery and Jim Crow laws. The author provides context for the disproportionate effect that the war on drugs has had on communities of color.
- *The Inconvenient Indian: A Curious Account of Native People in North America* by Thomas King is an account of history and present-day interactions of whites and "natives." This personal account of perception in Canada and in North America are rooted in the cultural context of race. King's book accounts for a different approach in understanding racism, ethnocentrism, and acceptance.
- *March* by John Lewis, Andrew Aydin and Nate Powell is a remarkable pictorial account of the life of Congressman John Lewis particularly focusing on his remarkable work in civil rights and politics. The 3-book series lays a timeline for the power of change. The books shows that grit and determination leads to change and activism for civil rights.

Program faculty decide on key themes from each text to emphasize during reading circles. Learning objectives emerge from these themes for each session. Faculty begin the reading circle sessions with a set of discussion prompts built from direct quotes from the books and the learning objectives; however, have agreed that reading circles should be student driven. Students come with their own questions and they often move the discussion in a different direction.

As an example, the lesson plan for *We Should All Be Feminists* includes two learning objectives: 1) Students will be able to compare and contrast ourselves to the definition of feminism established in the text, 2) Students will be able to critique the culture and practices of agriculture through a lens of feminism. In order to meet these objectives, the lesson plan establishes the following steps: 1) Provide the group with Adichie's definition of feminism on a large sheet of paper. Provide students with post-its and have them edit the definition. Discuss changes. 2) "Do you identify as a feminist? How has that changed over time for you? What does it mean to you? How does it relate to our definition of transformative leadership?" 3) Ask, "What messages does society send about how women should be? In general? In agriculture? How do those messages impact us?" 4) Ask, "What does Adichie suggest feminists can do? What can be done in agricultural contexts?" 5) No one's social justice work is perfect and it's essential that we learn to recognize problematic pieces and address them. What can you find in Adichie's work that is problematic? Where does it come from? What should be said/done?

Current Results

Students, overall, respond well to the texts. The size of the cohort (5) lends itself to greater accountability for completing the readings and preparation for discussions. Literature circles are regularly attended and provide an opportunity for students to follow the formal lesson extending their thinking, but also a time to engage in discussions about the texts with their peers. One student says, “Reading circles are a time to unpack the often heavy content that we’ve covered in our readings. I find them helpful because of the reflection that is encouraged and the conversation that takes place”. Another says, “Reading circles allow for us to reflect on and unpack what is learned in a one-on-one setting that allows for greater in-depth exploration of the material and our preconceived notions of the social justice issue.” Program faculty intend to continue the circles, planning both formal lessons, and allowing for informal discussions to take place organically in directions that make sense for the students in attendance.

Conclusions/Recommendations

Readings have become an integral piece of [Program]. Following the paradigm of transformative leadership which begins with questioning, students use the books to craft grounded questions about their communities and the world at large. These questions then, become the catalyst for action as the students embrace their roles as positive agents for change. From a student, “Reading circles spark something within me to change the world in which we live. Be it through frustration or excitement, I often leave reading circles wanting to take action to change the oppressive systems we just discussed.” A second student shares, “I always leave reading circles wanting to immediately go out and change the world. I am often both angered and energized by what I learn, and it leaves me wanting to go out and make a difference.”

Program directors recommend that faculty follow some specific practices for the use of non-fiction to teach intersectionality

1. Spend significant time preparing students for the text. This should be done in a formal way during class and in writing, in the syllabus. While in this case, the program is co-curricular, program directors still provide a syllabus that sets the students up for success. The syllabus provides direction for readings and a small introduction. Greater introductions are done during formal sessions. These introductions discuss the content of the book, walk through the theoretical foundations or premises, and in cases where the content might need a trigger warning, provides one.
2. Be prepared to debrief, not just at the end of the text reading but throughout. This can be done formally in class, and informally in reading circles or small group sessions. For this program, the small group, informal reading circles have been a successful addition to our instruction that has allowed for students to dig into the texts and have an opportunity to reflect and talk through them throughout their reading.
3. Help students see how the authors have missed some intersectional issues and addressed others. Ask students to examine the author's identities and how they have shaped the way the author sees and represents issues and stories.
4. Help students find supplemental readings by authors with different identities than the assigned authors. Have them examine how these authors represent issues differently.

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Implementation of a Competency-based Model as the Theoretical Framework for the Re-design of an Online Bachelor's of Arts in Organizational Leadership

Abstract

The purpose of this poster session is to share the process undergone by a university as they work to redesign courses three years after the initial launch of the online Bachelor of Arts in Organizational Leadership (BAOL) program, in order to align the program courses and outcomes with an underlying research-validated theoretical framework.

Introduction

History

The Division of Online and Professional Studies (OPS) at Unknown University (UU) began as a separate division within the university in the Fall of 2010. UU believes that each person has been created for a purpose (school motto is *Live Your Purpose*), and integrates academics with spiritual and social development opportunities. Graduates are challenged to become individuals whose skills, integrity and sense of purpose will distinguish them in the workplace and in society at-large. Further, the mission of OPS was to be more responsive to non-traditional students who are balancing professional and family responsibilities while advancing their education. Utilizing the latest technologies in distance education, and collaborating with faculty who were committed to student's academic, professional, and spiritual success was crucial for the new startup. Initial offerings included eight programs (seven bachelors, one masters) that had been delivered in a traditional face-to-face (f2f) medium as a degree completion program model serving approximately 500 students per semester. The initial faculty employed to teach in OPS consisted of five full-time professors and approximately 100 adjuncts, with most of the adjuncts consisting of traditional UU professors teaching in an overload capacity.

Current Status

As of 2017, OPS now offers 38 distinct degrees (22 bachelors, 14 masters, 2 doctorate), some with multiple concentrations. Most programs primarily utilize the asynchronous distance learning deliver medium, along with some hybrid offerings. OPS serves almost 4,000 students per semester and currently employs 57 full-time faculty with an adjunct pool of approximately 300 faculty.

Background

The Bachelor of Organizational Leadership program was launched to satisfy the need to provide current and future leaders, in all industries, with the skills that they need to effectively lead in their organizations.

> The purpose of the online Bachelor of Arts in Organizational Leadership degree program is to equip working professionals with highly sought after skills by employers. Exercising influence, complex problem solving, teamwork, critical thinking, sound judgment and decision making, communication, and conflict management are covered in courses which comprise a valuable and practical degree. Students in the program will also learn to excel and manage in the workplace while integrating ethical principles and integrity to

> strengthen the foundation of companies in both private and public sectors. (UU OPS 2018)

This program is unique because in addition to teaching leadership theory, it emphasizes ethical and spiritual leadership. With all the rapid growth the division has experienced, and with program developing and all course design been done in-house, faculty selected to build the courses did not always have either the appropriate aligning degrees in the subject-matter, and/or adequate time to detail the theoretical framework supporting the course(s) they were writing. Adding to this complexity, courses are accelerated eight-week format, and in addition to fulfilling WASC standards they require the inclusion of faith integration as part of the student work. This program was opened in in Spring of 2013.

In an ideal situation, a leadership program design follows a coherent, rational process that begins with the adoption of a theoretical underlying framework to align course content and outcomes. In reality, despite this rapid area of growth for many colleges and universities, there is a lack of uniform underlying infrastructure or theory model for the basis of leadership programs (Jones 2005). Further, due to a lack of underlying infrastructure which provides uniformity, programs need to be repeatedly revised and "fine-tuned" over time. Posner (2009) argues that there is not much known about the best approach for this. This university is not alone in facing this challenge, as there are an increasing number of leadership programs in universities and colleges in North America fueling dialogue to propose "clear processes, content, and designs for providing academic leadership education" (Diallo & Gerhardt, 2017 p. 92).

Description of Program/Methodology

Need for Competency-based Curriculum

The study of competencies was promoted by David Clelland's (1973) research, which asserted that testing an individual's competencies was a more effective predictor of job success than testing their intelligence. Today, many organizations, including for-profit, nonprofits, and public organizations have begun to rely on identifying competencies needed for workplace success (Burns, Smith, & Ulrich, 2012). Identifying needed competencies for leadership offers a theoretically grounded approach to leadership curriculum development. According to Seemiller (2018), by adopting competency-based model as an underlying infrastructure for the leadership program, it provides:

> -Consistency in the terms used to refer to specific competencies across the department and among the faculty. The same terms can be used from class to class.
> -Alignment with the use of competencies within the workplace and in professional expectations
> -Reduces ambiguity and facilitate measurement of student learning
> -Allows curriculum developers to make defensible choices

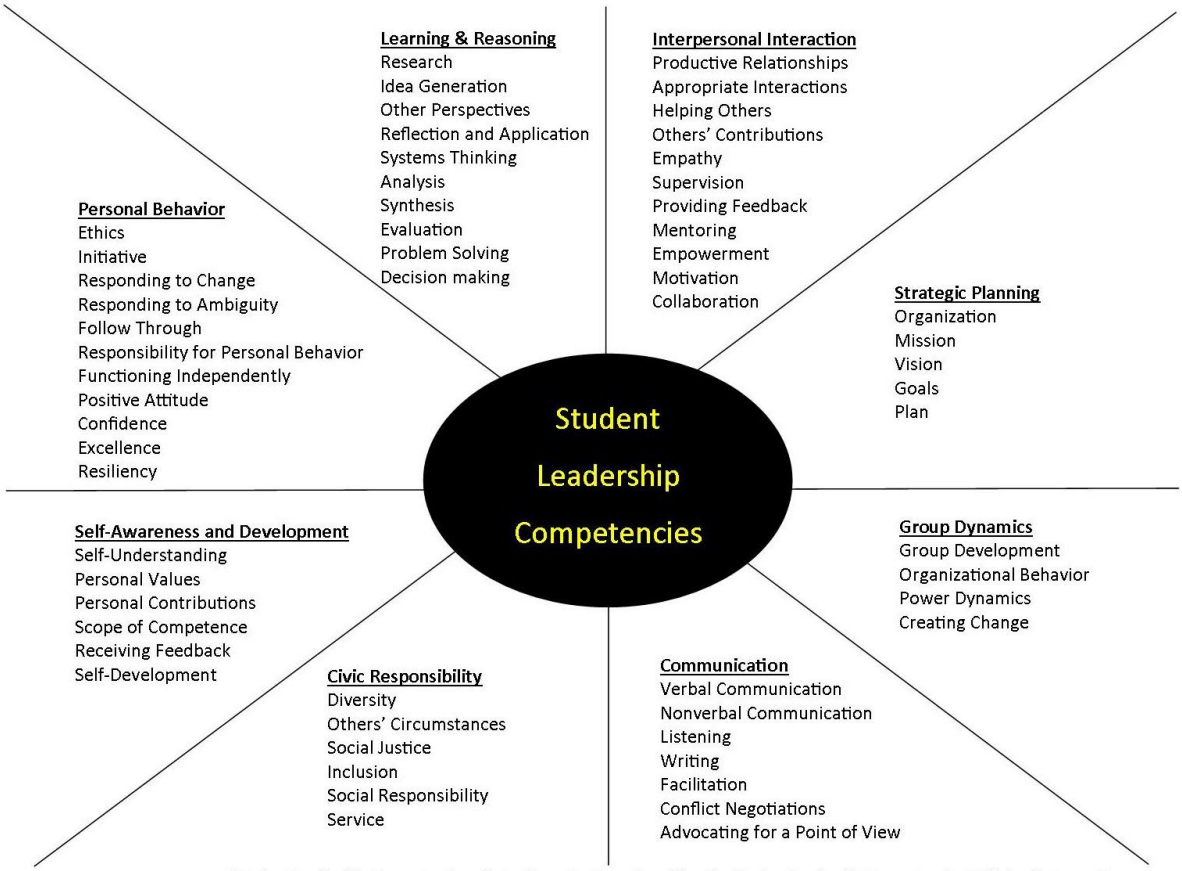
In short, by adapting a competency-based infrastructure for the Bachelor's in Organizational Leadership, it enhances the integrity of the program design, as well as better prepare students of the program for workplace success.

Theoretical Framework Selected for Program Design

While the need to establish and implement a theoretical framework to address alignment issues was readily apparent, the process of identifying a cogent unifying framework was an arduous journey with few apparent choices. Fortunately, the team was able to identify Dr. Corey Seemiller's (2014) The Student Leadership Competencies Guidebook (referred to as SLC). Designed to guide the intentional development of curriculum for leadership development programs, Seemiller's SLC thoroughly identifies and defines 60 Essential Leadership competencies for the 21st Century. These competencies were identified and developed by Seemiller after five years of research analyzing learning outcomes in over 500 accredited higher education academic programs (Seemiller & Cook, 2014). Through the use of Seemiller's model as the underlying infrastructure, along with our dedication to spiritual development, the BAOL program is able to more effectively prioritize curriculum content for accelerated courses, assess competency learning, and assist students with reflecting on their own learning in order to promote application of the competencies in real-world contexts.

Seemiller (2018) has provided a robust argument for the use of competencies in leadership education, noting the smooth transition to competency based education (p. 39). One of the real advantages of the use of competencies in online education is that it can help address the gaps found in students caused by diverse education and experiential backgrounds. Seemiller also posits that connecting specific leadership competencies to specific career paths can enhance career readiness (2018).

Figure 1. Student Leadership Competencies



*Student Leadership Competencies adapted from Dr. Corey Seemiller, The Student Leadership Competencies Guidebook, Jossey-Bass,

Current Results

Implementation of Theoretical Model in Course Redesign

Beginning in 2016, several of the BAOL courses had reached the time for their 3-year review, and by this time OPS had hired faculty with leadership specific doctoral degrees whom were better suited for writing the courses. It was determined that as part of the review, the courses needed to be aligned using a research validated theoretical framework to underpin and connect their content and outcomes. Reliance on a practical leadership model, such as Seemillers' also helps ensure that the leadership curriculum is relevant for leaders to succeed in the workplace. The Associate Vice President of Academics and the Program Lead worked together to research possible theoretical models and selected the Seemiller Leadership Competencies model (2013). The decision was based on the comprehensive nature of the skills included, and that they could be applied to leadership roles regardless of the industry.

In addition to the real-world relevance of Seemillers' model, the inclusion of Seemillers' Student Leadership Competencies systematically informs the course outcomes for each of the BAOL courses, which in turn supports the opportunity to more specifically assess student learning at a program level. This data will demonstrate how students perceive each of the courses have

changed their perceived skills in each of the identified leadership dimensions. Additionally, the data that will be collected from the use of the SLC, will provide insight into the students' level of understanding of their growth in these areas, as well as providing information to inform both the program student outcomes and the course student outcomes. By focusing on the outcomes, we can ensure that student-learning is centered on enhancing critical leadership skills needed for effective leadership in the real-world.

Thus far, two courses have been re-written to align to this new format which includes the Student Leadership Competencies. The first of these was taught in Spring, 2018. Two more are currently under revision using this new alignment model. The goal is to complete the revision of the entire program by Spring, 2019. Metrics of the course design process continue to be collected as refinements continue, and will inform the revision of the other courses moving forward.

Adaptations Made

The process of aligning the courses with the Leadership Competencies was a recursive and iterative process. The first attempt was made to align and include each of the competencies in an exclusive category into specific courses. Implementation of this strategy quickly became problematic, as there was a wide disparity in the number of competency areas in each category, ranging from a low of four competencies, to a high of eleven competencies. After several attempts to integrate the competencies into the courses along with the other instructional materials, it became apparent that in the cases of categories with a high number of topics, it was too much and would result in reducing the degree of coherence and the amount of mastery in an eight-week course.

The second attempt was to "match" the individual leadership competencies to the course overview and learning objectives. This strategy became quite chaotic due to the number of competencies, and also had the potential effect of diminishing the coherence in the overall competency structure for the students.

Finally, to provide the maximum impact for students, it was determined that the best route going forward was to limit the number of weekly themes, ranging between seven to eight competencies. In some cases closely-related competencies were combined, in other cases limiting the competencies to those we determine to be most relevant to the students and their future work positions. The record of this process is summarized in Appendix 1.

Implementation Challenges

Including the Student Leadership Competencies in the courses has challenged the course designers/lead faculty to test the essential components they should focus on in the 8-week accelerated online courses. However, having clarity on the underlying theoretical model that aligns with course objectives has provided guidance and greater discernment in making the selection of what is to be included, and that the key course concepts are relevant to real-world organizational challenges being faced by leaders in the 21st century.

Discussion of Anticipated Outcomes

As assessment result data becomes available, there will be insights on further refinements and course mapping of the program. These findings can then be applied to the Masters in Organizational Leadership program as well, which supports the development of leaders at a more advanced level.

This project will strengthen and lend credibility to the leadership program at the school in the following ways: 1) the inclusion of a theoretical framework will ensure there is consistent alignment between and among the courses, 2) the focus of each course will be more clear and directly aligned with real-world leadership issues, and 3) further the inclusion of the SLC will allow for assessment using a validated instrument, and 3) inform the use and revision of the Program Student Outcomes and the Course Learning Outcomes. The Bachelors in Organizational Leadership offered by UU-OPS is designed for current leaders, aspiring leaders, and practitioners in all types of organizations and industries; incorporating the comprehensive scope of the Student Leadership Competencies into the curriculum will help better prepare leaders for success in a variety of fields.

Conclusions/Recommendations

Effective course design requires attention to a number of strategies, which foremost are rigor and relevance. Students value learning more when it is connected in concrete ways to the work world. They also know that while "Cs get degrees", differentiating themselves through academic excellence can make a difference when they are looking for promotion or a new position.

Program and course development is a complex and engrossing task, fraught with value judgements. Decisions made during this process have long-lasting repercussions and can shape university programs for years to come. For these reasons, it is important for online startup organizations to consider the following recommendations:

1) Review the existing theoretical frameworks in the subject matter area, this will provide options as you move forward with course development.
2) Review other university course offerings in programs similar to yours. This form of "benchmarking" will provide insight into what is being offered, and allow you to frame the conversation you have with your course developers.
3) Carefully select faculty who will author the courses, paying specific attention to the educational background and professional experience they bring to the table.
4) Start with the end in mind - use the theoretical framework to guide your development of program outcomes.

This process has challenged each of the participants to deeply engage with their values and understanding of the significant components of quality leadership. In providing a coherent, sequential, data based set of competencies to guide program design, course design, and student activities; we will be able to more accurately assess the impact of the program on the future leadership of our students.

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The Development of Healthy Behaviors through Intentional Leadership Learning Initiatives

Abstract

Young leaders are falling short of acquiring healthy behaviors, consequently preventing them from achieving optimal health. Suboptimal health impacts crucial leadership competencies such as critical thinking, decision-making, creativity, and emotional intelligence. As leaders are often short on time, servant leadership-focused, and often selfless, prioritizing themselves and their health is often minimal at best (Bruce, 2016). Bridging the gap between leadership and health is an essential concern to address as we progress our understanding of leadership and the field of leadership learning. A learning intervention is proposed that encompasses three determinants of health and leadership: The physical environment, the social environment, and oneself, in reference to individual characteristics and behaviors. Implications for this study include enhanced critical thinking, healthier people entering the workforce, and enhanced productivity at work.

Introduction

Leadership is often focused on assisting others achieve and realize goals. However, when leaders do in fact focus on themselves, time is seldom given to thinking about individual health and healthy living practices. One aspect of personal excellence that leaders ironically are most likely to struggle with is their personal health. As the workload increases, the self-care of leaders is often the first to be demoted to other more immediate priorities, which is inescapably unsustainable over a long period of time. This holds true across organizations, industries, and leadership roles at every level. Managing personal health is a key component of being an effective human and a successful leader (Harlan, 2017). It can be argued that putting work above self-care has good intention—a willingness to put forth our best effort and accomplish the maximum amount of good possible. Leaders can actually be very effective working this way in the short run. However, the problem arises when leaders consistently priority their work and achievement above health and wellness, creating a downward spiral of deteriorating health habits that have no long-term sustainable implications. Therefore, we find ourselves in a leadership state deprived of concern for health.

Among undergraduate students in particular, young aspiring leaders are falling short of acquiring healthy behaviors, consequently preventing them from achieving optimal health. Suboptimal health can negatively impact our neuroplasticity, critical thinking ability, creativity, cognition, and emotional intelligence (Martynoga, 2016). Bridging the gap between leadership and health is an intricate and essential concern to address as we progress our understanding of leadership and the field of leadership learning.

Numerous factors intermix to influence the health of individuals and communities. According to the World Health Organization (WHO), there are three major determinants of health: The social and economic environment, the physical environment, and the person's individual characteristics and behaviors (World Health Organization [WHO], 2018). The context of an individual's life, such as his/her circumstances and environment, largely determines his/her health. Achieving

health is a complex and integral matter for every individual and community. Being healthy is the underlying experience of one's own ability to be; it is the all-important capacity to enter into communicative exchange and to be open towards oneself and others (Flatscher & Liem, 2011). Contrariwise, to be ill is to have an imbalanced relationship with oneself and one's surrounding environment. Achieving health is determined not solely by objective quantifiable values but by the combination of the individual's internal agreement and the context surrounding the individual (Flatscher & Liem, 2011).

By looking at health from this perspective, several connections emerge between health and leadership. According to the Center for Leadership Learning at the University of California, Davis, leadership can only occur when three components are fully functioning together: The context of one's life such as his/her environment or community, other members in his/her life, and oneself (UC Davis, 2014). In reference to the WHO's major determinants of health, there is a direct correlation between healthy behaviors and effective leadership. Combined together, these create three overlapping determinants of health and leadership: The physical environment, the social environment, and oneself, in reference to his/her individual characteristics and behaviors. Understanding that leadership and health are both developed within alike spheres of influence paves the way for leadership learning to contribute to healthy behaviors.

Background

There are several benefits to being healthy in the context of leadership and lifestyle. Among these benefits are mentioned higher energy, higher performance, a greater sense of well-being, the ability to handle stress better, and overall more effective leadership (Coyne, 2016).
As a leader, neuroplasticity of your brain is part of your job (McLeod, 2009). Brain health is determined by how often someone regularly exercises which gets more oxygen to the brain, as well as nourishing the body with proper nutrients and at least 7 hours of sleep a night (Eugene & Masiak, 2015). The fact that our brain has the ability to change and rewire itself is so reassuring for leadership. We can continually learn throughout life just by practicing a healthy lifestyle.

Another key aspect of health in leadership is the ability to handle stress. Practicing mindfulness and attitude change to healthily regulate our hormones in order to better handle stress is crucial in healthy leaders (Coyne, 2016). Being in a high-stress mode completely disables us from operating as effective leaders because our brain shuts down our prefrontal cortex, the area in which we do all of our best thinking and planning. This reinforces the importance of sustainable healthy behaviors in leaders, considering their effectiveness as leaders relies on their ability to healthily handle stress. A third key aspect of health in leadership is the importance of consciously choosing our thoughts and behavior in order to create more sustainable leaders. Sometimes our hardwired beliefs become outdated and hold us back (Coyne, 2016). By choosing to bring these limiting beliefs to conscious awareness, we can identify a more empowering new set of beliefs that will provide desired outcomes. All three of these key aspects bolster the notion that developing healthy behaviors in leadership learners is crucial to sustainable leadership and should be prioritized in the field of leadership education.

There are related concepts that play a key role within the three previously mentioned overlapping determinants, or spheres, of health and leadership: Perfectionism, behavioral economics, and

barriers to change. Psychologist Alfred Adler maintains that the overriding motivation in most people is a longing for completeness, or perfection. He suggests that individuals develop themselves through four elements: Schemas of apperception or one's personal view of the world, self-concept, self-ideal, and one's relationship with the environment (Adler, 1956). People develop their own concept of self, people, and the environment, which surrounds them in their own personal and unique way on their quest for perfection. If the great force underlying our motivation as individuals is a striving for perfection, this is tied to all areas of oneself: Cognitive, emotional, spiritual, and physical well-being within our physical environment, social environment, and individual characteristics and behaviors. Behavioral economics explores why people sometimes make irrational decisions as a result of being emotional and easily distracted (Momoh, 2003). Nudge theory is a supposition within behavioral economics that uses indirect suggestions and positive reinforcement in order to shape incentives, motives, and decisions of individuals and groups (Johnson et al., 2012). Individuals' behaviors are subject to cognitive bias, emotions, and social influences within their physical environment, social environment, and individual sphere. There are also psychological barriers that prevent people from changing: Perception, conformity and commitment, homeostasis, and personality factors (Zaltman & Duncan, 1977). Perfectionism, behavioral economics, and barriers to change synthesize a nuanced system of influence over an individual within their physical environment, social environment, and individual sphere. Healthy behaviors are thus grounded in understanding the relationships of these influencers.

Description of Program, Research, or Methodology

Both health and leadership are determined when working from a perspective that relates to experience, which is highly individual (Flatscher & Liem, 2011). Thus, an experiential learning intervention is needed that combines these influencers and effectively promotes healthy behaviors in the learners. Using an undergraduate leadership course *(n=45*), participants will undergo a hands-on learning experience that encompasses the determinants, or spheres, of health and leadership: The physical environment, the social environment, and oneself, in reference to his/her individual characteristics and behaviors. Each sphere will uniquely address the three levels of influence: Perfectionism, behavioral economics, and barriers to change. The learning intervention will include specific and formalized steps within each sphere and level of influence that incorporates individual reflection in addition to elements of communities of practice, as learning does not belong to individual persons, but to the various conversations of which they are a part (Smith, 2003). While the sample for this study is limited to all students enrolled in the undergraduate leadership course, the population is all undergraduate leadership learners.

The impact of the intervention on the learners will be measured using a quasi-experimental explanatory mixed methods design (QUAN + qual). Because the researcher must use an already assembled group and cannot randomly assign subjects to experimental treatments for the study, the quasi-experimental design approach was chosen because it best fulfills the needs of the proposal. This approach will consist of a quantitative pre-post-post design and qualitative written reflections completed biweekly by the participants throughout the learning intervention as supplemental data. The pretest will be a survey designed to gauge the current healthy behaviors of students. The posttest and second posttest will be identical surveys that will measure the intentions of the students upon receiving the treatment, which is the learning intervention. The

second posttest will be conducted after three months to measure the sustainable impact of the intervention and the lasting intentions of the students with respect to the treatment. Using an undergraduate leadership course as the population (*n=45*), the researcher will administer a pretest survey at the beginning of the course. The pretest survey will consist of multiple choice demographic questions, five-point Likert scale questions, and free response questions. At the end of the course, a posttest survey will be administered to the population. The posttest will include a series of five-point Likert scale questions and free response questions. There are a number of potential implications for this study: Enhanced critical thinking, healthier people entering the workforce, and enhanced productivity at work are among a few.

Current Results

Pilot studies are currently in progress, however preliminary findings suggest that leaders focused on supporting others and are involved in multiple leadership roles across campus struggle with creating and keeping space and time focused on self-health practices, that also contributes to stress levels.

Recommendations

Up to this point, we have failed to make connections between health and leadership in a way that causes significant behavior change in leadership learners. This is due to a number of influencers that prevent leaders from developing sustainable healthy behaviors: The physical environment, the social environment, and oneself, in reference to his/her individual characteristics and behaviors. These influencers overlap and enable one another. In order to overcome these barriers, we must relook leadership priorities and rewire our thinking in regard to the health of a leader. Through intentional leadership learning initiatives, specifically a learning intervention, we can move from the mechanistic view of leadership to a vision that aligns with developing healthy behaviors through leadership learning practices. If we are to shift to a healthier view of leadership or develop healthier leaders, we must rethink our collective brain outside of the current view of leaders. American Author and public speaker in the area of future studies, John Naisbitt, said, “The most exciting breakthroughs of the twenty-first century will not occur because of technology, but because of an expanding concept of what it means to be human.” We must learn to see organizations and its leaders as living, human systems that do not function in isolation, but rather multiple, overlapping sources of influence.

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Undergraduate Leadership Student's Perspectives on Experiential Learning in Leadership

Abstract

Leadership education faces critics that suggest we are not developing leaders. This qualitative study explores student's perceptions of experiential learning in a leadership course to determine the impact it is having on developing their leadership skills. The study finds that experiential learning is having a positive impact in the development of their skills, contrary to the discipline's critic's beliefs.

Introduction

Rowland (2016) suggests the current methods used to develop leaders is antithetical to the type of leadership we need, and while current leadership programs have been effective at conveying knowledge and information, they have fallen short of developing leaders. This study suggests leadership education is developing leaders through utilizing experiential learning with the curriculum in leadership education, where instructors act less as experts and more like mentors to enhance the transformation of leadership skills.

Experiential learning is a methodology "that creates dynamic opportunities for individuals, teams, leaders, and organizations to successfully adapt, learn and innovate" (Marquardt, 2011, p. 2). This provides leadership education an opportunity to quiet its critics by exploring the impact experiential learning theory (ELT) has on developing young leaders. The ELT model is made up of four stages: concrete experience, reflective observation, abstract conceptualization, and active experimentation (Kolb, 1984). ELT pulls from the work of several scholars who believe experience plays an essential role in human learning and development (Kolb, 2014). ELT suggests learning is most effective through engaging experiences that can be reflected on (McGill & Beaty, 2001). Neuroscience even suggests we learn and retain more when our emotional circuits are activated by lived experiences. Therefore, leaders are more likely to learn from experiences and use this knowledge to refine and develop their leadership styles (Hirst, Mann, Bain, Pirola-Merlo, & Richver, 2004). Leadership education is accomplishing this by focusing on real-world leadership learning within institutions. (Zhang & Brundrett, 2010). Therefore, this study sets to explore how leadership education will evoke one's emotions through experience so higher learning can be achieved.

Literature Review

Northouse (2015) suggests that a new and wider plethora of skills and competencies are needed by leaders this century, including the ability to lead teams, ask insightful questions, and solve complex problems with systems thinking. Organizations have also recognized the need for a wider array of leadership skills because they are looking for agile, continuously learning leaders to keep ahead of the rapidly changing environment in which we live and work (Carson, 2015). Leadership education is aware of these needs, and in agreeance with McCall (2004) believes that the primary source of learning to lead, to the extent that leadership can be learned, is through experience. This is supported by ELT which defines learning as the process whereby knowledge is created through the transformation of experience (Kolb & Kolb, 2005). This suggests ELT can provide the necessary experiences to develop leaders. According to Volz-Peacock (2016), action learning develops every leadership skill as individuals are working with a group of people on a problem for which there is no known solution. Experiential learning techniques also encourage

risk taking within a psychological safe space, much like the safe practice area we choose when learning to ride a bike (Smith, 2001). The learning of new leadership skills is possible because action learning provides a safe, social, and collaborative environment for developing leaders in all organizations and institutions (Volz-Peacock et al., 2016).

Experiential learning has one goal, and that is to equip participants to value their experiences for insight into what it takes to lead, what it takes to grow as a leader, and what it takes to nurture the leader in others (Thomas & Cheese, 2005). Rather than learning leadership skills as it is understood by others, participants make sense of their own experiences, then discover and cultivate leadership in themselves (Antonacopoulou & Bento, 2004). In order for the participants to value their insights and make sense of their experiences, they must engage in a time of reflection for these lessons to absorb and become changed behavior. Reflection allows participants to think about, reexamine, and critique the programmed or prior knowledge, experiences, assumptions, and beliefs to experience new learning (Volz-Peacock et al., 2016). However, reflection requires that conversations take place. If the participants hope to learn from their experience, they must create a conversational space where the teams can reflect on and talk about their experience together (Kolb & Kolb, 2008). Kolb (1976) suggests that instructors must encourage increased levels of participation and conversation, creating a learning environment favorable to learn new behaviors, providing theoretical clarification, and emphasizing both content and process. Leadership instructors do an incredible job acting as experiential coaches.

Theoretical Framework

Kolb's (1984) theory on experiential learning was used as the theoretical framework for this study. The model's four stages are: concrete experience, reflective observation, abstract conceptualization, and active experimentation (Kolb, 1984). Knowledge is not static, but rather is in constant flux, shaped by experience (Kolb, 1984). Continuously building on previous knowledge and creating connections from new experiences to past experiences is a main tenet of experiential learning. Experiential learning essentially takes hands-on learning to a new level. The emphasis is on doing in the experiential learning model along with a focus on intentional reflection (Kolb, 1984). Meaning, simply participating in an educational activity is not experiential learning. The participants must be able to reflect on their experience, process their new connections, and make an attempt to apply their developed knowledge. This cyclical process indicates how learners develop knowledge by having experiences, reflecting on them, conceptualizing abstractly, and applying the new knowledge in other settings. Experiential learning has the ability to occur in a variety of settings and disciplines (Kolb, 1984).

Methods

This study utilized a case study approach to guide the research methods necessary to provide a deeper understanding of the relationship between experiential learning and leadership education. Case studies are a research strategy that focus on deepening the understanding of dynamics present in a given setting (Eisenhardt, 1989). This methodology was chosen to guide the research process because the case was the students' perceived effectiveness of experiential learning, however the case could not be considered without the context, the role of experiential learning in leadership education, and more specifically within a classroom setting. It was in this setting that the students' perceived effectiveness was developed. It would have been challenging to have a true picture of students' perceived effectiveness of experiential learning without considering the context within which it occurred. Using a case study approach aims to better understand the

student's perspectives with experiential learning within leadership education, and how that may impact comprehension and retention of the material. This allowed the study to rely on the students' perspectives to provide rich in-depth insight into their experiences.

The study utilized semi-structured interviews for its data collection method. Semi-structured interviews were used because the interviewer wanted to maintain a certain level of structure that gives the participants control over the information shared, while maintaining the researcher's control to guide the conversation when appropriate (Plowright, 2011). Using this interview technique can generate many benefits for the study, which are interview guides that provide clear instructions for the facilitator and can help with the development of reliable qualitative data, as well as the questions being prepared before the interview. This allows the facilitator to be prepared and appear competent during the interview process.

The data was audio recorded and transcribed for accuracy and creditability. Credibility is one of the most important pieces of research because for the results to be valid they must be both truthful and plausible (Tracy, 2010). Furthermore, to ensure the validity and reliability of the study, thick descriptions of the interviews will be utilized throughout the analysis (Tracy, 2010). The data analysis method for this study utilized a-priori coding. A-priori codes were generated from the four constructs of ELT. The study created a code book prior to the interviews to capture key words eluding to either successes or failures of ELT in this course setting. The codes were focused on the areas of concrete experience, reflective observation, abstract conceptualization, and active experimentation. Experience and experimentation were combined due to the challenge of distinguishing the difference.

The individuals selected to participate in the interview process were generated from a non-probability sampling method. The members of the sample are chosen because the researcher believes they hold information that will contribute heavily to the research. Purposive convenience sampling was used for choosing the sample from the population. By combining the two methods, this study purposely chose participants who held insightful information pertaining to the research objectives, while being the most accessible for interviews. The population consisted of students enrolled in a leadership course focused on utilizing experiential learning techniques around groups and teams. This non-probability technique aims to target a particular sample, knowing it does not represent the entire population and does not allow for generalizations to be made (Plowright, 2011).

Results

Table 1 – Interview Results

A-Priori Codes

<u>Experience/Experimentation:</u>

Student: "I must say that after this course, I have a greater appreciation for working in groups and the teamwork process because of the experiences, whereas before, I ALWAYS said work alone."

Student: "At my internship, everything I work on is in a team, and because of this course experience I know how to work with different types of people and how to accomplish goals and assignments alongside others, rather than just taking over and doing it myself."

Student: "Class utilized experiential learning through engaging experiences to help us as students connect to one another and the material … to use it in the future in jobs and relationships."

Reflective Observation:

Student: "Many of the topics that we learned about involved hands on activities that once completed, allowed students to reflect and better understand the course material."

Student: "I do not think I would have learned as much without the actual controlled experiences and reflections before now, providing me with newfound skills and knowledge to take into the real world."

Student: "Learning the theories and techniques presented in this course deepened my understanding of the material through reflecting on the team experiences and the course exercises."

Student: "The course did help me better understand the way teams and groups work and act because the experiences I went through helped me understand the way some of my past group projects failed and how to work through problems in the future."

Abstract Conceptualization:

Student: "… after completing the class I would say that through the experiences and lessons my understanding of working in a group and team is deepened more than it was before the course."

Student: "…most of the activities we did were enjoyable and deepened my understanding of teams."

Student: "I had a great experience in this course and I absolutely believe that it deepened my understanding of groups and teams through the hands-on experiences that we participated in and this was a great way to learn the course material and made the learning process very fun."

Discussion/Recommendations/Conclusions

For students, nothing else feels the way action learning feels; we can only learn something by doing it, then reflecting on what happened so we can make sense of the lesson, and working through how we can improve for next time (Smith, 2001). This study suggests that leadership development is building leadership skills in students through experiential learning, contrary to its critic's beliefs. The study supports the notion of successful experiences can lead to higher levels of comprehension and student involvement, which was previously suggested by Kolb and Kolb. The study is also in support and promotes the continuous use of experiential learning in leadership education due to the impacts found in this particular course. We suggest other scholars do similar studies to determine the effect experiential learning is having in their courses as well due to the un-generalizability of this study.

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The Art of Leadership: Exploring the Use of Photography and Narrative in Understanding Adaptive Leadership Concepts

Abstract

Concepts delivered through photography allow the viewer to embody concepts, theories, and models in a different light than through normal mental processing (Kolb, 2014). When offered the opportunity to examine leadership through the lens of photography, a phenomenological explanatory critique will establish the experience of participants focusing on adaptive leadership concepts through the use of imagery and personal narrative. Participants in the study will be undergraduate students at a Midwestern, Land-grant University. The purpose of this study is to explore student's ability to make meaning of adaptive leadership concepts through narrative inquiry and visual approaches of photo elicitation.

Introduction

It is important for leadership scholars and educators to understand how a student retains course content and how a student applies leadership into their everyday life. This understanding can help make better leadership educators and add to the literature in terms of cognition and the exploration of real-world application. Leadership development in higher education is still an under-investigated field of research and application (Braun et al., 2009; Bryman, 2007; Castle & Schutz, 2002). The National Leadership Education Research Agenda (2013-2018) suggests an importance for pedagogical priorities and the applied "how" of leadership education. Specifically, research priority one is on teaching, learning and curriculum development. The NLERA argues, "The priorities included within this area are inclusive of the essential considerations that inform the learning and transfer of learning through innovative Leadership Education." (p. 4). Thus, this study attempts to explore the capacity and competency of the leadership education learner through an innovative practice using photography and narrative inquiry. The goal of this research is to contribute to the call of priority one on teaching and learning, by exploring how students make sense of and apply leadership theories (i.e. adaptive leadership constructs) in their everyday lives.

This phenomenological study will allow leadership educators to make meaning of the instruction of adaptive leadership and understand how students connect with the adaptive leadership theory. Using the interpretive lens, the focus is to better understand how students identify and apply the adaptive leadership process. This perspective will facilitate an understanding of theory cognition and adaptability for a student's real-time processing of leadership content. Methods of inquiry include the use of the photo elicitation phenomena related to adaptive leadership, and an investigation of the student's ability to make meaning of adaptive leadership through the narrative and visual approach.

Statement of the Problem

Leadership is a complex phenomenon that operates across multiple levels of analysis (Cho & Dansereau, 2010) and involves multiple behavior mediating factors (Derue, Nahrgang, Wellman, & Humphrey, 2011). Helping students better understand leadership content and application for future use is a challenge of classroom instruction (Santangelo & Tomlinson, 2009). Motivational learning can be used to connect the dimensions of personal growth and cognition into a classroom atmosphere that foster's student educational needs and openness to learning (Hutchinson, 2003).

By using these basic principles, teaching strategies that lead to effective delivery, application, and cognition can be utilized to meet the demands of both instructor and learner, while simultaneously exerting leadership education into instruction. It is important to understand the challenges of instruction, and the process in choosing the best methods to communicate information in the classroom setting. Educating others in regard to leadership presents many challenges including appropriate teaching methods (Allio, 2005; DeRue, Sitkiin, & Podolny, 2001; Bordone, 2000). Active learning processes can help students gain a better understanding of leadership and aid in critical thinking and application (Burbach, Matkin, & Fritz, 2004). Concepts delivered through photography and visuals allow the learner to embody concepts, theories, and models in a different light than through normal mental processing (Kolb, 2014). Photo elicitation will allow the learner to make meaning of events that occur in their life in relation to the adaptive leadership theory.

The practice of photo elicitation has been used to examine children's perspectives (Epstein, et al., 2007, in a multi- methods study into family structure and environment in India (Walker, 2014), to explore the perceptions of physicians and families toward nutrition in a phenomenological study (Cretin, et al., 2017), and to help educators examine the use of photographs in writing (Zenkov, et al., 2012). The use of photo elicitation as a methodology has not been used in the realms of leadership development and education to explore how learners view adaptive leadership from their own perspective.

As a means of introduction, adaptive leadership is the ability for a leader to navigate an organization through times of change, and relies heavily on the work of the followers to enact change and make progress (Heifetz, 1994). Critics propose that the leadership theory ranges too wide and is too abstract, and further refinement is needed to conceptualize the theory (Northouse, 2016, p. 276). Thus, it is important for leadership educators to use innovative practices to teach the theory and assess students' understanding of the concepts.

Literature Review

Adaptive Leadership Theoretical Framework

To better understand adaptive leadership, an initial literature review of the theory as developed by Heifetz (1994) is presented, before we discuss its role in leadership education and learner application. The influence of followers and intrapersonal dynamics are key to understanding how leaders influence organizations and how leadership outcomes are best achieved (Dinh &

Lord, 2012; Marion & Uhl-Bien, 2002). As the name suggests, adaptive leadership centers on how leaders encourage people to change, or adapt, as they deal with challenge, problems, and the process of change (Northouse, 2016, p. 257). Adaptive leadership focuses a great deal on the activities of the leader in relation to the work that is being done by the followers in various contexts.

Heifetz (1994) introduced adaptive leadership and it has been used to better understand a range of phenomena, including how leaders encourage change across several levels: self, organizational, community, and societal. The framework of adaptive leadership emerged from the work of Heifetz and other researchers (Heifetz, 1994; Heifetz & Sinder, 1988; Heifetz, Grashow, & Linsky, 2009; Heifetz & Linsky, 2002; Heifetz & Laurie, 1997) and changes the way in which some might seek to understand leadership behaviors. Instead of focusing on the leader as the solution, adaptive leadership provides a concept for the practice of mobilization of followers and self to tackle difficult problems or issues and thrives in the context of the environment (Heifetz, et al., 2009). Those who identify as adaptive leaders engage in activities that mobilize, motivate, organize, orient, and focus the attention of others, and have the ability to help others explore their own values toward the common good of the individual and the organization.

Situational challenges lead to the behaviors and processes that influence how leaders and followers react to the context. Technical challenges (can be fixed with leader's expertise and authority), technical and adaptive (challenges are defined, but do not have a straightforward solution, causing both leader and follower to address), and adaptive (problems are not clear-cut or easy to identify, centers around values, and stirs emotion) are types of situational challenges that allow the leader to begin work on identifying who can best address the situation (Northouse, 2016). One of the unique characteristics of this style of leadership is that once the type of issue has been identified, the behavioral approach signals the type of adaptive work that takes place, namely in the dynamics of how people are mobilized to meet the demands of change.

The behaviors chosen by the leader can empower growth and change in an organization among the followers and the leader alike. These behaviors are general prescriptions for leaders to best address the challenges and inevitable changes that accompany them (Heifetz, 1994). While there may be a general order as to how leader behaviors are prescribed, the approaches may overlap and be used in any order to address the challenges or change at hand. *Get on the balcony* allows the leader find perspective in the middle of a challenging situation, while still being connected to the challenge as both a participant and an observer. *Identify adaptive challenges* allows leaders to diagnose the problem and distinguish between technical or adaptive. Leaders can also *regulate distress*, meaning leaders help others recognize the need for change while monitoring stress and maintaining a productive range. They can do this by creating an atmosphere that people can feel safe in addressing problems. Leaders also *maintain disciplined action* by encouraging people to focus on the tough work, while helping address the change and not avoiding it. By *giving the work back to the people*, leaders can empower their followers to do the work they need to do, and know when to drop back and let the followers take the lead. Lastly, leaders can *protect leadership voices from below*, meaning they should be open to the ideas of people who might be at the fringe, marginalized, or deviant in a group or organization.

Adaptive leadership is a process that allows followers the freedom to take control of their work, while leaders are able to step back to gain a new perspective. Leaders must also decide whether challenges are technical or adaptive before engaging in the leader behaviors. This form of leadership looks at the process of leading and becomes a complex transaction between leaders and followers. Adaptive leadership is follower-centered and is specifically designed to help followers confront conflicts that emerge from a changing environment/ workplace.

The claims of adaptive leadership have only been tested on a limited basis. The moral dimension of the adaptive leadership theory has not been fully explained. As Heifetz and colleagues imply, adaptive leadership can aid in the evolution of an individual's values, thus leading to the common good. This is not explained in research that has followed the theory, and there seems to be holes in the research that link adaptive leadership and how followers might form social values (e.g., equality, justice, and community) from the leader behaviors. A meta-analysis has shown that research done on adaptive leadership has only been theoretical and compilational in nature with research conducted on the individual, dyadic, and organizational levels (Dinh, et al, 2014). Further study into adaptive leadership might show instructors how to best approach the theory and how students make meaning of its intricacies.

Teaching Methodology

While it has been stated that a best model of teaching does not exist (Prahbu, 1990), this decision comes from the instructor and their general ideas of class content and delivery methodology. Through linkage to earlier concepts discussed in class, an instructor can connect new learning to past knowledge and experiences, and encourage educational motivation to learning new concepts (Pintrich, 1994). In terms of curriculum development and selecting the most appropriate methodologies, an instructor can reflect on the idea that opportunities and experiences shape cognition, development, and leadership motivation (Allen & Wergin, 2008).

University faculty holds influence on the leadership process through research and scholarship, which explores the most effective approaches to leadership education (Astin & Astin, 2000). Jenkins (2012) provided a list of teaching methodologies used in leadership classrooms, and photo elicitation was not included in this list. Therefore, this study may result in understanding how to incorporate this teaching method into leadership education. The use of participatory photographs has been used in the classroom in prior studies (Johnson, 2010), but has not been evaluated for its connectedness and success in leadership studies courses.

Purpose Statement and Research Questions

The purpose of this phenomenological study will allow leadership educators to make meaning of the instruction of adaptive leadership and understand how students connect with the adaptive leadership theory. This perspective will facilitate an understanding of theory cognition and adaptability for a student's real-time processing of leadership content. Methods of inquiry include the use of the photo elicitation phenomena related to adaptive leadership, and an investigation of the student's ability to make meaning of adaptive leadership through the narrative and visual approach. The research questions guiding the study are:

RQ_1: How do students identify with adaptive leadership?
RQ_2: How do students visually (through elicitation) make meaning of adaptive leadership?
RQ_3: How do students represent the adaptive leader behaviors of "*Get on the Balcony*?"
RQ_4: How do students represent the adaptive leadership behavior of "*Protect Voices from Below*?"
RQ_5: How do you see the role of leader/follower interaction in terms of values and establishing values?

Methods

Qualitative research is conducted in order to better understand the meaning that people have placed in their own lives, through their own experiences, and how they make sense of the world around them (Merriam, 2009). A qualitative approach was selected for this study because it allows the researcher a more open approach to how the university students perceives adaptive leadership concepts through visual imagery and the open-ended narrative questions into the adaptive leadership phenomenon.

The study will take a phenomenological approach because this allows leadership educators to truly explore students who have taken a leadership course and the meaning making of the adaptive leadership content. According to Creswell (2013), phenomenology allows us to discover the meaning of lived experiences by several individuals. The model of phenomenology established by Moustakkas (1994) allows for exploration of participants narrative and views in terms of what they have experienced and how it has been experienced. A phenomenological explanatory critique will establish the experience of participants focusing on adaptive leadership concepts through the use of imagery and personal narrative. The interpretive paradigm approach works on making sense of how an individual, in a given context, makes meaning out of the phenomenon and seeks to understand how the reality shown is subjective and can differ from one individual to another (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Using the interpretive lens, we may better understand how a student identifies with the adaptive leadership process through the interviews and the observation found in the photographs so that central ideas are seen from their views on adaptive leadership. This perspective will facilitate an understanding of theory cognition and adaptability for a student's real-time processing of leadership content.

Transcendental phenomenology will be used for this research study. It involves taking a fresh view on a phenomenon, as if encountering it for the first time. By using epoche or bracketing, investigators set aside their experiences to take a fresh perspective toward the topic under examination. Some researchers may introduce a topic by sharing their personal experiences and bracketing out their views with the experiences of others. This approach reduces the information to significant statements and combines these into themes.

The researcher is then able to develop a textural description of the experiences of the participants (what they experienced), a structural design of their experiences (how they experienced it in terms of context), and a combination of the textural and structural descriptors to convey the overall themes of the experience (Creswell & Poth, 2017). The use of written responses and the experiences translated through drama, films, photographs and art, poetry, and novels has also been accepted as forms of data (van Manen, 1990).

A portion of this research study will examine photographs submitted by the student participants in an effort to visualize how they make meaning out of the phenomenon (i.e. adaptive leadership theory). The photo-elicitation interview (PEI) is a qualitative methodology that allows photographs, or visual images, to be used to gather information (Clark-Ibanez, 2014), and participants and researchers are both able to contribute the photographs. PEI has its historical roots in anthropology and sociology research (Harper, 2002) and has become increasingly popular in the social sciences (Croghan, et al., 2008). Using this method, photographs are taken by and then discussed with the participants in order to explore the subjective meanings that are given to them (Prosser & Schwartz, 1998). By using the participants' own photographs, researchers can have more access to the participants and their interpretation of self and their own explanation of the phenomenon.

Sampling Selection Procedures

The study will focus on students at a Midwest, land-grant university taking courses through the leadership department. Specifically, students who are enrolled, or have been enrolled, in upper-level leadership courses that focus on learning and applying leadership theories and models. These students are pursuing either a major or minor in agricultural leadership, and the courses have covered adaptive leadership theory in their content. This will establish eligibility to participate. The recruitment process meets criterion sampling, as all participants must have been former or current students in two upper-level leadership courses. Instructors of these courses will help in the recruitment process, while participation is voluntary for the participants.

Through a qualitative phenomenological approach, we will explore the similarities and differences in students' interpretations and in their visual imagery of adaptive leadership. In addition, we will create common themes that emerge from the interpretations and images to better help leadership instructors identify what components of adaptive leadership resonate most with the students. Following the recommendations of Polkinghorne (1989), approximately twenty-five individuals will be recruited and interviewed since they have experienced the phenomenon of being instructed in a leadership course where adaptive leadership was taught.

Data Collection

Data will be collected using a variety of methods. Before participants are given the open-ended semi-structured response portion of the research study, they will complete the IRB Informed Consent form. Participants will then be given instructions on how they can complete the photo elicitation portion of the research study [Appendix A]. Three photographs that reflect their understanding of adaptive leadership will be uploaded using the online data software, Qualtrics. Participants will be asked to include a description of the image and how it illustrates adaptive leadership behaviors: (1) general representations of adaptive leadership, (2) getting on the balcony, and (3) protecting leadership voices from below. In addition to uploading images, participants will be asked to respond to semi-structured interview questions [Appendix B] via Qualtrics data software. The questions will allow for open-ended responses that reflect their understanding of adaptive leadership. The initial questions should take participants no longer than one hour to complete, and each participant will designate which leadership course they have taken from a drop-down menu.

Data Analysis

First, written interview responses and photographs will be read and viewed for missing content and clarification by a primary researcher and checked again by a secondary researcher. All names, or mentions of names, within the responses will be changed to pseudonyms in order to certify anonymity of all participants. Since the data will be collected using Qualtrics, the information can be accessed and loaded onto Excel. This software program will be used during the data analysis process.

The next step of the process is to extensively read through the narrative responses, view all of the submitted photo elicitation photographs, and any other data that has been collected. This step will include any field notes that were observed or collected during interactions with participants. By repeated reading of the data, the researchers will gain an understanding of the data, establish familiarity with the collected data, and make brief memos for potential themes or categories that come about.

In order to promote validity of this research study, multiple methods of data collection are being used, including observations from interactions, open-ended interview questions, and photography submitted through photo elicitation. This helps establish triangulation of the data (Creswell, 2013). Reliability will also be maintained by allowing the participants to type out their own experiences and understanding of the adaptive leadership content. Photo elicitation has been shown to add reliability and validity to word-based surveys (Hatch, 2002).

The researchers will go through the data collected and highlight significant statements, sentences, quotes, or words that help provide a deeper understanding of how participants experienced and made sense of the phenomenon. This step is called horizonalization (Creswell, 2013). Themes that may emerge should focus on the student's meaning making of adaptive leadership and their application of the leader behaviors into their own life. The photographs will also be evaluated using the photo elicitation criteria that have been adapted from prior research studies in which photographs were used for data analysis (Collier & Collier, 1986).

The final data analysis step is to interpret the data. After the open-ended questions and photographs have been coded and emergent themes established the researchers must interpret the findings to determine the meanings. Understanding what has been found will allow for a written description of what has been observed in terms of key content that resonates with students related to adaptive leadership and how their interpretation presented in the photographs. After the interpretations have been made, it will be represented as a descriptive write-up and significant themes will be revealed.

Results

Data for this project is currently being collecting during the Spring 2018 academic semester. Students who are currently enrolled, or have previously taken, the upper-level leadership courses have agreed to participate in the study. Due to the qualitative nature of the study, an approximate number of 25 students will have completed the online questionnaire and photo submission process by the end of the academic semester.

It is the researchers goal to analyze the data during May and June and present the findings at the ALE Conference in July 2018. Table outlines a time line of the research study.

Table 1
2018 Timeline for data collection

Date	Action Item
January 31	First recruitment emails sent to potential participants
February 8	Second email sent for recruitment
February 14-16	Follow up email with interested participants; sending IRB informed consent
February 21	Follow up email with instructors for accessing Qualtrics questionnaire and uploading photos
March 12- April 13	Qualtrics Questionnaire and Photo Elicitation open for students
April 23-27	Collect data and organize into Excel
May 1-June 8	Data analysis and report findings
July 8-11	Present research at ALE

Implications to Leadership Education

This study has implications for the field of leadership and leadership education. The results from this study may inform leadership educators on innovative practices for teaching complex leadership theories, such as the use photography and narrative inquiry. This study also aims to fill a gap in the adaptive leadership literature centered on cognition and application, and aid in a better understanding of the role of values passed from leader to follower during the adaptive leadership process.

There are currently no known studies that examine instruction and cognition of adaptive leadership in leadership education, nor centered on photo elicitation to demonstrate the adaptive leadership process. The use of phenomenology will allow instructors to see the student perspective on adaptive leadership, and allow for deeper understanding of the key concepts that resonate with students and their ability to apply the concepts into their everyday lives. The photo elicitation research methodology will also allow participants to share their view of the world, which helps this phenomenological approach come full circle. By increasing the knowledge centered on student cognition of adaptive leadership, this research study can help leadership instructors with curriculum development and assessment of teaching methodologies.

Conclusion

In conclusion, the proposed research study will examine how undergraduate students identify with the adaptive leadership theory through narrative and visual inquiry. This research study has the potential to better inform leadership educators regarding the instruction of adaptive leadership and how students connect with practical application to the theory. Little research has been done in the area of adaptive research and photo elicitation. Through a qualitative process, this phenomenology will focus on the narrative approach through open-ended questions and the submission of three photographs through photo elicitation that embody content based on the adaptive leadership process. This data will be collected and analyzed in order to arrive at themes that demonstrate how students understand and apply adaptive leadership in their own life and cognition.

As leadership instructors, we want to better understand how students learn material and which points of theories resonate with them the most. Also, the innovate practices of using technology and imagery for teaching leadership is a needed area of research. This research is key to demonstrating how students learn leadership content and apply it into their everyday lives.

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Appendix A

Photo Guidelines and Suggestions

For the purpose of research, you are asked to submit three photographs that embody your understanding of the adaptive leadership process. You may use your smart device/phone or a camera to take the photographs for the research study. The photographs should be of good pixel quality and your interpretation of the following:

Photo 1: How do you visualize adaptive leadership?
Photo 2: Based on the idea of the adaptive leader behavior, "Get on the balcony," how do you represent that visually?
Photo 3: Based on the idea of the adaptive leader behavior "Protect Voices from Below," how do you represent that visually?

You will be asked to provide a written description of the photographs and how you connect the photos to adaptive leadership.

Please submit these photographs when you receive your open-ended submission questions in a few weeks.

Appendix B

Individual Semi-Structured Interview Questions

Open-Ended Questions

1. How would you describe adaptive leadership?

2. Adaptive leadership has various leader behaviors discussed in the process. In terms of the behavior, "Get on the balcony," how would you describe this behavior and its importance/non-importance?

3. This is another leader behavior question. In terms of the behavior, "Protect voices from below," how would you describe this behavior and its importance/non-importance?

4. When thinking about adaptive leadership, how do you see the role of leaders and followers in terms of personal and organizational values and how values are established?

5. While you were learning about adaptive leadership, what resonated most with you during the instructional time in your class?

Photo Elicitation Questions

6. How do you visualize adaptive leadership? Please attach the photo and include a description of the photo and how you view it in terms of the adaptive leadership process.

7. Based on the idea of the adaptive leader behavior, "Get on the balcony," how do you represent that visually? Please attach the photo and include a description of the photo and how you view it in terms of the adaptive leadership process.

8. Based on the idea of the adaptive leader behavior "Protect Voices from Below," how do you represent that visually? Please attach the photo and include a description of the photo and how you view it in terms of the adaptive leadership process.

9. What is the best way to reach you in the event of follow-up questions?

Austin College: Community Connect
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Abstract

The purpose of this innovative practice paper is to explore a community-focused initiative at a small liberal arts college. The initiative is focused on inclusion of the small, but growing, population of Chin Burmese refugees relocating to the Sherman, TX area. During a semester-long group project for senior Leadership Studies students, they will conduct a needs assessment of the local Chin Burmese community. Then, they will make recommendations on actionable steps that can be taken to increase inclusion of the refugees. This project is funded by mini-grant from the Association of Leadership Educators, with additional support from Tyson Foods, Inc. in Sherman, TX.

Introduction

One of the key missions of Austin College is to educate students in the liberal arts and sciences so that they become servant leaders who are "in service to the greater community" both in Sherman, TX, the greater Texoma area, and the world (Mission, 2018). Indeed, Austin College is answering the growing call to integrate civic engagement projects into all areas of learning at colleges and universities in order to increase democratic citizenship (Musil, 2017). While community engagement is integrated into various programs such as social work, nursing, environmental studies, and sociology, this innovative practice paper focuses on a new service learning project housed in a Leadership Studies minor program at Austin College (Mulrooney, Eaton, & McGuire, 2017; Costlow, 2017; Shefner, 2017).

Sherman is the largest city in the Texoma region and home to a growing population of Chin Burmese individuals who are seeking refuge in America after fleeing their homes in Burma over the past 10 years. Chin people typically speak Burmese and the Chin language. Today, an estimated 450 Chin people reside in the Texoma area, and that number is expected to increase as many of these refugees find employment at the local Tyson Food, Inc. plant that processes beef and pork products. Today, the methods that the City of Sherman and its non-profit organizations use to integrate new members into the community are focused around commonly found languages in the North Texas area, such as Spanish. Integrating new Chin members into the larger community has been difficult because the Chin and Burmese languages are not common to this region or to established community government organizations.

During the spring 2018 semester, senior students who chose the Leadership Studies minor were tasked with examining a problem in the Sherman community: how can Chin Burmese refugees be included and welcomed into this small north Texas community? Additionally, how can the goal of inclusion be accomplished while overcoming one major obstacle - the language barrier?

As this was a semester-long project for a group of senior students, there were several limitations for this endeavor. At the beginning of the class, students conducted initial research and wrote a proposal that covered only the actionable items that they could deliver to their stakeholders by the end of the academic semester. Additionally, students were limited by the language barrier that they encountered when talking to the Chin Burmese refugees, as all communications and interviews needed to be conducted through one translator.

Review of Related Scholarship

High impact projects that are focused on community engagement are used by liberal arts colleges to "prepare students to address contemporary problems and contribute to the common good" (Richards, 2017). Leadership Studies programs can contribute to students who are preparing to become civic-minded leaders by also allowing them to engage in experiential service learning activities. Major theories of leadership that are geared towards college students actively encourage development towards creating leaders who are prepared to make positive social change in their communities. For example, the Social Change Model of Leadership encourages the exploration of Individual, Group, and Societal values so that students use their leadership to become positive change agents (Komives & Wagner, 2016). Similarly, the Relational Leadership Model encourages leadership that brings people together to benefit the common good (Komives, Lucas, & McMahon, 2013).

One way that leaders make their communities better is by working with other citizens to solve problems. In order to work across boundaries and form productive problem-solving coalitions, student leaders must learn to be inclusive. In the Relational Leadership Model, students learn that being inclusive of both people and the diversity of their ideas is key to the ethical leadership that leads to accomplishing shared goals (Komives et al., 2013). In the Social Change Model of Leadership, active engagement and inclusion of community members supports the idea that citizenship (Komives & Wagner, 2016).

This community project has two primary objectives that should be accomplished by the end of the spring 2018 semester. For the first objective, students should gain an understanding of the challenges that leaders face when they attempt to integrate members of a new culture into an existing community while keeping a spirit of community among all citizens. This objective helps students develop the relationship building skills that encourage inclusion. The second objective for this project is to uncover and share valuable, important, and actionable information that community leaders can use to further help the Chin Burmese community become more active and engaged Sherman citizens.

The objectives relate to the Association of Leadership Educators mission by demonstrating how leadership educators can create community–focused initiatives that successfully overcome a potentially daunting barrier to entry: a language barrier (*About ALE*, 2016). As communities across North Texas look towards welcoming new members to encourage growth and sustainability, leaders may increasingly face issues like those in Sherman where the first step to welcoming new citizens is to engage them in their native language. Leadership educators can learn new ways to accomplish these goals through community-based initiatives such as this project.

The objectives align with the National Leadership Education Research Agenda priorities VI: Social Change and Community Development and VII: Global and Intercultural Leadership by encouraging students to be leaders who can engage constituencies across cultures (Andenoro et al., 2013). The project also meets one of the goals of the American Association of Colleges and Universities Community and Civic Engagement VALUE Rubric: to have students engage in projects that combine community engagement with academic work that culminates in a tangible

product where students have interacted with members of the community and responded to a community need (Association of American Colleges and Universities, 2009). During this project, students will actively work to make an impactful difference in the civic life of members of the Sherman community.

Description of the Practice

Students will research Chin people and determine their most immediate needs when they first move to the Sherman area. This includes gathering information from employees at the Tyson food plant, local government and non-profit organizations, and the Sherman Independent School District. They will use that knowledge to develop community guides and resources (911, police, fire, school information, healthcare, and other important information that people who speak English may take for granted) that will be translated into Burmese and Chin. Together, they will work with professional translators to translate materials in English to Chin and Burmese. Finally, they will develop print materials that will be used to disseminate information to community leaders and the Chin people.

At the end of the spring semester, students will present their findings to key members of the Chin community, representatives from local government, local schools, religious, and non-profit organizations, as well as the campus community and representatives from the local Tyson Foods plant. The class will also work with human resources personnel at Tyson to give these materials to new employees and Sherman Independent School District employees to share resources with students and parents. Below is the anticipated timeline for the project:

Date	**Action**
December 2017	Meet with senior Leadership Studies minor students to determine the final number of students who will work on this project
January 2018	Begin research and needs assessment of the Chin population
February 2018	Class officially begins and students continue the needs assessment and additional research
March 2018	Students work with professional translator to begin creating necessary documents and plan how they will be distributed throughout the community
April 2018	Students work with professional translator to finalize and distribute informational materials in the Chin and Burmese languages. Students will also create their final presentation during this time
May 2018	Students conduct a final major presentation to the campus community and key members of the Sherman community including representatives of the City Council, Texoma Council of Governments, Sherman ISD, Tyson Foods, religious and non-profit entities, and members of the Chin community
July 2018	The author presents a poster with initial information and findings at the Association of Leadership Educators conference

Discussion of Outcomes/Results

Although this project has been implemented as part of a Leadership Studies class, the project is expected to be ongoing. There is an initial plan in place to work with the Sherman Independent School District and Tyson Foods again to gather more information on how helpful the initial documents were for the Chin Burmese community. However, there are two main outcomes that will be evaluated as follows:

1. Objective One
    a. Student learning will be assessed through the use of various reflection instruments throughout the course of the class. At the end of the class, students will write a final, major reflection paper articulating what they learned during class and make connections to the Social Change Model of Leadership as well as their own personal leadership development goals.
2. Objective Two
    a. After the final presentation is conducted at the end of the semester and the newly created informational materials are disseminated, the author will conduct one or more interviews with members of the local Chin population that received the materials to assess the usefulness of the information.

Current Results

Even though it is early in the implementation of the project, the author has seen how students are connecting the information they are learning about the Chin Burmese community with their personal leadership development. Throughout their weekly reflections and final reflection paper they have made connections between the civic engagement experience of this project and the Social Change Model of Leadership.

Student 1, Common Purpose: "This project was a great foundation for working on social change. Everything was laid out for us to succeed and make a positive impact on a large underrepresented society in Texoma. As this project went through its many ups and downs, the main goal remained the same: make a positive social change in the Texoma community. This project featured all 7 C's of the social change model, but I personally believe that the common purpose group value was the biggest driving factor in this project."

Student 2, Citizenship: "The community that has been positively affected by the work I've done with my group on our capstone project is the Burmese Immigrant Community located in both the Dallas and Sherman area. I feel like my work on this capstone project has affected my view of how a leader engages others in the community to make positive change by giving my hands-on work to experience being a leader in the community for myself. This project has been like stepping into the shoes of a community leader and experiencing the objectives they face and the satisfaction it brings not only to the leader but to the community they are helping."

Student 3, Citizenship: "Social change does not have to be large-scale to be effective or noteworthy; that is the beauty of the model. The project gave me the courage to pursue social change because it helped me learn that change is attainable and does not have to move mountains

to be valid. I believe that, because of my work on my Capstone project, I will be a better agent for social change, and I will be a better leader."

Student 4, Change: "Our group believed in our common purpose and committed to our project goal in order to cause change. We believed that by working together and incorporating our prior leadership knowledge, we could make moving into the greater Texoma area easier for refugees by providing them with basic information. This group belief that we could make change kept us motivated and ultimately helped us reach our goal."

Recommendations

This type of community-focused experiential learning project is recommended for use by leadership educators. In order to make a project like this successful over the course of a semester, the author makes the following recommendations. First, some work should be done before the official beginning of the semester, such as reading any background information about the particular population that will be affected by the project. Second, some pre-work on the part of the instructor to identify key community contacts and set up interviews for the students would be helpful so that time during the semester is used efficiently. Finally, adding a requirement that students deliver a final presentation to an outside audience such as community members and key stakeholders will add a heightened sense of importance to the project.

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Beyond the Weekly Discussion Board Post: Increasing Content Engagement in an Online Survey of Leadership Theory Course

Abstract

Blogging can be an effective way for students to increase their engagement with course content. Using their daily lives as a leadership laboratory, rather than contrived situations or scenarios enables students to really "see" what leadership theories and/or approaches look like in the real world. Furthermore, through the blogging assignment, students are able to gain an appreciation for the practicality of leadership theories or approaches to multiple and varied contexts.

Introduction

As leadership educators, we teach our students that leadership is happening all around them and that leadership happens at all levels of an organization (Northouse, 2016). Yet, undergraduate students typically novice leaders, so many perceive their leadership experience and exposure to be limited. Consequently, many undergraduate students struggle to know where to find effective leadership and are challenged to know what to do to improve the effectiveness of their leadership behaviors as well as the behaviors of those around them.

Addressing these concerns is not a problem in a face-to-face course, as discussion and interactions between the students and between the students and instructor are natural byproducts of being in the classroom. After surveying over 300 leadership educators who teach face-to-face courses, Jenkins (2012) found that class discussion, small group discussions, and interactive lectures were the most common instructional strategies used when teaching undergraduate leadership courses. But what happens to students with similar concerns in an online course?

Without the luxury of being in a classroom simultaneously with their students, online instructors endeavor to leverage technology to create a sense of shared space. For many online courses, this shared space becomes the electronic discussion board (Evans, Steele, Robertson, & Dyer, 2017; Jenkins, 2016). Instructors use the discussion board to gauge students' comprehension and engagement with the course material that week while creating a sense of community or connectivity with the students. Each week, students respond to a series of prompts, post their thoughts, and then comment on the posts of other students in the course (Jenkins, 2016). Ideally, these comments build into a conversation amongst the students; however, experience has shown that in undergraduate courses, many comments never reach the level of a full discussion. For many students, the discussion board is merely a box to check for the week rather than an opportunity to analyze and synthesize the materials they are learning (Evans et al., 2017).

While multiple studies exist about the effectiveness of electronic discussion boards (ex. Cheng, Su, Zhang, & Yang, 2015; Davies & Graff, 2005; Evans et al., 2017), there is limited conclusive research about the use of blogs, especially in undergraduate courses (Halic, Lee, Paulus, & Spence, 2010). Additionally, the literature is limited when it comes to online undergraduate leadership programs (Jenkins, 2016). Therefore, the purpose of this paper is to detail an innovative strategy using a personal, reflection blog to engage students in the course material by increasing their awareness of leadership concepts and principles in their daily lives, with the

ultimate goal being students who demonstrate the practicality of leadership theories to multiple and varied contexts.

Review of Related Scholarship

The demand for online courses is rising, as they are convenient for college students, and are often a better fit into a student's schedule; but online courses can also benefit the institution. Without classroom availability dictating the time and size of a course, online courses are able to reach more students than many of their face-to-face counterparts (Manning-Ouellette & Black, 2017; Richardson & Swan, 2003). Subsequently, online education is becoming "an integral part of academic institutions" (Barber, Taylor, & Buchanan, 2013, p. 17).

Similarly, the increasing pervasiveness of technology has greatly influenced what educators can do with their online courses. In recent years, a variety of computer mediated communication tools, like class forums, electronic discussion boards, social media platforms, and blogs have all been adopted in collegiate courses (Simpson, 2002). Yet, even with the additional offerings of current technology, the lack of an instructor physically present with the students, in a formal classroom setting, makes active participation in an online course more challenging than engaging student participation in a face-to-face course (Evans et al., 2017).

But online courses are not without their positives (Smith, 2015). An "advantage of asynchronous learning is it allows students to reflect upon the materials and their responses before responding, unlike traditional classrooms" (Richardson & Swan, 2033, p 69), where responses are needed in the moment. Moreover, within the specific context of leadership education, multiple studies have shown that reflecting on past leadership experiences in one of the best ways for students to develop their leadership competency and capacity (Cain, Giraud, Stedman, & Adams, 2012; Gifford, 2010; Jenkins, 2012). One example of a pedagogical tool suitable for eliciting student reflection is the blog (Cain et al., 2012).

Helping students reflect is not the only benefit of using a blog in an online course. Previous research has proposed that blogs "can promote creative, intuitive, and associational thinking" (Cain et al., 2012). The general applicability of the competencies taught within academic leadership studies programs is a strength we should be actively vocalizing to our students. Specifically, the multi-dimensional nature of leadership studies programs provide students opportunities to develop transferable skills for multiple contexts (Chan et al., 2012). Furthermore, blogging can help students develop a sense of community with their classmates, as they read and learn from the posts of others (Cain et al., 2012; Halic et al, 2010).

Effectively supporting students as they fuse their leadership learning in multiple contexts can be a challenge in a face-to-face course and an even greater challenge in an online course. However, intentionally utilizing integrative learning techniques within a leadership course provides the scaffold whereby students can practice and develop these abilities. The use of integrative approaches to learning supports students as they work to, "think the world together [rather] than think it apart" (Palmer & Zajonc, 2010). Integrated learning exceeds compelling 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 a new and different context (Owen, 2015).

To thrive in this post-industrial world, students need to be able to synthesize large amounts of information and incorporate what they learn across disciplines, 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 leadership and their daily lives, students are given opportunities to develop skills and competencies needed to think critically and solve problems in new and innovative ways.

Therefore, incorporating a personal, reflective blog in an undergraduate survey of leadership course incorporates interdisciplinary learning, occasions for individualized learning, and opportunities for students to develop broad cognitive skills. By, so doing, 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).

Description of Practice

This practice consisted of having each student in an online undergraduate survey of leadership theory course create and maintain a personal reflection blog throughout the entire fifteen-week semester. The only prompt given was for the students to use their daily lives as a leadership laboratory, the space and places whereby the students were to observe the course content in action. The students were not asked to do anything in addition to their normal daily activities, but they were asked to view the world around them through the lens of a leadership scholar. The team graded the blogs on the depth of the reflection, specifically how the students were able to connect and apply course material to their daily lives, not on the specific contexts/examples used.

Each student was required to write sixteen posts over the course of the semester. The students were encouraged to express their creativity with the assignment and approach it as they would a personal blog, with their opinions and experiences supported by a variety of media. In other words, the posts were not simply to become another discussion board. From music lyrics, television or movie clips; to experiences in other courses, their jobs or student organizations; to photos of their intermural teams, roommates or families, anything they came in contact with during their day was fair game for inclusion in their blog.

To aid in the grading, the blogs were checked four times throughout the semester. The students were expected to have at least four blog posts at each check point. These four checkpoints coincided with the end of the four major units within the course: leader-centric approaches, contingency approaches, contemporary approaches, and follower-centric approaches. Having the blogs checked periodically provided the students feedback on how they were doing, which in turn enabled them to improve as the semester progressed. Furthermore, having the blogs due at the end of each major unit helped frame the course material so that the students were actively

looking for different leadership theories or approaches, and experiencing the practicality and applicability of the span of the course content in their daily lives.

Discussion of Outcomes

The blog assignment was piloted in the spring 2018 semester in a large, online section of an undergraduate survey of leadership theory course. This course consisted of 130 undergraduate students, ranging from freshmen to seniors, who are not declared leadership majors, but who are either leaderships studies minors or who needed this course to fulfill a requirement in their degree plan. As developing leadership competency benefits all students, the goal was to help students put leadership theory to practice within their own context, while helping them increase their understanding of leadership principles.

To date, the students have completed the first blog check and are about to turn in their second. During the first round of grading, we repeatedly saw evidence that the students are accurately recognizing leadership models, theories and approaches in themselves and those around them, but they are also seeing the practicality of the course material in relations to their chosen major and/or future career path. The following are representative quotations from four different students detailing how they have observed the course material in their daily lives.

<u>Example of Blake and Mouton Leadership Grid:</u>

> While meeting with my rabbi before Shabbos to talk about this week's Torah portion and how it relates to my life, I found myself contemplating what style of leadership he practiced. After our discussion, I decided he fit the "Team" category on Blake and Mouton's Leadership Grid. When I got home, I read through the corresponding slide on our PowerPoint to see if my prediction lined up. After reading the first assumption under "Team" leadership, I was sure. (6)

<u>Examples of Katz's 3-skill approach:</u>

> On Thursday while out at the spirit ice arena with friends for our weekly 'girls night', a particular little girl caught my eye. This little girl was teaching her even younger brother that had down syndrome to ice skate as it was his first time. She held his hand throughout the whole process, but it was evident that he was getting more and more frustrated. The boy began to yell "I quit sissy!" over and over again and she refused to let him out of the rink, she knew he had it in him to get skating down. As time went by, the little boy began to get the hang of it and within 20 minutes, he was looking like a champ! He was so happy, it was heartwarming to take in that without his sister's encouragement that could have been viewed as "rude", he wouldn't have accomplished learning how to skate. His older sister was extremely strong in her leading with human skills, she knew what he needed both as his sister and as a leader. (40)
>
> Conceptual skills are integral to solving problems. One problem that I have noticed in our society is the disconnect between agricultural producers and consumers. Every day, people are eating food and buying products, but they have no idea where those products came from . . . As someone who grew up around farming, this really upsets me. A few years ago, I decided to do something about it. I started a blog called Farming Truth . . .

> Why do I bring this up in my leadership class? Looking back, I realize that I was using my conceptual skills [to] implement this action. I didn't just notice the problem, I asked the questions: "Why is this a problem?" and "What and where can I take up action to ensure I have the biggest effect possible?" This brought up an entirely new realm of challenges that I would have to think long and hard about to solve, forcing me to push my cognitive skills even further. (84)

Example of the Situational Approach:

> The lecture discussion about follower development reminded me when I was a first year student trainer in high school. . . The seniors would yell at the new people (me) if we didn't do things right. I remember one time I didn't wrap someone's ankle correctly and one of the girls got mad at me and called me a rookie. The head athletic trainer got after the girl and said, "At least she's trying to get better." He knew that I was committed, but I just had low competence. As the year went on I learned what I needed to and our doctor made me the head student trainer. By then I still had high commitment and excelled to also having high competence. I made sure to work with the trainers who were under me and taught them the skills necessary to succeed. You can't expect someone to know everything especially when they are a beginner. It takes practice and patience. I believe I used the coaching approach when I was leading the student trainers. (35)

Reflections of the Practitioner

Being able to identify accurately different leadership theories away from the classroom can be a struggle for many students. On my campus, the in-person section of this course has the students engage in small group labs each week to help them “see” various leadership theories/approaches in action. However, in an online course, a group lab is not an option. Therefore, my goal with the blog assignment was to bring the learning lab to the students by encouraging them to be more observant so they could “see” leadership in the world around them. Moreover, I did not want the blog to turn into another prescriptive weekly discussion board post, so there were no discussion prompts to answer nor assigned topics to cover with each blog entry. Additionally, while the blog entries are viewable to the whole class, the students do not have to comment on each other’s entries. I was more interested to see what associations and applications they could come up with on their own, and I wanted the students to have the freedom to write about what was important and meaningful to them.

At first, I was concerned that without strict guidelines for the assignment, guidelines like word count, format, topics from which to select, etc., the students were not going to take blogging seriously. But that fear dissipated as I read the first round of blog entries. Yes, some of the students put more depth of thought into the assignment than others, but many of the students made connections between the course content and their daily lives in unique and interesting ways. The range of contexts and the variety of concepts they selected for their discussions has been wide. Several of the students struggled at first with the freedom of the assignment, as they have been conditioned to follow a rubric and adhere to a firm structure. I was asked several times if they really could “write about anything” they thought fit with the course material. Even though I would say yes each time I was asked, they did not seem to believe me. It was as if they were waiting for me to change my mind or throw some unexpected twist into the assignment at the last minute.

While I see the benefit of the assignment, blogs are a relatively new type of assignment for these students, so I wanted to know what they thought about the assignment as they were progressing through the course. Therefore, as I have come in contact with these students, I have asked for their thoughts and feedback. To date, all of the feedback has been extremely positive. The students shared that they were a little frustrated at first because they struggled to "see" the leadership concepts at the same times we discussed them in the course, but as we have progressed through the course and they have reflected more on their own lives and activities, they have been able to connect theory to practice. In short, this assignment has been more successful than imaged.

Recommendations

From my experience with this blog assignment, I have two recommendations for other leadership educators. First, avoid the temptation of being prescriptive. Discussion boards are a great way to measure comprehension and application of specific concepts from the week's readings, but blogs, by design, are more personal, reflective, and organic. It is important for students to have the freedom to write about what is meaningful or relevant to them. Second, avoid the need to have students comment on their peers' work. Having students comment on their peer's posts can lead to some sense of community and level of discussion, but it can also lead to students sterilizing their posts as well as their comments. Students are more honest in their writing when they know their peers will not be commenting on their work.

A reflective blog can be an effective way for students to increase their engagement with the course content. Using their daily lives as a leadership laboratory, rather than contrived situations or scenarios enables students to really "see" what these leadership theories and/or approaches look like in the real world. It is one thing to read about a theory in a book. It is a completely different experience to observe or engage in that theory, in real time, with others.

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NCC LEAD: A Structural and Strengths-based Partnership for Social Change Leadership Development

Abstract

The development of a first year leadership development program provided the opportunity for innovative collaboration between Academic and Student Affairs at North Central College. The advantages of partnership include shared resources, the capitalization of department-specific expertise, as well as the cultivation of campus community. NCC LEAD represents the partnership between the Office of Student Involvement and the Leadership, Ethics, and Values Program within the new Center for Social Impact. As such, this program is uniquely situated to develop students who utilize their strengths to effect positive social change. While the program is in its inaugural year, the benefits of collaboration in terms of student engagement across campus, application for student leadership positions, and interest in curricular options related to Leadership, Ethics, and Values are evident.

Introduction

Glance through any higher-education publication and it is clear that the pressure to prove the value of a liberal arts education is felt by Student Affairs professionals and faculty members alike. Change is the norm, but the guidelines, protocol, and best practices for productive and meaningful change are less clear. Amidst a large shift in college structure, advising models, General Education curriculum, and academic calendars, the need to reach, engage, educate and empower students is the same. At North Central College, all of the aforementioned changes are happening, ostensibly at once. While such transition can be disconcerting, we have seen it as an opportunity for innovation and creativity in our partnerships, the deployment of resources, and the means by which we engage with our students.

Leadership education and development programs abound. Indeed, many colleges and universities have wonderful programs and centers devoted to developing such potential in students. Our Leadership, Ethics, and Values Program functions as a driving force behind the leadership development of our students. We offer an array of curricular and co-curricular options whereby students can pursue a minor in Leadership, Social Change Leadership, and Conflict Resolution. They can also choose to complete a concentration, a uniquely tailored set of four courses, in Leadership or Ethics.

While the opportunities to develop such relevant and in-demand skills exist across campus, there was a lack of cohesion between the chance to learn about leadership and the chance to practice it. This disconnect led to the development of a partnership between LEV, which is situated in Academic Affairs, and our Office of Student Involvement, which is situated in Student Affairs.

Background

The Director of Student Involvement and the Associate Director of Leadership, Ethics, and Values met regularly for approximately nine months to coordinate campus partners, develop relationships, identify individual and shared outcomes, and build a new leadership development program for first year students called NCC LEAD (North Central College: Leaders Engaging and Developing). Amidst a host of transitions across campus, the college's

commitment to positive social change and social innovation provided a clear direction for our new leadership development program. In the fall, North Central College opened the Center for Social Impact of which the Leadership, Ethics, and Values Program is a driving curricular force. This corresponded with the adoption of the Social Change Model of Leadership as the primary pedagogical model for NCC LEAD. The model consists of three primary foci: Individual Values, Group Values, and Community Values (HERI 1996). In an effort to build a solid foundation for effecting positive social change, it became apparent that our new leadership development program would need to introduce students to each of these components.

Both the Director of Student Involvement and Associate Director of Leadership, Ethics, and Values have experience and training in Strengths-based Development using Gallup's Clifton Strengthsfinder (now Clifton Strengths for Students). Given their unique background and the importance placed on the individual as 'a sphere of leadership,' the incorporation of Strengths-based Development into the program's curriculum seemed both necessary and fortuitous (Roberts 2016). If the goal is to help students grow, then it is paramount that they identify the areas for the greatest growth- their talents. It is also necessary that they have opportunities to build upon those talents through strengths development (Clifton, Anderson, & Schreiner, 2006). Clifton Strengths for Students provided the initial assessment, primary retreat content, and basis for later NCC LEAD workshops. Also built into the program were additional teamwork activities and corresponding reflection as well as a group service opportunity to address the other two spheres of leadership: the Group and the Community.

The mission of NCC LEAD is to "help students discover their strengths, develop as leaders, and effect positive social change." The creation and implementation of NCC LEAD also promoted the advancement of several other goals held by the Student and Academic Affairs divisions. The Office of Student Involvement is tasked with increasing student engagement and retention on campus. It also is responsible for hiring students for a number of paraprofessional and student leadership positions such as Orientation Staff. The Leadership, Ethics, and Values Program in the Center for Social Impact is responsible for engaging students in the curricular and co-curricular aspects of leadership and civic engagement. NCC LEAD's framework represents the collaboration between Academic Affairs and Student Affairs in achieving these goals while developing strong and efficacious student leaders.

Description of Program

The program consists of five main elements: a retreat, LEV workshops/events, service, mentoring, and the Student Leadership Awards. The first NCC LEAD program element is the retreat. Students who choose to participate in NCC LEAD must attend a kick-off retreat. The retreat provides the foundation for Strengths-based Development. Prior to the retreat, students complete the Clifton Strengths for Students assessment. The Director of Student Involvement and the Associate Director of Leadership, Ethics, and Values serve as the retreat organizers and facilitate the Strengths workshops. Student mentors (junior and senior student leaders) join the first year students as Team LEADs. They help facilitate discussion and reflection after the workshops. The second part of the retreat consists of team-building exercises and corresponding reflection at a nearby camp. The camp's staff help facilitate the team-building work. The last part of the retreat consists of breaking into mentoring groups.

Each first year student is placed in a mentoring group led by one of the student leaders. The mentoring groups are asked to begin brainstorming service opportunities and arranging follow-up meetings.

The second element of the program consists of additional opportunities for leadership development including workshops, expert talks, and conference-style events. Students must complete at least three of these events. Such events include, but are not limited to, Q-Commons, Strengths 2.0 Workshop, The Changemaker Challenge, Resolutions Workshop: Strengths-Style, TEDxNorthCentralCollege, and a talk by Harvard Business Review writer, Eddie Yoon, on Innovation, Generosity, and Your Career.

The third element of the program involves the mentoring groups known as LEAD Teams. Students must attend three meetings with their Team LEADs (student leaders). Mentors introduce S.M.A.R.T. goals, share campus resources, and check in with the first years throughout the term.

The fourth element involves a service project. Ideally, this will coincide with the college's annual day of service, Intersection. Mentoring groups are asked to select a project for that day and serve the community as a team.

The final component of the program is the Student Leadership Awards. This dinner and ceremony is open to all students. It is a collaborative endeavor sponsored by partners across campus from the Residence Hall Association, to Student Involvement, to LEV and the Center for Social Impact. Students who have completed all of the NCC LEAD requirements (including the retreat, three workshops/events, three mentoring meetings, and a service project) will be formally recognized at the Student Leadership Awards when they receive their NCC LEAD Endorsement certificate. The entire program is free for students including the retreat, the Strengths assessment, corresponding materials, and NCC LEAD gear.

Current Results

The benefits of a partnership between the Office of Student Involvement and LEV are numerous. Aside from increased budgetary resources, we were able to capitalize on the scheduling and outreach systems already in existence by Student Involvement. Students were notified of NCC LEAD in the New Student Information Packets in August, approximately four weeks prior to the start of classes. Approximately 70 students expressed interest in the program via our online form. We held an information session for incoming first year students during the first week of classes. Roughly 35 students attended the information session. At the end of the second week of classes, we took 18 first year students on our fall kick-off retreat in Dixon, IL where the college owns a 10,000 square foot log cabin situated on approximately 40 acres of wooded land. Five students (all juniors or seniors) from Blue Key Honor Society, our leadership and service student organization, also attended the retreat as student leaders and mentors.

The buzz generated by the retreat and the information mailer made it clear that we needed to hold a second retreat on campus for those who were unable to attend the first one. Twenty-five students attended the mini-retreat on campus. We currently have about fifty students

involved in NCC LEAD. Despite holding a second retreat, we still had a few students who were unable to attend a retreat due to academic or sports schedules yet want to be involved. We have had five workshops or events for NCC LEADers (NCC LEAD participants) to attend. We had to recruit additional mentors due to the level of interest. We have seven mentoring groups, and almost all of them have completed the three required meetings. Unfortunately, the campus-wide service event (Intersection) was not held due to administrative changes in the Office of Ministry and Service. In lieu of that large-scale event, we held a smaller event at Feed My Starving Children in Aurora, IL. The students welcomed the opportunity to serve and requested more opportunities to connect with each other and help the community. As such, we now post Spotlight Events that encourage NCC LEADers to attend other on-campus events together. On our NCC LEAD Blackboard page students can easily find the schedule for upcoming events or workshops, leadership opportunities, information about the program requirements, mentoring group details, and track their progress towards completing the NCC LEAD program.

Conclusions/Recommendations

We are thrilled with the interest and engagement among students in NCC LEAD. We also are just beginning to see the impact of NCC LEAD across campus. While we do not have official numbers yet as the hiring process is currently underway, anecdotal evidence shows that a large number of NCC LEAD students applied for paraprofessional positions across campus including Resident Advisors, Orientation Staff, and Premier Team Leaders to name a few.

Plans for improving the program are already in progress. Feedback from our mentors shows that they would welcome more, formal training. We also hope to have returning NCC LEADers (sophomores in the 2018-2019 academic year) serve as mentors next year. It is also clear that we need to identify additional on boarding points for students who are interested in the program but cannot attend a fall retreat. This must be done in such a way to preserve the integrity of the program but still give students enough time to finish the requirements.

On a related note, the college is in the final stages of pursuing the Ashoka U: Changemaker designation. This comprehensive process has united the efforts of partners from across campus towards engaging students in social innovation and social enterprise. It is our hope that this designation will further streamline the offerings and efforts of campus partners in a way that complements the framework of our Strengths-based program to develop leaders for social change.

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Preparation Practices of Community College Leaders of Color: Diversification of the Community College Presidency

Abstract

The impending retirements and turnover of community college presidents presents an opportunity for a future generation of community college presidents that more accurately reflects the racial diversity within the community college, particularly, women of color. This poster session will detail the results of a national, descriptive study that examined women senior community college leaders' interest in a community college presidency and their personal and professional experiences that may shape their future career as a community college president.
As social identities influence leaders' career paths and trajectories, it is essential that we consider the leadership pipeline for women of color to the community college presidency.

Introduction

Community colleges are facing a potential leadership crisis as more than 75% of all community college presidents planned to retire within 10 years (American Association of Community Colleges, 2013) and current preparation and hiring practices are not sufficient to meet the needs to fill this leadership void (The Aspen Institute & The Achieving the Dream Foundation, 2013). The potential gap in community college leadership can be thought of as an opportunity to diversify the community college presidency with more candidates who identify as women of color. Given that community colleges serve a diverse student body in regards to race and gender, potential community college presidents should better reflect the demographics of the students and communities in which they serve. The purpose of this study is to detail the personal and professional demographics of women of color senior community college leaders who are one administrative position (Senior Academic Affairs Officer [SAAO]; Senior Student Affairs Officer [SSAO]; Senior Academic and Student Affairs Officer [SASAO]; Senior Finance and Administrative Officer [SFAO]) away from the college presidency and can be considered potential community college presidents.

Preparation for a Community College Presidency

Community college presidents and scholars have described the importance of learning in previous positions (AACC, 2013; Eddy, 2010; Jones & Warnick, 2012), obtainment of advanced educational credentials (Hammons & Miller, 2006; Luna, 2010; McNair, 2015) and participation in national leadership development programs sponsored by national organizations (Duree, 2007; Eddy, 2013; Eddy, Sydow, Alfred, & Garza-Mitchell,2015) and leadership development programs created by higher education institutions (Nevarez & Wood, 2010; Reile & Kezar, 2010) to develop their own leaders- a grow-your-own-leader program.

Many women in community college leadership roles face additional challenges than men in similar positions because of the gendered nature of higher education institutions (Eddy & Cox, 2007). Many of the common preparation pathways have additional barriers for women of color. For example, a common career pathway to the community college presidency is through an academic affairs pathway as a faculty member, then dean, then provost, and onto president

(ACE, 2012). Women of color face additional challenges in faculty roles such as racial bias from students and lack of institutional support (Skewes et al, 2017), and greater expectations for university service (Guarino & Borden, 2017). Studies have detailed the career paths of women in senior student affairs officers roles and they face additional challenges in perceptions of their leadership (Biddix et al., 2012; Humphrey, 2012).Furthermore, as a doctoral degree is an asset for community college presidents, one must consider the impact that chilly classroom climates towards women of color factor into the diversification of academic administration (Dortch, 2016). Given these additional challenges, women of color may experience a more difficult pathway up the academic ranks to the community college presidency.

Methodology

As part of a larger research addressing the demographics and professional preparation of community college senior leaders, the researchers collected data in the summer of 2016 using a quantitative, cross-sectional design. The present study has four research questions.

1. What are the professional and educational demographics of women of color community college leaders?
2. What percentage of women of color community college senior leaders are interested in pursuing a community college presidency?
3. What percentage of women of color community college senior leaders participate in leadership programs sponsored by national organizations?
4. What percentage of women of color community college senior leaders participate in leadership programs sponsored by Grow Your Own Leader (GYOL) leadership programs?

Sampling Strategy

The researchers used nonprobability sampling to examine the demographics and use of transformational leadership practices by community college SAAOs, SSAOs, SFAOS, and SASAOs. Nonprobability sampling involves sampling participants because they are accessible and convenient (Creswell, 2012). The researchers surveyed SAAOs, SSAOs, SASAOs, and senior finance and administrative officers (SFAOs) currently employed at 2-year associate's degree-granting institutions listed in the 2016 Carnegie Classification of Institutions of Higher Education in the United States. The researchers used the online *Higher Education Directory* to obtain the name, title, and e-mail address of each SAAO, SSAO, and SASAO The researchers identified each participant based on the job position titles indicated in previous studies that corresponded to one of the four positions. Higher education institutions have a wide variety of organization structures; thus, not all institutions in the sample have each position. Researchers distributed 2,711 surveys to senior community college administrators and received 656 useable responses.

Instruments and Variables

The researchers created a demographic questionnaire to collect information on the personal, professional, and educational backgrounds of potential community college presidents. The

demographic questionnaire included age, race, gender, and years of professional experience in higher education. The professional information the researchers collected included current position, highest degree earned, field of study for highest degree earned, and participation in leadership development programs. The information on the demographic questionnaire came from the literature review on leadership studies and community colleges. To test for construct validity, the survey was pilot tested with a sitting senior academic affairs officer, senior student affairs officer, and a senior finance and administrative office for clarity and context.

Current Results

Of the 656 responses, approximately 9.3% (n=70) of the participants were community college leaders women of color. Appendix 1 contains the personal and professional demographics of these women. Of the seventy women, 32 identified as African-American, three as American- Indian/Alaskan-Native, five as Asian, 22 as Latina, and eight women who identify with a different race than the previous categories. Additional information from Appendix 1 will be detailed in the subsequent sections.

Research Question 1

Women of color community college leaders primarily hold the senior student affairs officer position (63%), followed by the senior academic affairs officer (16%), the senior finance and administrative officer (13%) and the senior academic and student affairs officer (9%).
Educationally, 29% of the women held a Ph.D. as a the highest degree earned, followed by the master's degree (24%), Ed.D (20%), Associate's degree (14%), a nonlisted degree (7%), an
M.B.A (4%), and a bachelor's degree (1%).

Research Question 2

The majority of women of color community college leaders were interested in a community college presidency as 41% are somewhat interested, and 20% are very interested. Additionally, 39% of the sample were not interested in a community college presidency.

Research Question 3

75% of women of color in the sample participated in a leadership development program sponsored by professional organizations.

Research Question 4

Fifty-nine percent of women of color participated in a professional development program sponsored by a GYOL program.

Conclusions/Recommendations

The results from this study suggest there is great interest in women community college leaders to ascend to the community college presidency. As calls for the diversification of the presidency continue, there needs to be targeted efforts to transition women community college leaders who interested in the position to the presidency. Current community college presidents have detailed that a community college presidency was not in their original career trajectory; however, they ended up in the position because of supportive mentors and desire to aid in the mission of the institution (McNair, 2015; Waggoner, 2016). Perhaps, a targeted approach in identifying senior community college leaders of color is one approach to diversify the community college presidency.

Senior community college women leaders of color have experience in senior administrative positions; however, they are overwhelmingly in the senior student affairs officer position (63%). One must consider if the pipeline issues facing women of color faculty factor into the low percentage of senior academic affairs officers and senior academic and student affairs officers. Similarly, nearly half of all women of color have a doctoral degree as 29% hold a Ph.D. and 20% hold an Ed.D. The women in the sample are also participating in professional development activities as 75% participated in a program sponsored by a national organization, and 59% participated in a local leadership development program.

Essentially, women community college leaders are gaining experience in their current position (AACC, 2013; Eddy, 2010); obtaining advanced degrees Hammons & Miller, 2006; Luna, 2010; McNair, 2015) and participating in leadership development activities (Eddy et al, 2015; Nevarez & Wood, 2010; Reile & Kezar, 2010)- all of which are recommended by professional organizations dedicated to community college leadership and scholarship in the field. Women community college leaders of color have the qualifications and experience necessary to lead community colleges; however, the racialized and gendered climate in higher education needs to be addressed so that these women have an equitable opportunity to advance their careers.

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Exploring the Unique Challenges and Opportunities of Female Leaders Within the Agricultural Industry: A Panel Discussion

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Abstract

Panel discussions as a pedagogical tool allow students to engage with topics of leadership and deliver conceptual understanding in leadership education. A Women in Agricultural Leadership panel discussion was organized to help students' synthesize key concepts related to gender diversity, the organizational realities component of the Discovering Leadership Framework, and the development of positive organizational climates as authentic leaders in an agricultural leaders in society course at Oklahoma State University. For this exploratory, non-experimental study, a retrospective pre-post test evaluation survey was utilized to capture student perceptions related to key panel topics. Perceptions and awareness toward women agricultural leaders were shown to increase significantly after participation in the panel discussion, thereby generating further opportunities for positive and insightful discussion.

Introduction

A key proposition of authentic leadership theory is the creation of inclusive, caring, and engaged organizational climates by authentic leaders focused toward the development of strengths (Gardner, Avolio, Luthans, May, & Walumbwa, 2005). Positive organizational climates in which transparency and fairness are emphasized sustain authentic relationships between leaders and followers (Gardner et al., 2005). As authentic leaders strive to establish positive organizational climates, it is important they understand the realities of their organizational context. According to King, Altman, and Lee's (2011) Discovering Leadership Framework, this task is described as "understand[ing] the broader circumstances that influence your current leadership situation" (p. xvi), such as the changing relationship with customers, changing definitions of careers, the rise of globalization, technological innovations, and generational, gender, and cultural diversification of the workforce.

The personal leadership development course in the undergraduate agricultural leadership program at Oklahoma State University (Weeks & Weeks, 2006) was revised and approved as a social science credit for the university's undergraduate core curriculum in 2017. Reflective in the new title, "Agricultural Leaders in Society," the course emphasizes authentic leadership theory through analysis of agricultural leaders and societal impacts. It is a core value of the leadership program to help develop students' authenticity as leaders, with the knowledge that many enrolled

in this course will seek employment opportunities in the agricultural, food, and natural resources sector (Weeks, 2006). The relationship of organization, community, and workforce changes to leader-behavior is investigated in this course. Diversity, and in particular, gender diversity within the agricultural industry, is emphasized to develop students' potential to influence positive organizational climates. During the fall 2017 semester, a Women in Agricultural Leadership panel discussion was utilized as an innovative practice to aid student synthetization of key concepts related to gender diversity, the organizational realities component of the Discovering Leadership Framework (King, Altman, & Lee, 2011), and the development of positive organizational climates as authentic leaders (Gardner et al., 2005).

Literature Review

Research in leadership and gender has increased over the past few decades. With women increasingly entering the workforce and politics, the need has arisen to investigate and discuss the underrepresentation of women in leadership positions within organizations. The barriers women face when pursuing upper level leadership positions is described as a *leadership labyrinth* (Eagly & Carly, 2007), "conveying the impression of a journey riddled with challenges all along the way - not just near the top - that can and has been successfully navigated by women" (Northouse, 2016, p. 399). By decreasing gender stereotypes, creating equitable work environments for all genders, supporting equitable domestic responsibilities, and promoting useful negotiation and leadership styles, more effective women leaders have started to emerge within corporations and politics (Northouse, 2016).

The 2012 Census of Agriculture reported 13.6% of farms had women principal operators. However, this statistic does not account for the numerous women involved in other capacities within the agricultural industry, such as employees, educators, helpers, scientists, and spouses (Fenton, Braiser, & Henning, 2010). Literature identifies issues with work-life balance, lack of mentorship, and unsupportive organizational climates as challenges women agricultural leaders face (Albright, 2006; Fenton et al., 2010; Foster & Seevers, 2003; Trauger et al., 2008). Agricultural leadership education programs may play an important role in continuing to close the gender gap within the agricultural, food, and natural resources sector through the development of authentic leaders poised to influence and improve organizational climates.

The National Leadership Education Research Agenda (NLERA) outlines teaching, learning, and curriculum development as priority one for leadership educators, with an emphasis to identify innovative, outcomes-based teaching approaches within Leadership Education (Andenoro et. al., 2013). A variety of instructional strategies are known to be used in leadership education, with little impact on student learning reported (Allen & Hartman, 2009). Conceptual understanding, identified by Conger (1992) as one of four approaches to leadership development, "focuses on improving the individual's knowledge through exposure to the topic of leadership" (p. 48). Connecting Conger's (1992) approaches with pedagogical techniques utilized in leadership education programs, Allen and Hartman (2009) identified a panel of experts as a well-suited

source of learning to deliver conceptual understanding for learning objectives. This learning activity, henceforth referred to as a panel discussion by the authors, allows students to "listen and interact with a panel of experts who share their experience as it relates to the topic of leadership" (Allen & Hartman, 2009, p. 10). About 71% of leadership educators only use panel discussions in a third or less of their class sessions and less than 6% consider it a "top 3" teaching practice (Jenkins, 2012), even though undergraduate leadership development students have reported a preference for the instructional method (Allen & Hartman, 2009).

Conceptual Framework

This study was guided conceptually by the Discovering Leadership Framework (King et al., 2011). By integrating the relationship of an individual's leadership vision, leadership values, and leadership profile with personal and organizational realities, the Framework describes the influence these factors have on the impact and legacy of a leader (King et al., 2011) (Figure 1).

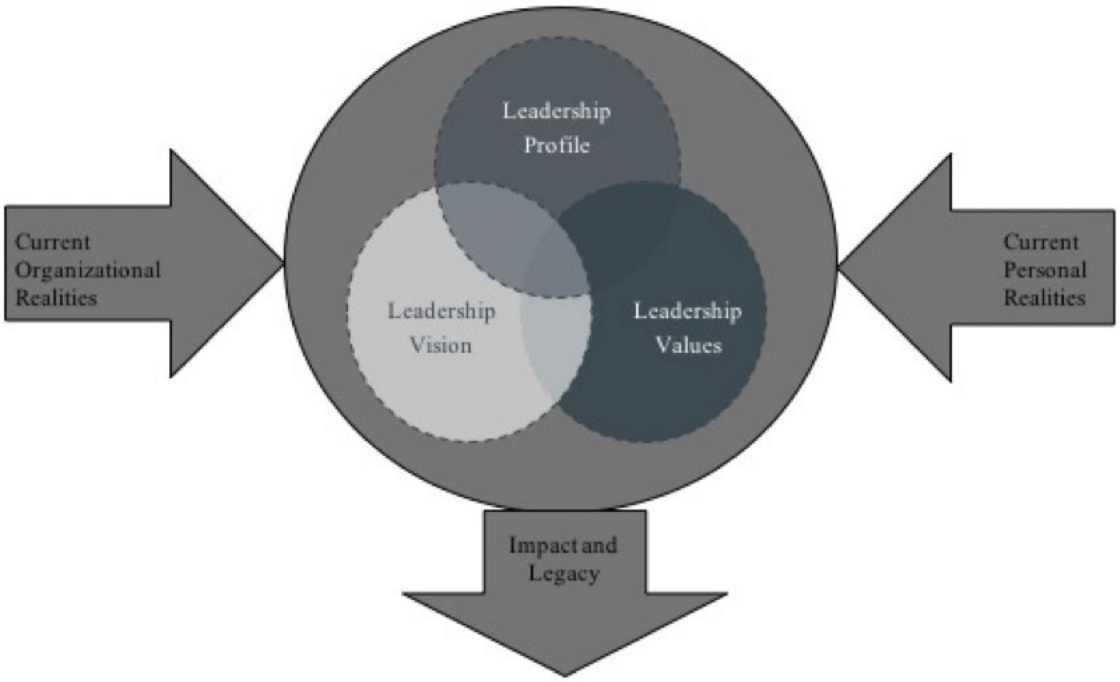

Figure 1. Discovering Leadership Framework. Adapted from Discovering the Leader in You (p. 153), by S. N. King, D. G. Altman, & R. J. Lee, 2011, San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass. Copyright 2011 by John Wiley & Sons, Inc. Adapted with permission.

The Discovering Leadership Framework (King et al., 2011) provides a model for students to follow as they move toward developing authentically as leaders. Authentic leadership is framed by Gardner et al. (2005) as interactions and relationships between leaders and followers, supported by an understanding of self-awareness and self-regulation, that contributes and

sustains each other at the cultural level of an organization. "A supportive organizational climate provides greater opportunities for authentic leadership and followership to be sustained, while potentially altering the climate itself to make it more authentic" (Avolio, 2003, as cited in Gardner et al., 2005, p. 367). By understanding the organizational realities affecting leadership, students develop the capacity to alter the organization's climate as authentic leaders.

Women in Agricultural Leadership Panel Discussion

The inaugural Women in Agricultural Leadership panel discussion was an hour and a half event organized during the fall 2017 semester for the agricultural leaders in society course at Oklahoma State University. Other agricultural leadership courses and departmental faculty, staff, and students were invited to attend. The goal of the Women in Agricultural Leadership panel discussion was to highlight the successes and contributions of women to the agricultural field, while also discussing the unique challenges to women in the industry. The panel discussion provided an opportunity for students to learn about the experiences of women agricultural leaders and engage in the continuing critical conversation of gender diversity in the agricultural industry.

Drawing on concepts from the course text, *Discovering the Leader in You* (King et al., 2011), and authentic leadership theory (Gardner et al., 2005), the inclusion of the panel discussion in the course was guided by four learning objectives:

1. Discuss and critique the panelists' leadership perspectives as compared to authentic leadership.
2. Interpret the implications of the challenges faced by women leaders in the agricultural industry.
3. Value the successes and contributions of women agricultural leaders; and,
4. Analyze and evaluate awareness of gender diversity challenges in the agricultural industry.

With the learning objectives in mind, instructors identified and reached out to four women leaders in [State] agriculture to serve as the panelists. To showcase the depth and breadth of the agricultural industry, the women were strategically chosen and represented production agriculture, government, education, commodity organizations, and public relations. All were former graduates of Oklahoma State University, holding degrees in Agricultural Leadership, Agricultural Economics, Animal Sciences, and Education. One panelist served as the executive director for a major commodity organization and check-off program, having been in the industry her entire life as a cattleman's daughter in Western [State]. Another panelist, still known as the winningest female collegiate horse judging team coach in the sport, was an administrator within the Oklahoma State University system. Following careers in financial advising and agricultural policy, the third panelist was the executive director for an agricultural youth organization and

owned a show cattle operation. The final panelist was a public relations and digital strategist with experience in agricultural youth organizations and Extension. Additionally, the women varied in age, spanning three generations of women agriculturalists, and were identified as leaders in the field by peers.

After meeting with each panelist individually to learn more about their background and leadership perspective, a formal invitation was sent and participation confirmed. A list of moderated questions and the discussion format were drafted by the instructors and provided in advance, allowing the panelists to identify priority topics they wished to discuss. Seven prompted questions tied directly to course concepts in authentic leadership and gender diversity led the panel discussion:

- How have your values and vision influenced the leadership roles you have taken on?
- What unique challenges and/or opportunities have you faced as a female leader within the agricultural industry?
- What work-life balance issues have you faced and what are your strategies for finding balance?
- What have been your most meaningful mentoring experiences, both as a mentor and a protégé?
- Do you see differences in how men and women lead?
- Have you seen changes in the relationship of men and women working together in agriculture?
- What is the most important advice you would give students entering the workforce? As women in agriculture, is there one thing you wish someone would have told you prior to entering the workforce, or is there a specific message you would like the audience to take away from the panel?

Replication notes outlining the planning and preparation timeline for the Women in Agricultural Leadership panel discussion event are referenced in Table 1.

Table 1.

Panel Discussion Planning Timeline

Month	Activities
August	● Determine date of panel discussion ● Book location for panel discussion ● Identify and contact potential panelists for preliminary meeting
September	● Meet with potential panelists to learn personal stories, career history, and leadership perspectives related to the purpose of the panel discussion

	● Mail formal invitation letter to panelists and confirm participation.
October	● Finalize set of moderated questions for the panel discussion ● Provide moderated questions to panelists by email and request for preferred questions they would like to address be identified ● Draft script and program for event ● Advertise event as necessary, and send personal invitations to identified faculty, staff, and students
November	● Email the finalized discussion outline to panelists ● Finalize and print script, program, and other materials ● Conduct panel discussion as scheduled ● Complete evaluation forms and debrief panel discussion with students at next class meeting ● Send thank you notes to panelists

During the event, each question was directed by the moderators to a panelist to begin the conversation, with up to seven minutes allotted for discussion and follow-up comments by one additional panelist. Following the moderated portion, students engaged in a question and answer period with the panel. At the conclusion of the panel discussion, a reception was held to allow students the opportunity to network informally with the four women. Table 2 outlines the format for the Women in Agricultural Leadership panel discussion.

Table 2.

Women in Agricultural Leadership Panel Discussion Format

Time	Description
9:00 a.m.	Welcome and introduction of panelists by moderators
9:10 a.m.	Prompted panel discussion
10:00 a.m.	Q&A period with the audience
10:10 a.m.	Closing thoughts from each panelist
10:15 a.m.	Reception

In the subsequent class meeting, a retrospective pre-post test evaluation survey of the Women in Agricultural Leadership panel discussion was administered as a class assignment to measure the change in student perceptions toward women in agricultural leadership positions. The class

meeting was also dedicated to debriefing the event and synthesizing the women's discussion with course concepts related to gender diversity, the organizational realities component of the Discovering Leadership Framework (King, Altman, & Lee, 2011), and students' roles as authentic leaders in building positive organizational climates (Gardner et al., 2005). Six main questions facilitated the students' in-class reflection of the Women in Agricultural Leadership panel discussion:

- What did you find most enjoyable during the Women in Agricultural Leadership panel discussion?
- Did any of your perceptions toward leadership in agriculture change? If so, how?
- What unique challenges do women face in the agricultural industry?
- How would you describe the perspectives and leadership profile of each panelist?
- What concepts from class did the panelists reinforce? Why are values and vision so important? What about diversity within organizations? How do strengths play into leadership? What concerns for work-life balance should a leader consider?
- Our panel discussion highlighted gender, generational, and individualized diversity to discuss authentic leadership. What other factors should be considered by leaders that were not included in the discussion? How do these factors impact how we lead authentically?

Methods

An exploratory, non-experimental design was utilized to describe the change in perceptions and awareness of students related to women agricultural leaders (Privitera, 2017). A convenience sample (Privitera, 2017) was utilized, consisting of students in two sections of the agricultural leaders in society course for the fall 2017 semester, as well as students enrolled in the same course for the spring 2018 semester.

The study was guided by the following research questions:

1. What were students' awareness and perceptions of women agricultural leaders before the Women in Agricultural Leadership panel discussion?
2. What were students' awareness and perceptions of women agricultural leaders after the Women in Agricultural Leadership panel discussion?
3. Did the students find the Women in Agricultural Leadership panel discussion helpful to the course?
4. Do students recommend the Women in Agricultural Leadership panel discussion for future use in the course?

Participants

Thirty-two students were enrolled in two sections of the agricultural leaders in society course during the Fall 2017 semester. In addition to these students who participated in the panel in person, the Spring 2018 section (*n* = 20) of the course viewed a recording of the panel discussion in class. The population consisted of male and female undergraduate students from several majors within the college of agricultural sciences and natural resources (Table 3). Students from all three sections of the course completed the retrospective pre-post test evaluation instrument and agreed to allow their responses to be used for the purposes of this study.

Data Collection and Analysis

In the course meeting immediately following the Women in Agricultural panel discussion, the retrospective pre-post test evaluation survey was administered as a course assignment to capture the change in students' perceptions and awareness toward women agricultural leaders. Unlike a typical pretest-posttest methodology, a retrospective pre-post test design is administered only once and captures knowledge or attitudes toward a particular subject before a program, as well as after (Davis, 2003). Additionally, literature purports this analysis method is more accurate in comparison to a traditional pretest-posttest design, as "respondents are given an opportunity to learn how much they know about a subject prior to responding to a questionnaire" (Davis, 2003, para. 4).

The instructor-developed evaluation survey consisted of twelve questions (six pre-test questions and six post-test 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 pertaining to awareness and perceptions of women agricultural leaders. The statements were developed based on the key topics identified during initial discussions with each of the four panelists, course learning objectives, and the study's research questions, and reported a Cronbach's alpha of 0.743 ($p < 0.5$), establishing internal consistency (Creswell, 2008). When reporting Cronbach's alpha, Creswell (2008) recommended looking for high positive coefficients e.g., .60 or above (Warmbrod, 2014). The panel's overall rating as helpful to the course was measured by a four-point, Likert-type scale (1 = Not Helpful, 2 = Somewhat Helpful, 3 = Helpful, 4 = Very Helpful). A bipolar rating scale (Yes/No) assessed students' recommendation of the panel discussion for future use in the course. Additional open-ended questions related to the use of the panel discussion, as well as demographic questions, were also utilized. Face and content validity were established through review by a panel of faculty experts familiar with the course learning outcomes and purpose of the panel discussion (Litwin, 2003).

Table 3.

Demographic Characteristics of Students Participating in a Women in Agricultural Leadership Panel Discussion (N = 52)

Demographics	*f*	%
Gender		
Male	14	26.9
Female	38	73.1
Undergraduate Classification[a]		
Freshman	13	25.0
Sophomore	11	21.2
Junior	20	38.5
Senior	7	13.5
Major[b]		
Agricultural Leadership	10	20.0
Agricultural Education	10	20.0
Agricultural Communications	9	18.0
Agricultural Education/Animal Science	6	12.0
Other Agriculture-related degrees	15	30.0

[a]$n = 51$; [b]$n = 50$

Quantitative data were analyzed utilizing SPSS software with frequency distributions reported (Privitera, 2017). Student responses to open-ended questions were reviewed by the instructors, with reported statements chosen to best exemplify student opinions and feedback for future events.

Limitations

Generalizability is noted as a limitation of the exploratory, non-experimental study. Although changes in perceptions and awareness toward women in agricultural leadership were reported by the study's participants following the Women in Agricultural Leadership panel discussion, causation cannot be inferred.

Results

The retrospective pre-post test evaluation instrument sought to compare students' perceptions toward the key topics addressed during the panel discussion. There was an increase in agreement between pre-test and post-test perceptions for the six items related to: (a) awareness of the unique challenges and opportunities faced by female leaders within the industry, (b) understanding of potential issues related to work-life balance, (c) understanding of the benefits of positive mentoring experiences, (d) understanding of how relationships between men and women working together in the agricultural industry has changed over the years, (e) differences in how men and women lead, and (f) diversity awareness (Table 4).

Table 4.

Student Pre- and Post-Test Perceptions Toward Women Agricultural Leaders

	Strongly Agree and Agree[a]			
	Pre-Test		*Post-Test*	
Statements	*f*	%	*f*	%
I am aware of the unique challenges and opportunities that female leaders within the agricultural industry face.	32	61.6	50	93.4
I have an understanding of the potential issues related to work-life balance and strategies for achieving balance.	32	61.6	47	90.4
I have an understanding of the benefits of effective mentoring experiences.	25	48.1	48	92.3
I have an understanding of how the relationship between men and women working together in the agricultural industry has changed over the years.	26	50.0	50	96.2

I believe there are differences in the way men and women lead.	25	48.0	39	75.0
I am aware of the differences diversity (gender, generational, cultural, etc.) creates in the workplace.	40	76.9	51	98.1

Note. A five-point, Likert-type scale (1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neutral, 4 = Agree, and 5 = Strongly Agree) was utilized to assess students' level of agreement with statements pertaining to perceptions and awareness of women agricultural leaders.

[a]Summated responses of "Strongly Agree" (5) and "Agree" (4).

Of all the students who completed the evaluation survey, 88.5% (n = 46) reported they would recommend the use of the panel discussion for future classes and believed the overall presentation was either 'helpful' (n = 20) or 'very helpful' (n = 26).

In addition to completing the retrospective pre-post test section of the evaluation survey, students also shared their thoughts about the panel discussion via the open-ended response questions. Specifically regarding their opinions of the panelists, as well as additional thoughts or comments, several students provided very positive insight. Qualities such as "being relatable," having "numerous experiences," and providing "real-life examples" were cited on numerous occasions and appeared to help establish relevance with the panelists. Listed below are several selected responses which the researchers believe best exemplified the spirit of the panel discussion.

- "I found that [panelist's] experiences were very diverse and she had lots of experience in a variety of environments (& discussed personal life)."
- "Truly, I enjoyed each of their perspectives. They built well off each other, and were not afraid to voice it if they believed differently from each other. I also liked that they were in different places in their careers/personal lives. LOVED hearing from them as professionals and moms, so neat as someone who wants to be both!"
- "I thought [panelist] was the most effective. I just felt really connected to her and the jobs that she's had are one's that I would be interested in, and she kind of reminded me of my mom."
- "I think it is very helpful to see that you don't have to be from a certain background or be a certain gender to be a leader."
- "I get much more out of interactive, "real-life" presentations like this than just simple classes or professional lectures. Plus I am a woman seeking a career in the Ag field, so I value their advice and benefit from hearing their experiences."

In addition to providing input via the evaluation survey, students also completed a debriefing exercise at the end of the subsequent class meeting, where they were asked to write their "biggest takeaways" from the panel. Listed below are selected responses.

- "The biggest thing I've learned from the women in agriculture panel was that there are so many leadership styles being put into play throughout the industry, and that none of them are wrong, they just have a specific place in a specific job. All the women were great and gave me a further insight into what it looks like to be a woman in agriculture."
- "I really enjoyed hearing the differences in the workplace for men and women. My favorite line that I agreed with was 'I will hire the best person.' Who cares race, color, male or female. I will hire the best."
- "I thought it was very interesting how the women brought up the topic that sometimes other women are the ones who don't want to see them succeed. We talk about the challenges of working with men but often overlook that working with/for women is even more challenging."
- "My 'big takeaway' from the women in ag leadership panel is that women still face issues and obstacles in the ag industry. Coming from California, I was oblivious to the fact that minorities face obstacles still since it is embraced in California. Since I am looking to move to Oklahoma or Texas or Kansas etc., this was a big eye opener for me."
- "Be authentically you! Do not let stereotypes define you, and be the person you would like to be."

Discussion/Conclusion

Over the course of the semester, students gain conceptual understanding related to the organizational realities of leadership, with particular emphasis given to examining generational, gender, and cultural diversity within the workplace. It appears that students enjoyed participating in the inaugural Women in Agricultural Leadership panel discussion and were able to broaden their perspectives pertaining to the unique challenges and opportunities that women within the agricultural industry experience. Results of the retrospective pre-post test evaluation survey indicate that students' perceptions and awareness of women agricultural leaders were significantly enhanced after participation in the panel discussion. This activity also afforded the opportunity to encourage meaningful and timely conversations regarding the leadership roles of women within the agricultural workforce. By developing a stronger understanding and awareness of the organizational climate and realities for women in the agricultural industry, authentic student leaders may positively impact the culture as they enter the field.

Northouse (2016) contends that gender-based leadership research contradicts stereotypic expectations, concluding women and men leaders do not differ in effectiveness or style. However, the perceptions of students in this study reveal the inverse; after the Women in Agricultural Leadership panel discussion, three-fourths of the students believed there were differences in the way men and women lead. This finding presents the opportunity for instructors

to incorporate more intentional discussions based on literature related to gender differences in leadership in future course offerings to address the leadership gap experienced by women.

Although a positive shift occurred in the awareness of students toward the differences diversity creates in the workplace, the change indicated the least amount of difference compared to the other statements on the evaluation survey. Authentic leaders must be able to recognize the contributions of gender, generational, and cultural diversity to the overall organizational climate to understand complex issues and promote collaboration (King et al., 2011). Diversity in the workplace is another key area instructors identified as an opportunity for improvement in the course curriculum.

Awareness and understanding of how the relationship between men and women working together in the agricultural industry has changed over the years increased the most among students participating in the panel discussion. In 2009, Boushey and O'Leary predicted the upcoming decade to be transformational in recognizing women's contributions to the workforce. Now, as the end of the decade is nearing, women compromise more than 50 percent of the employee pool, increasing the need for authentic leaders to recognize and support gender diversity within organizations.

Recommendations/Implications

By completing the evaluation survey after participation in the Women in Agricultural Leadership panel discussion, students were able to provide recommendations for potential speakers at future panel discussions, as well as suggestions for improvement. Panelist suggestions included state representatives of Farm Bureau, representatives of state commodity organizations, state legislators, representatives of the state Department of Agriculture, and Dr. Temple Grandin. Additionally, several students suggested hosting a men in agricultural leadership, or mixed-gender, panel discussion, in order to examine both male and female perspectives of leadership within the industry. Topic recommendations included suggestions for transitioning into the workforce, making a difference within the agricultural industry as a college student, detailing the pathways each panelist followed to arrive at their current career opportunities, and additional advice for achieving work-life balance. Lastly, suggestions were made pertaining to the format of the panel discussion: several students voiced the concern that they were unable to participate in the one-on-one discussions held after the initial panel due to interference with their class schedules. The suggestion was made to offer the panel in the evening in order to afford students the opportunity to interact with panelists on a more personal level.

Recommendations for future research

While literature has shown that less than 6% of leadership educators consider panel discussions as a "top 3" teaching practice (Jenkins, 2012), even though a preference for the method has been exhibited by undergraduate leadership development students (Allen & Hartman, 2009), this study has provided support for the use of panel discussions as a viable teaching strategy. Recommendations for future research include continued implementation and subsequent analysis of future panel discussions highlighting the challenges and opportunities of leaders within the agricultural industry. A comparison study is suggested to examine student perceptions regarding a men in agricultural leadership panel discussion.

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ROUNDTABLES

Moving Beyond Polarization to Support Leadership Innovation and Inclusion
Gina S. Matkin, Associate Professor, University of Nebraska; Donnette Noble, Associate Professor, Roosevelt University

The Mindful Educator: Recognizing Cultural Dimensions in the Classroom
Ryan Olson, Instructor; Brett Whitaker, Assistant Professor, Fort Hays State University Department of Leadership Studies

The Culminating Experience: Sharing Innovative Best Practices for Graduate Leadership Program Capstones
Steven L. Winton, Director of MA Leadership and Organizational Development program, Saint Louis University; Patrick J. Hughes, Program Director of Justice Leadership and Management, University of Baltimore

Using Feature Films as an Instructional Medium to Teach Organizational Behavior, Leadership and Management
Todd Wiggen, Assistant Professor, Southwestern Oklahoma State University

Exploring Tenure Processes in Leadership Studies
Jill Arensdorf, Ph.D., Chair and Associate Professor; Justin Greenleaf, Assistant Professor; Brent Goertzen, Professor, Fort Hays State University; Barry Boyd, Associate Professor, Texas A&M University

Leadership research for global goals: What's the role of the SDGs?
Natalie Coers, Program Coordinator, University of Florida

Cougar Tank: An Educational Entrepreneurial Leadership Program
Dr. Claudia Santin, Dean, College of Business; Donna Blaess, Professor, Leadership; Kathryn Hollywood, Professor, Leadership, Concordia University-Chicago

What are Funds of Knowledge? A Collaborative Approach to Leadership Education
Janna Bernstein, Assistant Director of Leadership and Scholar Development, University of Nevada, Las Vegas

A Mindful University: Relational Leadership, Mindfulness, and Shared Governance
Timothy W. Pedigo, Assistant Professor; Matthew A. Cooney, Assistant Professor, Governors State University

Exploring Adaptive Leadership as a Tool for Building Leadership Capacity in Sorority and Fraternity Leaders
Jack Causseaux, Director of Sorority and Fraternity Affairs; Anthony Andenoro, Assistant Professor, University of Florida

Conflict Analysis and Resolution Skills: The Gap in Leadership Education

Jessica Benson, Graduate Teaching Assistant; Rachel Eddowes, Graduate Teaching Assistant, Texas A&M University

The Intersection of Leadership Studies and Family Communication Theory: Implications for Undergraduate Pedagogy
Zachary Wooten, Ph.D. Student, Alvernia University

A Discussion of MOOCs and Fully Online Courses: Recommendations for Facilitating Inclusion and Connection through Web-based Learning
Jason Headrick, Graduate Teaching Assistant/Instructor; Tiffani N. Luethke, Graduate Student Assistant/Instructor, University of Nebraska-Lincoln

Leadership & Civil Discourse: Helping Students Understand the Relationship in the Current Environment
John Sherlock, Professor, Western Carolina University

Leadership Education for Increased Will-Power and Way-Power: Incorporating Hope
James E. Lee, Graduate Teaching Assistant; Susan Burton, Assistant Professor of Practice, University of Nebraska-Lincoln

Developing a Diverse and Inclusive Leadership Environment: Advice from the Field
Hannah Sunderman, Doctoral Research Assistant; Nick Knopik, Graduate Assistant, University of Nebraska-Lincoln

Teaching Global Leadership: Integrating Cultural Competency and International Leadership Education
Tara Widner-Edberg, Lecturer of Leadership Studies, Iowa State University

Rural youth leadership development: Focusing on youth in central Appalachia
Daniel P. Collins, Graduate Assistant; Jackie Bruce, Associate Professor, North Carolina State University

Nonprofits Shoulder Increasing Responsibilities: How Are We Educating Their Leaders?
Christine H. Shaefer, Ph.D., Faculty, Federal Executive Institute; Robert McKeage, Professor, University of Scranton; Gregory T. Gifford, Dean, Federal Executive Institute

Student Experiences Within Leadership and Social Justice Programs
Coleman Simpson, Student; Dr. Jackie Bruce, Associate Professor; Dr. Katie McKee, Faculty, North Carolina State University

Leadership Education Innovation for Gen Y and Gen I: Enhancing Experience, Engagement and Knowledge Retention Through Interactive Digital Technology
Elizabeth Goryunova, Assistant Professor, University of Southern Maine

Advancing Leadership Education through Community-Engaged Scholarship

Kerry L. Priest, Assistant Professor; RJ Youngblood, Assistant Director, Academic Achievement Center, Kansas State University

First gen again: Exploring the Journey from First-Generation Undergraduate to First-Generation Graduate Student in Leadership Studies

Ashlee Young, Coordinator, Emerging Leaders Scholarship Program; Gina S. Matkin, Associate Professor, University of Nebraska-Lincoln

Moving Beyond Polarization to Support Leadership Innovation and Inclusion

Abstract

College campuses, historically bastions of intellectual and social discourse, are experiencing increased social and political polarization and eroding civility. Our campus communities, reflecting the culture at large, are becoming gradually more polarized in our own interactions. This can be seen in the classroom and is evidenced in social interactions as well as campus-wide conversations (guest speakers, etc.). The purpose of this roundtable is to present strategies for helping our students engage in difficult conversations with civility in ways that are not polarized while helping them be open to listening to multiple perspectives. We would like to share our successful experiences and open the dialog to others to help us all learn how to help students engage in ways that create a more inclusive environment.

Background

"That which unites us…is far greater than that which divides us…" ~Adlai Stevenson (1952)

The one-time Chicago lawyer turned Illinois governor turned notable statesman offered the words above in a concession speech after the first of his two unsuccessful runs for the White House. While idealists, scholars, and others may concur with his sentiments, there is a preponderance of research and evidence to the contrary. Conflict and division is omnipresent and since the second half of the twentieth century conflicts within national boundaries have increased (Esteban, Mayoral, & Ray, 2012). In the United States (US) there is an "ignorance of our shared history" (Marable, 2006, p. 6) and the Southern Poverty Law Center (SPLC) has reported an uptick in the number of active hate groups operating in the US. Not only are the number of hate groups operating at near-historic highs (Potok, 2017) in the US, the Anti-Defamation League (ADL) has reported a "surge in leaflets and posters from [W]hite supremacist groups" on college and university campuses (Jaschik, 2018, para. 1). Previously, incidents of the supremacist propaganda were relatively rare and the ADL did not even start tracking them until late in the year in 2016. In the fall of 2017, 147 such incidents were reported as compared to 41 the year before; to date, 346 have taken place (Jaschik, 2018).

From coast-to-coast, colleges and universities are microcosms of US society. A society that is rich in diversity but does not always understand *otherness* and is not always willing to embrace or celebrate cultures that are unfamiliar is not living up to its full potential. Diversity "is not a liberal ideological movement, to be supported or resisted…it is a reality" (Gardenswartz & Rowe, 2008, p. 35).

Hofstede, Hofstede, and Minkov (2010) define culture as a collective phenomenon that involves the "programming of the mind which distinguishes one group or category of people from another" (p. 6). The basic function of any culture is to guide its members in terms of their linguistics, heritage, dress, traditions, rituals, and symbols, and it serves as the lens through which members view themselves and the world around them. In sum, culture is comprised of visible artifacts, but at a hidden or more subjective level culture is expressed as values (the fundamental tenets that shape who people are); beliefs (the truths people believe to be self-evident that are based on their values); attitudes (a navigational term meaning "orientation or

position" and they provide the direction for people's beliefs; and behaviors (the manifestations of people's beliefs).

While Hofstede's work is important, it may also provide a "cautionary tale" about over-emphasis on what makes "us" different from "them" and an overemphasis on cultural homogeneity (Dorfman & Howell, 1998). Although an important body of work, it is important to ensure that learners are developmentally ready to discuss such global differences without devolving into an us/them pattern that ignores cultural variation.

This is where the work of Milton Bennett has proven useful in our work. Our discussion's overall objective is to help participants consider this model (or others they find useful) as means to help us be mindful of our teaching style, how we communicate to students about issues related to diversity, and how we overtly teach them to use the tools of our trade to communicate in more inclusive and open ways.

Primary Objectives of the Presentation and Discussion

Understanding those who are different from oneself can be thought of in terms of a greater awareness of intercultural sensitivity (Bennett, 1993). Intercultural sensitivity can be further defined in terms of various stages of personal growth. Bennett's (1993) model, the Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity (DMIS), posits a continuum of increasing sophistication in dealing with cultural differences whereby people move from an "ethnocentric" perspective through dimensions or stages of greater recognition and acceptance of difference toward an "ethnorelative" perspective. Utilizing this framework, the primary objectives of this roundtable discussion are:

1) To help us support students' increased understanding of a diverse and global cultural lens, and to learn to navigate what can sometimes be termed as "difficult conversations" when they arise.
2) To learn how to support students who are concerned and feel unsafe
3) As leadership educators, learn to be role models and help our students to:
    a. See multiple perspectives (rather than polarizing)
    b. Engage in (not shy away from) talking about challenging content by framing conversation in more "culturally competent" ways (using the DMIS framework)
    c. Learn to help students connect with others in more positive ways.

Bennett's (1993) "ethnorelativism" assumptions postulate that cultures can only be understood relative to one another and the particular behaviors can only be understood within a culture's context; one's own culture is not any more central to reality than any other culture. Further, there are no absolute standards of "rightness" or "goodness" that can fundamentally be applied to cultural behavior. (The various stages of both "ethnocentrism" and "ethnorelativism" are presented in a diagram in the Appendix.)

The underlying assumption of the model is that as one's experience of cultural differences becomes more sophisticated, one's competence in intercultural relations increases. Using an elaboration of grounded theory, observations are organized into a continuum of six stages of

increasing sensitivity to cultural differences. Each stage is indicative of a particular worldview configuration and certain attitudes and behaviors are typically associated with each stage. The stages are:

1) **Denial**--one's own culture is experienced as the only "real" culture and consideration of other cultures is avoided by maintaining psychological or physical isolation from differences.

2) **Defense/reversal**--one's own culture and the other are "polarized." Defense organizes cultures into "us and them," where the "us" is superior and the "them" is inferior. People at Defense are threatened by cultural difference, so they tend to be highly critical of other cultures and apt to blame cultural difference for general ills of society. In Reversal, one's own culture is heavily criticized, while other cultures are perceived in relatively non-critical, romanticized ways. The intercultural worldview is still polarized, but the poles are reversed.

3) **Minimization**--cultural difference indicates an experience in which elements of one's own cultural worldview are perceived as universal. People assume that their own physical or psychological experiences are shared by people in all cultures, and/or that certain basic values and beliefs transcend cultural boundaries. The stressing of cross-cultural similarity reduces Defense, and is a necessary stage to help establish meaningful connections, as people here are much more tolerant of some aspects of cultural diversity. However, Minimization obscures deep cultural differences and makes an assumption that the universal is "my culture."

4) **Acceptance**--other cultures are included in this experience as equally complex but possessing a different construction of reality. Acceptance involves organizing values, beliefs, and behaviors into contextual categories that differentiate one set from another. What is accepted at this stage is the equal but different complexity of others.

5) **Adaptation**--one attains the ability to shift perspectives in and out of another cultural worldview. During this stage people tend to think or act outside their own cultural context. At this point adaptation takes the form of cognitive frame shifting when one attempts to embrace the perspective of another culture and people expand their repertoire of behavior so that it becomes appropriate to various cultural contexts; an adaptation to other cultures occurs without any conscious intention to do so. This is also referred to as "cultural empathy."

Foreseeable Implications

If we can help our students (and each other) see beyond polarization and begin to engage with each other in more holistic ways we will affect not only their experiences but also those with whom they interact and, ultimately, the campus culture at large. Moving beyond polarization paralysis is an essential skill for all leaders in this increasingly diverse and globalized world and one that we believe is essential for leadership educators to practice and teach.

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Appendix/Handout for the Presentation

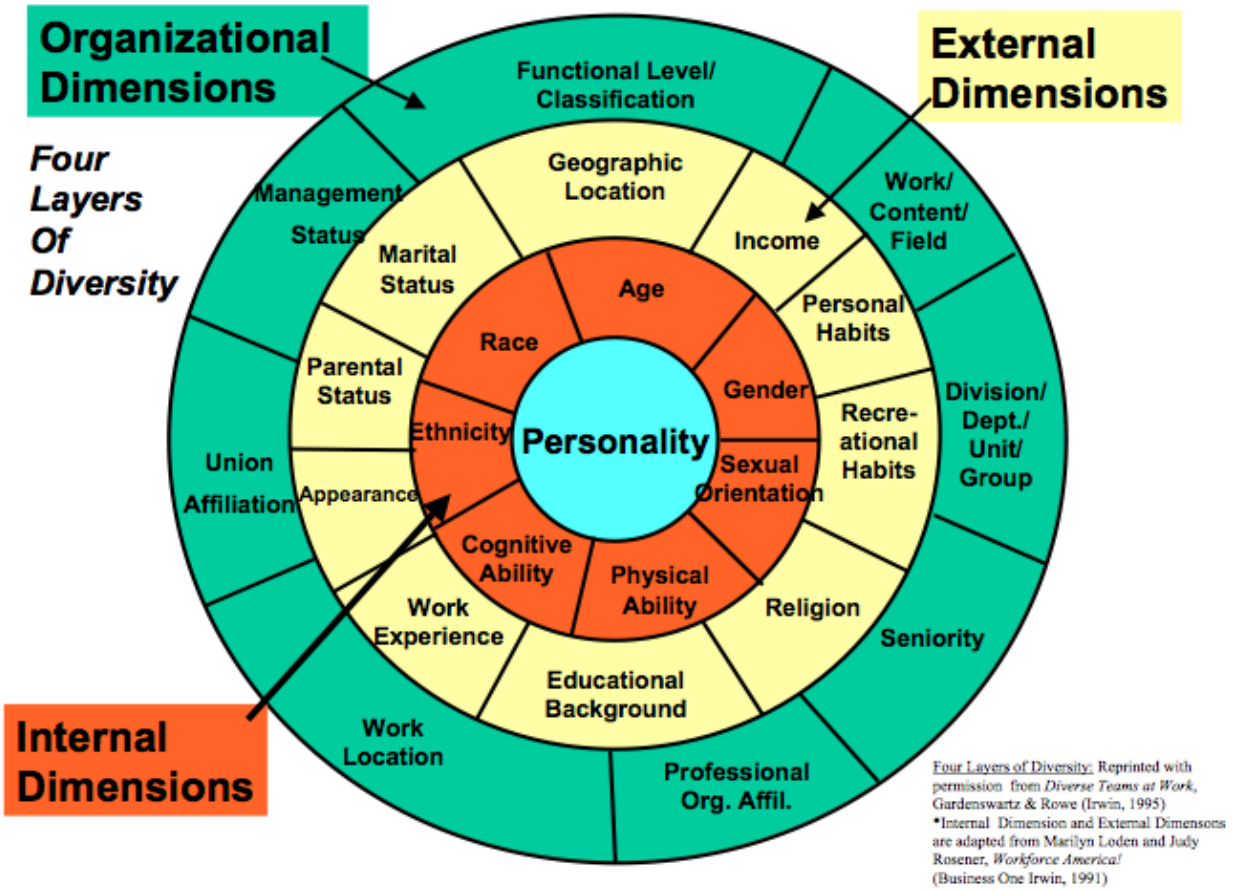

Figure 1: Internal and External Dimensions of Diversity, Adapted by Gardenswartz & Rowe, 1995

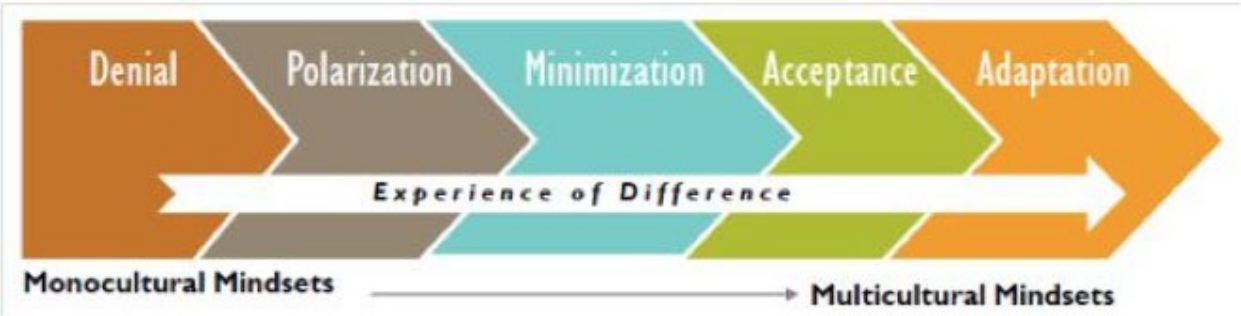

Figure 2: Bennett's Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity, Bennett, 1993

The Mindful Educator: Recognizing Cultural Dimensions in the Classroom

Abstract

As leadership educators are increasingly called upon to interact with diverse learners in a variety of cross-cultural settings, it is imperative for those educators to consider the cultural dimensions that impact the classroom dynamic. In this roundtable, the presenters will share dimensions of culture that are critically impactful in the learning environment and ground those dimensions in examples drawn from teaching an Organizational Leadership program in China. Participants will come away with tools for being mindful of cultural dynamics in their classrooms, and how to better bridge divides that may emerge from working with culturally diverse learners.

Introduction

The field of leadership education is increasingly prominent in higher education. As part of the expansion of the field, educators are increasingly offering coursework and educational opportunities to learners from diverse cultural backgrounds. In particular, the opportunity for cross-cultural and cross-border educational programs is a promising and growing element of the field. This emphasis aligns with a broader shift in higher education toward learning outcomes associated with global competence. As Musil (2006) indicates, intercultural knowledge and competence are essential learning outcomes for all majors, and leadership as a field is no exception. Despite the obvious benefits that cross-cultural exchange can bring to the learning environment, it is important for educators to recognize the cultural divides that can emerge. As Gudykunst and Ting-Toomey (1998) described, culture is, "the way of life, customs, and script of a group of people," and when scripts between educators and learners are different, challenges can arise.

As leadership educators increasingly are called upon to engage with diverse learner groups, these leadership educators have a responsibility to consider their pedagogy and curricular design in respect to cultural dimensions of learners that might be different from the educator's cultural dimensions. To fulfill this need, this roundtable presentation will focus on four dimensions, as defined by House (2004) and his colleagues in the GLOBE study. Presenters will share first-hand, learning experiences gained from teaching and administering a large population (approximately 1,400 learners), Organizational Leadership program in China. Examples shared from presenters will help illustrate methods by which other educators can be mindful of in teaching and necessary classroom presences when working with learners from a culture that is different from their own.

Background

Several areas of existing scholarship inform the current topic addressed in this roundtable. First, and perhaps most important, is the research supporting the existence of culture and the fact that culture can be understood through dimensions. Early work in this area includes the contributions of Hall (1976) regarding individualism, Bartlett and Ghoshal (2000) concerning the nature of how change is influenced by culture, and Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck (1961) who studied the nature of how different cultures are past, present, or future-oriented.

Of all the research available on culture, by far the most often cited is the work of Hofstede (1980, 2001) and his colleagues. Hofstede studied more than 50 countries and surveyed more than 100,000 individuals to build a database of perspectives on how individuals in those countries oriented themselves to the world. Hofstede's work resulted in five dimensions on which cultures potentially differ: uncertainty avoidance, power distance, masculinity-femininity, individualism-collectivism, and long-term vs short-term orientation.

In addition to Hofstede, another widely cited scholarly contribution to understanding dimensions of culture is the work of Robert House (2004) and his colleagues through the Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness, or GLOBE, program. The GLOBE research program has involved the responses of more than 17,000 individuals from 62 different countries from around the world, and similar to Hofstede's work, developed a set of dimensions upon which cultures are distinct from one another. GLOBE researchers have identified nine dimensions: uncertainty avoidance, power distance, in-group collectivism, institutional collectivism, gender egalitarianism, assertiveness, future orientation, performance orientation, and humane orientation. Of course, this is simply a brief and narrow selection of the significant literature that is available on cultures and their dimensions. For the purpose of this roundtable, the presenters will be utilizing dimensions of culture identified as part of GLOBE.

Finally, it is appropriate to recognize the existing scholarship that contributes to our understanding of learning and pedagogy. As indicated by such work as Bergan's (1991) research into teacher measurement and planning, and Fuchs and Fuchs (1986) contributions to formative evaluation, it is well established that instructors who modify their teaching to adapt to their learners' readiness are more successful. It seems obvious that as leadership educators, we should be considering the nature of our learners and their cultural orientations as we design learning opportunity and classroom engagement.

Primary Objectives of Presentation

The primary objective of this presentation is to introduce participants to the nature of how cultural differences of learners shape the approaches of instructors. Drawing from experiences offering Leadership Studies curriculum to learners in China, the presenters will offer a closer examination of four dimensions of cultural importance when drafting curriculum: (1) uncertainty avoidance, (2) in-group collectivism, (3) power distance, and (4) future orientation.

Examples of how each dimension can be assessed, especially in a Chinese learning environment, can significantly impact the instructor's pedagogy and teaching methods; thus are illustrated with, but not restricted only to, the following:

(1) Uncertainty avoidance is characterized (House et al., 2004) as the way cultures use rules, structures, and laws to make things more predictable and less uncertain. Cultures with low uncertainty avoidance have the mentality of being more stress-free, entrepreneurial, and relatively calm. In contrast, cultures with high uncertainty avoidance are faced with strict rules and structure; however, are faced with how extensive they will abide by rules and structure, depending upon each individual's cultural factors and situation at hand.

(2) In-Group collectivism is the extent to which people are devoted to their in-group. It refers to the degree to which people express pride, loyalty, and cohesiveness in their organizations or families (House et al., 2004). China has traditionally been considered a highly collectivist society, but Wong (2001) proposed that Chinese citizens and learners were not collectivists, rather than individualists with group orientations.

(3) Power distance is a dimension that describes the degree to which members of a group expect and agree that power should be shared unequally (House et al., 2004). People in societies exhibiting a large degree of power distance accept a hierarchical order in which everybody has a place and which needs no further justification. In societies with low Power Distance, people strive to equalize the distribution of power and demand justification for inequalities of power.

(4) Future orientation describes the extent to which people engage in future-oriented behaviors such as planning, investing in the future, and delaying gratification (House et al., 2004). Chinese learners show an ability to adapt traditions easily to changed conditions, with a strong propensity to save and invest. This implies that dedication towards achieving results cannot be easily dissuaded from Chinese learners, and that persistence and tenacity should be embraced as opportunities for teaching and learning.

Throughout the roundtable presentation, presenters will share examples of these dimensions and how the dimensions have influenced the classroom environment from their personal experiences. For example, concerning collectivism and uncertainty avoidance, presenters will discuss how these two dimensions can shape the interactions between learners and the professor. An educator who is not mindful of a particular cultural dynamic could perceive Chinese learners as hesitant, lacking in confidence, and ill-prepared for the classroom. In contrast, traditional Chinese learners could perceive an American educator as overly aggressive and utilizing far too much individual pedagogy.

As shown in the literature on dimensions of culture, different learner groups will have different orientations to culture across these dimensions. This presentation introduces the concept of "cultural clusters" to participants. "Cultural clusters broadly define general orientations to these cultural dimensions by country. The objective, therefore, is for participants who are engaged in cross-cultural education to be more mindful of how these dimensions might influence their learners and to shape their pedagogy appropriately.

Foreseeable Implications

If successful, this presentation will increase the mindfulness of educators towards the impact and consequences of teaching learners in a cross-cultural environment. Participants will not only learn from the historical and personal examples of experienced educators in a Chinese learner environment, but participants will gain tools for being able to understand their own learners in a multitude of cross-cultural situation in which they may be teaching. Ultimately, it is the objective of the presenters to positively impact the learning and classroom environment of leadership educators working in all manner of cross-cultural situations.

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The Culminating Experience: Sharing Innovative Best Practices for Graduate Leadership Program Capstones

Abstract

Over the past two decades, scholars in the field of leadership have worked to establish standards pertaining to the development of leadership education and degree programs. While the thesis has been the conventional culminating assessment utilized in master's-level graduate programs, graduate leadership programs have tended to adopt a more applied capstone project. The measurable parts of the capstone, however, may vary from program to program. Grounded in a recent study, facilitators share insight and results from the identified competencies of graduate leadership programs as they relate to complexity leadership theory. The purpose of this roundtable discussion is to spark dialogue around innovative best practices for the graduate leadership program capstone experience and the application of those competencies.

Introduction

As leadership programs continue to carve their niche in academia, there is increasing headwind behind leadership becoming its own discipline (Andenoro, et al., 2013). Toward that goal, we recently explored the competencies of online, master's-level leadership programs against the context of complexity leadership theory (CLT). The organization of tomorrow will require emergent, systemic leadership that continuously innovates and learns (Lichtenstein, Uhl-Bien, Marion, Seers, Orton & Schreiber, 2006; Osborn, Hunt & Jauch, 2002; Schneider & Somers, 2006). This is a challenging proposition for the education of tomorrow's leaders and even more difficult to translate into an applied, culminating capstone project.

While there has been published research on the undergraduate leadership capstone (e.g., Gifford, Cannon, Stedman, & Telg, 2011; Moore, Odom, & Wied, 2011), we could find little that specifically focuses on the culminating experience within master's-level leadership programs. The capstone experience, at the undergraduate level, is intended to allow for reflection and integration of material (Gardner & Van der Veer, 1998). Traditionally, however, a graduate, master's-level "capstone" means conducting a research based thesis - although, for leadership programs it is not uncommon to find non-thesis options such as an applied capstone. In this roundtable discussion, we want to spur a conversation around the culminating experience in *graduate, master's-level leadership programs*. What is the current state of the culminating graduate leadership "thesis" and what innovative approaches are being utilized to apply leadership competencies?

Background

One of International Leadership Association's (n.d.) overarching guiding questions for leadership program development is to articulate a conceptual leadership framework. While there is not a standard set of competencies for graduate level leadership programs, Shoup (2016) has advocated for CLT as a unifying paradigm. CLT offers a holistic framework that understands the future demands for innovative, inclusive, and adaptive leadership, while also encompassing the more administrative features as well (Schneider & Somers, 2006; Uhl-Bien & Marion, 2009; Uhl-Bien, Marion, & McKelvey, 2007). Hence, CLT treats leadership as much as a systemic

variable as a personal one (Weberg, 2013). In our review of online, master's-level graduate leadership programs we identified the following broad leadership competencies as they relate to CLT:

- Strategic-Thinking
- Continuous Improvement and Operational Efficiency
- Organizational Culture
- Creative Problem-Solving and Conflict Management
- Innovation and Organizational Learning
- Research, Evidence-based Decision Making and Ethics

We found considerable alignment of many of these competencies among the programs reviewed, providing evidence that graduate leadership programs are rooted in analogous frameworks. One defining element of consistency among programs was that competencies of "research, evidence based decision making, and ethics" were evident across all graduate leadership programs reviewed. It could easily be argued, however, that these are competencies any graduate student should possess (i.e., not just leadership graduate students). These foundational graduate competencies are often applied and assessed through a traditional research-based thesis, yet the same cannot necessarily be said for many of the other identified leadership competencies, such as strategic-thinking or organizational learning.

Means for Discussion

We will start this session with a quick round of introductions and an overview of the goals for the session, which are centered around the graduate capstone experience. The session will progress through three core questions where roundtable participants will be invited to share their experiences and ideas. Facilitators will share results of their benchmark review (i.e., handouts) to stimulate ideas around the application of leadership competencies necessary for the complexity of the modern organization (CLT). Participants will be asked to:

- Explore how graduate leadership programs are having students integrate important leadership competencies into their capstones (i.e., what are programs currently doing in capstones?)
- Identify any leadership competencies that should be universally applied and can be measured within a master's level capstone (i.e., is there a set of core leadership competencies that students must demonstrate)
- Identify the barriers that work against having a truly innovative graduate capstone, as well as where graduate level leadership goes from here

Foreseeable Implications

We foresee a few implications as a result of this roundtable discussion. First, it may provide practitioners more solidified, innovative examples of capstone projects for their graduate leadership programs. Secondly, it would further add to the "research" aspect often associated with supporting and identifying an area of study (i.e. leadership) as a true discipline. Lastly, we believe it will stimulate the creation of more innovative capstones - capstones that call for students to integrate competencies of forward-focused leadership frameworks.

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Using Feature Films as an Instructional Medium to Teach Organizational Behavior, Leadership and Management

Abstract

The purpose of this roundtable presentation is to explore the use of feature films to illustrate theories and concepts in leadership education and related disciplines. Feature films serve as a tool to assist students in understanding concepts, introduce difficult subject matter, and demonstrate both positive and negative behaviors. The use of feature films provides a powerful pedagogical device that can pull students into a topic, provide a focal point for analysis and serve as a common experience for discussion. Participants will discuss potential applications of utilizing feature films as well as generate suggestions for specific films.

Introduction

The use of feature films provides an instructor additional tools in teaching theories, concepts, and issues in a number of disciplines, including leadership, organizational behavior and management. Numerous articles published in academic journals and textbooks discuss the use of movies to illustrate theories and concepts in many disciplines. While the use of film to assist teaching is not new, it still presents a fairly novel approach to communicate unfamiliar topics as compared to more traditional methods. Popular movies act as symbolic representation of what is happening during a particular time period (Cook & Bacot, 1993). As a result, a movie such as *The Big Short* provides an examination of finance and ethics, *Remember the Titans* allows the discussion of diversity, stereotypes and team building, *The Breakfast Clubs* observes interpersonal communications and *We Were Soldiers* demonstrates aspects of leadership theory.

This roundtable presentation will offer a short introduction to the uses of film in teaching leadership and related disciplines (organizational behavior, interpersonal communication, management and ethics), including a variety of assignment types and suggested titles. Following the brief presentation, discussion will include potential film titles and topics, current practices, and brainstorming additional uses of film in leadership studies and related disciplines.

Objectives

1) Introduce the use of film as pedagogy.
2) Develop a list of films appropriate to the study of leadership.
3) Discuss methods of incorporating film into homework assignments and classroom discussions.

Background

Educators in a variety of disciplines use feature films as part of their courses: Communication (Proctor & Adler, 1991); Criminal Justice (Cook & Bacot, 1993; Oliver, 2011); Management (Bumpus, 2005; Bell, 2008; Champoux, 2001; Pandey, 2012); Counseling (Higgins & Dermer, 2001); Ethics (Teays, 2017); Foreign Policy (Kuzma & Haney, 2001); Organizational Behavior (Champoux, 2015; Smith, 2009); International Studies (Boyer, 2002); Cultural Competency

(Kelly, 2012), and Leadership (Reed, 2016). Feature films serve as another tool to assist students in understanding concepts, introduce difficult subject matter, and demonstrate both positive and negative behaviors. The use of feature films, documentaries, and television shows can enrich active learning and appeal to different learning styles (Neilson, Pillai, & Watson, 2003; Pandey, 2012). Films also have the advantage of being a more globalized medium than other forms of popular culture, is relatively accessible when compared to academic journals, and provides similarity to qualitative research as both rely on narrative processes (Bell, 2008).

Students today have grown up inundated with popular culture and educators should include popular culture in their instructional toolbox (Trier, 2006). Instructors teach in a culture dominated by movies, television series and other visual media (Kuzma & Haney, 2001). Students today spend a majority of their time with audiovisual mediums, particularly through online avenues such as YouTube and Netflix. Film, therefore, is a powerful pedagogical tool that can draw students into a topic, providing a focal point for analysis (Teays, 2017) and serve as a common experience for discussion (Oliver, 2010). According to Berk (2009), movies and television shows often elicit an emotional reaction such as excitement, laughter or anger. As a result, the presentation of both verbal and visual materials tends to be effective in the introduction of complex topics, including management and leadership (Berk, 2009). In this post-MTV environment, motion pictures are a comfortable vehicle that can aid in maintaining student interest in complex concepts (Champoux, 1999). According to Kuzma and Haney (2001), film "stimulates the senses, grounds abstract concepts, engages the emotions, contextualizes history, and facilitates an active learning classroom environment" (p. 34). The use of feature films provokes discussion and self-assessment of one's values and identity (Pandey, 2012).

The use of film as pedagogical device may vary in application. Champoux (2015, 2007, 2005, 2003, 2001) utilized film clips ranging from three to 10 minutes to illustrate specific topics dealing with management and organizational behavior. Enlow and Popa (2008) used a complete film to frame ethical concepts and situations by analyzing fictional scenarios within that film. Holbrook (2009) also used a single film to exam organizational behavior concepts. Reed (2016) created a graduate course in which a different film was viewed in class as a way to discuss different leadership theories. I have used all three of these variants as well as allowing students to choose fictional organizations from film as a way to analyze organizational behavior and leadership. Therefore, the use of film provides a number of different approaches to study leadership.

Means for Discussion/Interaction / Primary objectives of presentation

Title: Using Feature Films as an Instructional Medium to Teach Organizational Behavior, Leadership and Management

Time: 15 minutes per iteration

Objectives:

1) Introduce the use of film as pedagogy.
2) Develop a list of films appropriate to the study of leadership.

3) Discuss methods of incorporating film into homework assignments and classroom discussions.

Schedule:

I. Introduction – 5 min
   a. Introduce self
   b. State objectives
   c. Provide introduction of the use of film in classroom and for assignments
II. Roundtable Discussion – 8 min
   a. How have participants utilized film in classroom/assignments?
   b. What worked well/didn't work?
   c. Topical film suggestions?
   d. What ideas might participants have for new assignments?
III. Wrap-up, gather notes – 2 min

Foreseeable Implications of Session

This roundtable discussion will benefit educators interested in adding additional tools in teaching theories, concepts, and issues in the fields of leadership, organizational behavior and management. Participants will discuss potential applications of utilizing feature films to include in-class discussions, assignments, and analysis. In addition, participants will acquire a list of films that may be useful in these endeavors. Following the conference, participants will be provided a compiled list of films, potential classroom activities and other assignments generated during the roundtable. These materials will provide a starting point for participants wishing to integrate films and additional sources for those that already incorporate their usage.

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Exploring Tenure Processes in Leadership Studies

Abstract

The purpose of this roundtable is to explore tenure processes in leadership studies departments and units at colleges and universities in the United States. Recognizing that the tenure process can be complex and frustrating, the presenters will offer background information and multiple perspectives from both a research one and regional comprehensive teaching university related to the tenure process. Guided questions will be provided to help participants explore the tenure process with the goals of providing clarity and creating a system of support for individuals seeking tenure in departments of leadership studies.

Introduction

The tenure process provides an opportunity for colleges and universities to guide and shape faculty members into productive organizational contributors. This probationary period allows for a certain "goodness of fit" between the college or university and the faculty member to be developed prior to engaging in a long term commitment to employment. Unfortunately, most tenure processes fall far short of being ideal and are often political and frustrating (Tierney & Bensimon, 1996). This combined with the lack of clarity often surrounding the tenure process can lead to a decrease in productivity for the faculty and difficulty in recruiting and retaining high quality faculty for colleges or universities (Prottas, Shea-Van Fossen, Cleaver, & Andreassi, 2017). Given these findings, this roundtable is intended to provide a discussion of the tenure process from the perspective of faculty members from different universities who are at different levels in the tenure process. The objectives of this roundtable are to:

- provide insights into navigating the tenure process,
- explore similarities and differences between tenure processes at different universities, and
- collaborate on ways support individuals working through the tenure process in leadership education programs.

Background

Four key principles critical for tenure evaluation include: 1) clarity in standards and procedures for tenure evaluation; 2) consistency in tenure decisions; 3) candor in evaluation of tenure-track faculty; and 4) treating unsuccessful candidates humanely (American Council on Education, 2000). This interactive roundtable will focus primarily on the first of these principles: processes to create clear standards and procedures for tenure evaluation.

Creating clear and objective standards for faculty evaluation and tenure is a challenging undertaking. Some have even claimed "there is perhaps no task more difficult, or more likely to produce controversy, than that of assessing the performance and accomplishments of members of a faculty" (Adams, 2003, p. 239). However, building tenure review standards and procedures from research-based, best practices can assist academic leaders in avoiding some of the pitfalls commonly associated with tenure review.

Aiming to being as comprehensive and objective as possible, Arreola (2007) delineated a process for institutions to develop its own mechanisms and set of criteria to suit its local context. The Arreola model is very much a quantitative approach which reduces the amount of subjectivity in what is necessarily a subjective process (Buller, 2012). These steps include: specifying faculty roles; defining observable behaviors; determining component weights; identifying appropriates sources of information; and deciding how the information shall be gathered (Arreola, 1995, 2007).

A department of leadership, structurally situated at a regional, comprehensive state-university applied this process in redeveloping its merit and tenure criteria. During the 2005-2006 academic year, the dean of the school initiated a faculty committee to develop new and consistent merit and tenure standards to be used across all departments within the college. Typically, faculty responsibilities involve three primary roles: teaching (60%), scholarship (20%) and service (20%). The faculty committee identified observable behaviors associated comprised within each category.

For the past ten years, a committee of departmental faculty have reviewed the merit and tenure standards on an annual basis. Since its inception, minor changes have been made to the component weights of observable behaviors. However, substantial modifications were required as the parameters of faculty roles have changed. The traditional faculty role of teaching (60%), research (20%) and service (20%) is no longer typical for the department. The advent of full-time, online faculty, faculty located onsite at the cross-board institutions and faculty with partial administrative appointments have necessitated greater flexibility within the merit and tenure evaluation process in order to maintain equity.

Faculty responsibilities at another leadership department, situated in a large research I institution, are similar: teaching (65%), research (25%), and service (10%). While this institution provides guidelines for promotion to associate professor with tenure and promotion to professor, the interpretation of those guidelines in the evaluation of packets is open to interpretation by the evaluators. While the format of promotion packets is standardized, faculty, especially junior faculty, often experience some anxiety when going through the process because there are no objective standards by which packets are evaluated.

Means for Discussion/Interaction

The facilitators will bring multiple perspectives to the discussion around the tenure process in leadership studies. Both a research one and regional comprehensive teaching institution will be represented, including perspectives from administrators and faculty who have developed and experienced the processes. Guided discussion questions will include the following:

- What is the culture of tenure at your institution?
- What is the culture around tenure within your leadership program unit?
- How might/should leadership studies scholarship be defined in the tenure process?
- What are the criteria for tenure at your institution? Are the criteria clear or vague?

- How could/might the Association of Leadership Educators and other leadership organizations potentially support tenure processes in leadership studies?

The facilitators envision that tenure documents will be shared with participants through electronic means as a follow up to the conversations.

Foreseeable Implications

This roundtable discussion will allow for the opportunity for leadership educators to share tenure documents and processes with colleagues. Since programs are housed in multiple different departments, colleges, and other units in institutions of higher education, leadership studies has had to be innovative and inclusive as it has evolved as a field of study. As a relatively new academic field, the tenure processes are still being developed and updated in leadership studies programs across the country. By encouraging not only the sharing of documents, but also participating in dialogue about the tenure process in leadership studies, we will have the opportunity to strengthen processes and continue to legitimize the field of leadership studies through its innovation and inclusiveness.

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Leadership research for global goals: What's the role of the SDGs?

Abstract

The United Nations' Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) offer 17 areas of focus for leaders around the world to tackle global issues, such as hunger, poverty, education, and environmental concerns. Join this roundtable to discuss how leadership research connects to the global goals and the role leadership education has in making forward progress toward the SDGs.

Introduction

The National Leadership Education Research Agenda (2013) includes priorities focused on global and intercultural leadership (Priority 7) and social change and community development (Priority 6). The call for applied practice and research within various contexts to develop resilient communities intertwines with the development of the intercultural leadership educator. "It is important for the research initiatives informing Leadership education to reflect the global social structures that are defined by mutuality, respect, and justice" (Andenoro, Allen, Haber-Curran, Jenkins, Sowcik, Dugan, & Osteen, 2013, p. 25). 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, life on land, etc. Collaboration across various organizations with similar purposes are needed for continued progress in these goals (Corbett and Fikkert, 2012). Leadership educators have the opportunity to connect social research to these identified areas of need; collaborative efforts between social science research and related sciences to specific goals holds the potential for sustainable solutions to be developed to engage local communities toward global goal progress. The key objective of this roundtable is to identify research connections between the Sustainable Development Goals and leadership education research.

Background

Priority seven of the National Leadership Education Research Agenda outlines several challenges facing the area of global and intercultural leadership, including expanding the understanding of intercultural competence. Andenoro, et al. (2013), noted:

> Existing research on intercultural competence is relevant to many leadership concepts (e.g., self-awareness, awareness of others, diversity, values, perspectives), and there is opportunity to expand this further with a direct connection to Leadership Education and development. Research that informs the creation of curricula aimed at the expansion of intercultural competence and the ability to work effectively with other people across a variety of contexts and cultures is pivotal for enacting change that will empower the future of global citizenship. (p. 27)

Such elements of change can be connected through the Social Change Model (Komives, Wagner, & Associates, 2009; Wagner, Ostick, & Komives, 2009) with its presented individual, group, and societal/community values perspectives framing the seven "C" elements of the model: consciousness of self, congruence, commitment, collaboration, common purpose, controversy with civility, and citizenship. These elements are integrated into a reciprocal model to facilitate change. The SDGs offer leadership educators specific areas of needed change to focus research

efforts and connect a social research agenda to tangible, sustainable outcomes for the global good.

Means for Discussion

Three key questions will frame the discussion of leadership research connections to the Sustainable Development Goals.

1. How can leadership education research help further the SDGs?
2. What aspects of the Sustainable Development Goals fit best with the context of leadership education research?
3. What is our (leadership educators) responsibility to connect research to areas of impact within the SDGs?

Foreseeable Implications

Rich discussion surrounding the three identified questions to connect leadership research to the Sustainable Development Goals could provide an outline of research connections to specific SDGs. It could also create interest in collaborative research projects that connect leadership research within global and intercultural leadership to contextualized areas of specific SDGs. Finally, discussion on this topic could influence researchers to connect current or evolving ideas to the SDGs as a justification of need for the research and its longitudinal, sustainable impact.

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Cougar Tank: An Educational Entrepreneurial Leadership Program

Abstract

The merits of *Cougar Tank*, an educational entrepreneurial leadership initiative, undertaken in 2017 by the College of Business and Concordia Enterprise Group (CEG) are discussed. The initiative is designed to provide a platform for business students to competitively exhibit their innovative ideas, business creativity, and leadership skills. *Cougar Tank*, modeled roughly on the popular television program, *Shark Tank*, is a student lead initiative based on interest expressed in creating a showcase for exhibiting leadership skills, business acumen, and creative capacity. The development and implementation of *Cougar Tank*, the process of judge selection, and the learning experiences of both faculty and students will be described. Roundtable participants will discuss the leadership learning objectives of this program and consider the prospects of replicating the initiative.

Introduction

More than 30 years ago in his landmark publication, *Innovation and Entrepreneurship*, Drucker (1985) anticipated the creation of an entrepreneurial society. Drucker argued for a shift from an employee mindset to an entrepreneurial mindset. In addition, he called for entrepreneurial leaders in government, commercial organizations, and non-profit institutions to make innovation an ongoing and everyday activity.

Leadership educators recognize that effective leadership, innovation, and inclusion do not happen in a vacuum. Twenty-first century leaders face the challenges of creating organizations, communities, institutions, systems, and structures in which each and every member can realize his or her full human potential. Creativity, innovation, and inclusion are catalysts for the development of learning organizations. There has been a growing trend among business leaders, community developers, K-12 administrators, teachers, and students to explore the knowledge, skills and mindset of entrepreneurship. Entrepreneurship education facilitates the development of critical thinking, knowledge acquisition, and creativity (https://www.entre-ed.org), skills deemed necessary for 21st century success. Puccio, Cabra, and Schwagler (2017) claim that creativity and creative thinking are essential skills of success across all disciplines and that these skills are very teachable.

The development and teaching of an entrepreneurial mindset encourages self-direction, initiative, intelligent risk-taking, collaboration, innovation, and opportunity recognition (Aspen Youth Entrepreneurship Strategy Group, 2008). Skarzynski and Gibson (2008) claim that "They [leaders] begin to recognize it [innovation] as something that has to permeate the entire organization –something that requires different mind-sets, values, skills, behaviors, processes, management systems, metrics, rewards, organization structures, IT solutions, and so on…all across the enterprise" (p. 255). An innovative and entrepreneurial initiative being sponsored by a mid-western College of Business championed by student leaders will be presented.

In this roundtable presentation, participants will

- Gain an understanding of the essential aspects of leadership and entrepreneurship education in action.
- Understand the elements of leading and engaging community members in collaborative entrepreneurial activities.
- Learn about the *Cougar Tank* prized competition developmental and implementation stages.
- Engage in an evaluative discussion of entrepreneurship education and leadership learning via *Cougar Tank*.

Background

Leadership, innovation, and inclusion are integral to entrepreneurial education. According to the Global Monitor's Total Entrepreneurship Activity (TEA), in 2016 more than 25 million Americans were estimated to be starting or running a new business (Kelley, Ali, Brush, Corbett, Kim, & Majbouri, 2017, p. 9). Entrepreneurs drive America's economy (US Department of Labor, nd). In 2013, Acharya writing for *Forbes* (2013) asserted that developing an entrepreneurial ecosystem does not happen overnight. It requires a culture of idea generation, experimentation, success, failure, and access to capital. Several American universities are embracing such an effort (Morelix, 2015; Rogan, 2018). They are creating a safe place for students, alumni, and local entrepreneurs to generate ideas, recruit members, experts, and capital, and to experiment with products, services and technologies.

Leadership educators recognize that effective leadership does not happen rapidly or in a vacuum. The 21st century work environment must support personal growth and professional attainment among members. There are three elements that are foundational to such organizations, viz., alignment with a common vision; empowerment of all involved; and a learning, inquiry-based, and reflective culture. Tushman and O'Reilly (2002) stated that "Leading innovation streams, winning through innovation, is about innovation and execution…leading innovation streams must be coupled with the ability to lead discontinuous change" (p.179). Leading change is a chronic challenge for leaders in all organizational settings. Kotter (1996, 2016), Fullan (2001, 2006), Kouzes and Posner (2007) are among the popular, contemporary theorists who offer models of effective change leadership. The models provide educators with theoretical frameworks for teaching the basic tenets of effective organizational change processes.

The educational landscape of leadership, innovation, and inclusion is expanding. As of 2017, the number of professional journals devoted to or that published articles related to entrepreneurship had increased four-fold (www.https://slu.edu). Higher educational interest in leadership, innovation, and entrepreneurship has grown in concert at an accelerated pace. For example, from 1979 to 2004, colleges and universities offering entrepreneurship courses increased from 93 to well over 1,600 (Center for Entrepreneurial Excellence, George Washington University, 2014). This growth in entrepreneurial education is highlighted in the *Cougar Tank* initiative underway at a mid-western College of Business.

The College of Business was established in 2007; the college currently offers an array of specialized degree programs at the undergraduate and graduate level. The curricular foundation of the College of Business is based on four pillars of knowledge: ethics and social responsibility (Hartman, DesJardins, & MacDonald, 2013), critical thinking and an entrepreneurial mindset (Goossen & Stevens, 2013), communication and human relations (Dawson, & Andriopoulos,

2017), and global interconnectedness and inclusiveness (Puccio, Cabra, & Schwagler, 2017). The four pillars also are embedded in the strategic planning process and inform decision making; *Cougar Tank* initiative is an example of one strategic process.

Means of Discussion – The Project

Cougar Tank, an educational entrepreneurial initiative, undertaken in 2017 by the College of Business, and Concordia Enterprise Group (CEG), is designed to provide a platform for business students to competitively exhibit their innovative ideas, business creativity, and leadership skills. A concomitant objective of *Cougar Tank* is to build stronger connections between the university, local community members, and business leaders.

Cougar Tank is organized by CEG, an undergraduate student run group, with the support of the university, the College of Business faculty, the MBA Association, and members of the local community. This leadership initiative is truly collaborative.

The *Cougar Tank*, competition was open to all College of Business students. An orientation overview of the competition, rules, and deadlines, and an opportunity to raise questions was held in mid-November 2017. To enter the competition, students registered, applied as teams, and submitted an initial project proposal. Subsequently, in mid-January and February 2018 CEG members offered complimentary workshops to keep entrants on track prior to the submission of detailed project business plans. Student entrant teams engaged in a four-month long effort to create a business canvas to bring their visions to reality. During the roundtable presentation, the development and implementation of *Cougar Tank*, the process of judge selection, and the learning experiences of both faculty and students will be described.

Foreseeable Implications

The future of leadership education requires that educators prepare students for serving as effective agents of change, innovation, and inclusion. Leaders in 21st century workplaces need to understand that leading is about creating the direction, aligning resources, cultivating human capital, and strategically planning for future growth and productivity, thus ensuring sustainability. Identifying creative and innovative individuals to engage in this work demands that leaders are willing to

- entertain the outliers and boundary breakers in the organization,
- operate from an asset or strengths model (Rath & Conchie, 2009) to maximize performance and minimize stress,
- encourage creativity, intelligent risk taking, and mistake making (Senge, 1990), and
- promote and lead the charge for change.

This round table presentation will serve as a forum for discussing and evaluating the merits and replicability of the *Cougar Tank* initiative.

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What are Funds of Knowledge? A Collaborative Approach to Leadership Education

Abstract

This presentation will discuss the importance of using the identities of both student and teacher to facilitate culturally conscious conversations in leadership courses. Attendees will learn how engaging "funds of knowledge" in the classroom encourages inclusive and holistic learning environments and be provided best practices for classroom implementation.

Introduction

As instructors in leadership courses, we tend to be so focused on the curriculum materials and what needs to be covered, that we fail to ask, "How do our identities inform our roles as leaders? How can our students' experiences inside and outside of the classroom shape the course dynamics?" This will be a Discussion Roundtable, providing an informative approach to how identities shape classroom conversations and dynamics.

Learner/Participant Objectives

- To discuss how the awareness of identities and multiple perspectives impact course curriculum
- To help participants create better learning outcomes to engage multiple student identities and experiences
- To empower instructors to adjust curriculum based on the needs of the students

Background (including connection to leadership literature/theory)

It is important as educators to have a holistic understanding of students' identities as these experiences influence classroom dynamics. As noted by Dugan (2017), "…identity, knowledge, and power are influenced profoundly by ideology and hegemony and in turn play a role in shaping people's stocks of knowledge" (p. 40). "Stocks of knowledge" are characterized by five principles: they are familiar, serve to help navigate the world, "shaped by lived experience, altered only through novel situations, and socially constructed based on identity" (Dugan, 2017, p. 34). These "stocks of knowledge" are also known as "funds of knowledge" by multicultural educators. This framework provides an understanding that engagement in the classroom is a collaborative approach. Students bring their home experiences into the classroom and teachers become the "…bridge between the students' worlds" (Moll, Amanti, Neff, & Gonzalez, 1992, p. 137). Thus, it is imperative that instructors validate and acknowledge the pupils experiences as "much of the teaching and learning is motivated by children's interests and questions" (Moll, et al., 1992, p. 134). It is crucial that we engage our students in "problem-posing" education that allows both educators and students to share in the creation of the curriculum and creative dialogue (Freire, 1993, p. 60). Critical pedagogy further allows us to "use the experience and knowledge of students to engage in such praxis" (Martin & Te Riele, 2011, p. 29). As leadership educators we must remember that our own personal identities shape the way we engage and teach our students, "Discussing how we lean into our leadership educator identities, while honoring our other social identities, how they intersect, and which identities become salient… helps us be the best educators we can be" (Guthrie & Jenkins, 2018, p. 20). Hence, true learning

occurs when students and teachers can share in the journey by being vulnerable and expressing their true selves.

Means for Discussion/Interaction

Session Plan:

- Introduction of topic: Define "funds of knowledge" (2 min)
- Provide background and connection to leadership literature and related theory (3 min)
- Discuss best practices and provide examples for classroom implementation (5 min)
    - Questions to prompt participants:
        - How do you see incorporating this technique into your courses?
        - Thinking about your learning objectives, what are some ways to build "funds of knowledge" into your course curriculum?
- Question and Answer (5 min)

Foreseeable Implications

This presentation will provide the audience with a deeper understanding and expanding definition of how teacher and student identity shapes classroom dynamics. In relation to the conference theme, this is an innovative practice that is not often used, but if utilized can provide a great foundation to build trust and culturally conscious students. A more holistic understanding of students' identity can also help leadership educators better identify appropriate learning outcomes to assess student engagement in their curricular and co-curricular activities. The roundtable will further elucidate participants' understanding of "funds of knowledge" by discussing the lessons the presenter has learned through implementation of this technique in her courses.

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A Mindful University: Relational Leadership, Mindfulness, and Shared Governance

Abstract

Shared governance is an essential aspect of leadership in higher education; however, leadership within shared governance is complicated by an increased responsibilities and anxiety among administration, faculty, and students. An intentional approach to mitigate this stress and to be truly present is necessary. The purpose of this round table is to explore how relational leadership and mindfulness practices are connected to leadership in shared governance through increasing empathy and connection. To illustrate, the presenters will utilize an example of a collaborative effort to engage the university community in mindful practices to benefit leadership in shared governance at their institution.

Introduction

Leaders in higher education, especially in the unique context of shared governance, can benefit by being fully present and listening to others involved in the governance of an institution including faculty, administration, and students. A relational leadership approach utilizing mindfulness can allow leaders in higher education to improve the climate of leading in an environment that involves increased responsibility and stress amongst all members of the campus community. As a result of attending this presentation participants will (1) explore the possibility of shared governance through relational leadership practiced with mindfulness, (2) examine a case study that demonstrates how an institution utilized mindfulness practices to unite faculty, staff, and students in an effort to improve shared governance, and (3) learn strategies how mindfulness and relational leadership can be utilized on their campus.

Background

A hallmark of leadership in higher education is the concept of shared governance as administrators, faculty, and students participate in the decision-making process of the university (Bess & Dee, 2008). Members of the academic community must understand the complexities of leadership in higher education including the distinctive culture of the academy, multiple power and organizational structures, and goal ambiguity (Kezar, 2001). Furthermore, leadership in higher education is further complicated as many institutions are facing decreased financial support, questions from the public regarding the value of higher education, and greater anxiety and depression among incoming students.

Researchers at the Higher Education Research Institute at the University of California, Los Angeles conduct an annual survey on incoming college freshman and the 2016 Freshman survey detailed that over 34.5% of incoming first-year, full-time students frequently felt anxious within their first-year of college; 55.9% of students have some concern about their ability to pay for college (Eagan, Zimmerman., Aragon, Whang Sayson, & Rios-Aguilar, 2017). Administrators are also facing crisis in their work environment. Silver and Jackman (2014) conducted a qualitative study that revealed half of the entry-level administrators in their qualitative study are considering leaving higher education because of the emotional labor of campus environments. Higher education administrators further detailed how senior administrative positions are

undesirable due to the certainty of crisis, evolving responsibilities, and multiple competing constituencies (Floyd & Maslin-Ostrowski, 2013; Jones & Johnson, 2014; Maslin-Ostrowski & Floyd, 2012). Faculty members are also experiencing distress as over 70% of the academic workforce is now contingent faculty (Hendrickson, Lane, Harris, & Doorman, 2013); academic freedom for tenured faculty is shifting (Altabch, 2017); and tenure-track faculty often face diminished quality of life including a lack of work-life balance and collegiality (O'Meara, Lounder, & Campbell, 2014). Given the amount of pressures and stress one must consider how these pressures impact their ability to lead in a shared governance model. The facilitators propose that engaging relational leadership, based on mindfulness practice, can be utilized to aid in shared governance.

An example that utilizes a mindful approach to shared governance is from a midsized, public university located in a state that had no financial state funding for three years due to a budget dispute between the governor and state legislature. This budget crisis lead to the university raising undergraduate and graduate tuition, eliminating many academic and cocurricular programs, and downsizing faculty and administrative positions through layoffs. At a board of trustees meeting a student arrived with tape on her mouth as a form of protest and later shared that she represented students who are not being "heard". If we are to take the students message at face value, students are not experiencing faculty or administration sharing or collaborating with students in their experience of education at our university.

The theme of "not being heard" is operating at many levels of the university: Administration to faculty and staff, faculty to faculty, and faculty to students. The difficulty in changing the experience of students requires a capacity for the "Leaders" of the university to listen. True listening requires empathy. But the stress that all sectors of the university are experiencing decreases empathy (Krasner, Epstien, Beckman Suchman, Chapman, Mooney,& Quill, 2009). The positive benefits of an empathetic leadership style are well-documented (Kellett, Humphrey, & Sleeth, 2006; Mashud, Yukl, & Prussia, 2010). To decrease the stress and communal disconnection, we began an initiative to create opportunities to engage in mindfulness to foster a community of shared governance.

Mindfulness meditation, including Loving Kindness Meditation (LKM), has been found to decrease stress and increase empathy and compassion. (Hofmann, Grossman, & Hinton, 2011; Hutcherson, Seppala, & Gross, 2008; Weng et al., 2013). Neuro-imaging studies have shown that mindfulness meditation, decrease the activation of amygdala, the region known emotional reactivity, and increase the activation of the hippocampus, the region connecting emotional experience to the prefrontal cortex, which allows for emotional understanding (Holzel et al., 2010; Hölzel et al., 2011). Furthermore mindfulness and LKM have been found to activate the right cingulate cortex, a region involved in development of empathy (Farb, Adam, Anderson, Bean, McKeon, Mayberg, & Segal, 2010; Laneri, Krach, Paulus, Kanske, Schuster, Sommer, & Muller-Pinzler, 2017). By focusing on one's senses and altruistic intention, these practices strength the capacity to engage and tolerate the negative emotions of others.

The larger vision of our project was to foster shared governance by decreasing stress and increasing compassion and empathy for administration, faculty, and staff. On a basic level the goal is create an atmosphere at the university in which members feel "heard" and responded to in

a way that creates connections rather than alienation. We aim to create leadership that is connectional in nature through the practice of mindfulness and LKM. At all levels of the university people feel overwhelmed, stressed, and driven to accomplish academic goals. Very few stop in order to be present to talk and listen to one another, much less to connect in a way that allows both parties to "feel heard."

Mindfulness is an intentional focus on the present moment without judgement (Kabat-Zinn, 1991). Mindfulness training encourages practitioners to balance goal orientation with being present. In a relational context, mindfulness allows a person to "let go" of agenda and thoughts, relax, and to truly listen to another person and connect. These practices are central to relational leadership theories that highlight relationships, interconnectedness, and reciprocity as key tenants of leadership (Dugan, 2017). As "leadership is inherently a relational, communal process" (Komives, Lucas, & McMahon, 2007, p. 74), mindfulness can be an integral tool in fostering relationships amongst the campus community.

We began our project by gathering faculty, staff, and students who we know have an appreciation for mindfulness and it's power. During the first meeting we established an agreement to practice mindfulness together and prioritize our connectedness with each other. Next, we returned to our respective colleges and areas to invite others to participate in the vision of creating a more mindful atmosphere at the university. Additionally, we detailed the importance of inviting more members of the campus community to the meeting and intentionally engage student input through class settings and informal meditations. We hope to recognize themes and summarize our findings regarding the initial steps of creating a mindful university.

Means for Discussion

The facilitators will engage in a dialogue with participants how shared governance, mindfulness, and relational leadership are connected in higher education administration. First, the facilitators and attendees will detail the context of shared governance in higher education and its connection to relational leadership through mindfulness (Five minutes). Next, the facilitators will detail how they collaborated with faculty, staff, and students to create the vision of a "Mindful University" and the activities as a way to promote relational leadership through engagement in mindfulness. Finally, the facilitators and participants will strategize additional methods to utilize relational leadership through the vehicle of mindful practices on their own campus.

Foreseeable Implications

Leadership innovation and inclusion cannot happen in diverse societies without leaders who engage in dialogue fully present, utilizing empathy, and being mindful of their own leadership styles. An implication for this roundtable is that participants will consider how often they, and members of their institution, reflect upon their leadership, learn how an institution implemented a mindful approach to shared governance and consider how they can utilize a more mindful approach to their own leadership and those whom are involved in shared governance. It is important that leaders learn to be present and mindfulness is a perfect practice to enable this. Once listening occurs, the possibility increases for communal resolution and organizational transformational in respect to their own leadership and shared governance.

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Exploring Adaptive Leadership as a Tool for Building Leadership Capacity in Sorority and Fraternity Leaders

Abstract

Like never before, fraternities and sororities are sparking debate, creating challenges, and posing potential risk for college students and administrative leaders alike. Leadership practice and development is needed now to address the issues associated with membership in these student organizations. The practices of adaptive leadership has promising implications for addressing complex cultural challenges within fraternity and sorority communities. This roundtable provides an opportunity to discuss the merits of this model and one university's approach to using adaptive leadership in leadership education for sorority and fraternity student leaders. College administration can use such a model to teach and be a part of positive change in sorority and fraternity communities at a critical time in their history.

Introduction

Sororities and fraternities can be potential teaching grounds for leadership development and problem solving skills for college students. These sorority and fraternity communities, often called Greek communities due to the Greek letters with which most are named, are woven into the fabric and tradition of universities and colleges throughout America. Greek organizations have been an American college institution since the country declared its independence in 1776 (Torbenson, 2005). In the last 200 years, these Greek-lettered social organizations have expanded in number and influence. On college campuses they have evolved along with the demands and expectations of American society (McMurtrie, 2015; Torbenson, 2005). Greek communities have grown in complexity, as well as size, and have become a diverse part of college and university campuses across the country (Hevel & Bureau, 2014; Torbenson, 2005). They have broadened in their makeup to include women's fraternities, or sororities as they are commonly called, and culturally and racially-based groups (Torbenson, 2005). Sororities and fraternities are values-based organizations, holding tenets of scholarship, leadership, and service to the community (Long, 2012). Being in a sorority or fraternity should be a positive experience for those students involved. In fact, members of these organizations often report benefits to development aligned with these shared values (Long, 2012). Although they are values-based in nature, they are also high-functioning and risky organizations (Dunkel, Schuh, & Chrystal-Green, 2014; McMurtrie, 2015). Despite the espoused values, membership with sororities and fraternities has been associated with alcohol abuse, hazing, sexual misconduct, and marginalized population exclusion (Harris III & Harper, 2014; McMurtrie, 2015; Reilly, 2017; Routon & Walker, 2016; Schmitz & Forbes, 1994).

One university is using a foundation of adaptive leadership to develop leadership capacity and innovative application for fraternity and sorority student leaders. Through this presentation-style roundtable program, participants will learn about the curriculum of adaptive leadership training and practice for fraternity and sorority students enrolled in a specialized leadership academic course. Participants of this roundtable session will be able to:

1. Review the success of fraternity and sorority leaders' ability to identify and address challenges using the adaptive leadership model.
2. Discuss the merits of using the adaptive leadership model to tackle complex adaptive challenges in fraternity and sorority communities.
3. Learn how inclusive excellence is being address as a complex adaptive challenge in fraternity and sorority communities.

Background

Adaptive leadership has been a noted and evolving practice of leadership for over two decades. It is a style of leadership that could produce tremendously positive outcomes for addressing complex cultural challenges within fraternity and sorority communities. The work of Heifetz, Grashow, and Linsky (2009) provides a framework that can be adopted by fraternity and sorority student leadership and by the leadership educators and professional advisors that are charged with their success. Adaptive leadership is designed to help organizations to address the complexity of their cultures and to take on difficult challenges (Northouse, 2016). As the name suggests, using adaptive leadership leaders must often help organizations adapt to meet certain complex challenges that impact the overall system. Heifetz et al. (2009) describe that there are two basic tenets of adaptive leadership: analyzing and diagnosing the organizational problem followed by taking action to address the problem. In following the model of adaptive leadership, leaders should also account for themselves; they should see themselves as a system in the same regard as the system they are trying to fix (Heifetz et al., 2009).

Following the adaptive leadership model, educator and advisors can see themselves as part of the system while teaching leaders to steward their organizations through difficult issues fraught with uncomfortable change and member distress. Application of adaptive leadership practices has already shown to support positive change in higher education environments (Randall & Coakley, 2007). An adaptive leadership foundation can prove to be quite impactful in addressing challenges such as inclusive excellence, hazing, sexual misconduct, and alcohol abuse in a complex Greek system.

Means for Discussion/Interaction

Discussions will begin with a brief overview of the practice and outcomes of an adaptive leadership curriculum for sorority and fraternity leaders. How the topics of inclusive excellence, hazing, sexual misconduct, and alcohol abuse were addressed using adaptive leadership will be explained. Participants will review the successes and limitations achieved by this university's use of the adaptive leadership model in teaching its sorority and fraternity leaders to address their complex adaptive challenges. Participants will then be able to discuss the merits of such an approach, and they will be able to share best practices and suggestions for future adaptive leadership modeling with their fellow colleagues.

Foreseeable Implications

Many colleges and universities are hard at work to determine how to lead, and teach leadership related to, positive change in their respective Greek communities. Innovation is needed to

develop new and sustainable means of fostering positive cultural change among fraternities and sororities. Given the growing diversity of university student populations and Greek communities, inclusion of multiple identities and sub-cultures will be necessary. Practicing and teaching adaptive leadership can have promising results in achieving healthy growth and positive change, not only in fraternity and sorority communities, but other dominant student cultures on campuses as well.

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Conflict Analysis and Resolution Skills: The Gap in Leadership Education

Abstract

Conflict management and resolution skills have been noticeably absent in leadership education. Conflict is mentioned to be an aspect of teamwork and something a leaders is responsible for, however students are left without a foundation of skills to use when handling conflicts after graduation (Northouse, 2016). Researchers will facilitate a discussion on the relationship between conflict management and resolution skills within leadership education. The roundtable discussion will allow participants to explore innovative methods of including conflict management and resolution into leadership education. The foreseeable implications of this roundtable revolve around creating a change in leadership education to include conflict resolution and management skills.

Introduction

There is a gap in the leadership curriculum revolving around conflict management and resolution skills. Leadership courses tend to be thematic, focusing either on theories, ethics, teamwork, etc. These courses usually rely on a leadership textbook to guide students' understanding of leadership, however many of the popular leadership textbooks lack any in-depth description of how leaders should handle conflict.

Conflict is defined as a struggle or contest between people with opposing needs, ideas, beliefs, values, or goals (Algert, 2007), and tends to be the result of miscommunication between team members. Conflict management skills are defined as having the ability to notice and handle conflict in a proper manner (Algert & Froyd, 2002b). Conflict is an integral aspect of teamwork, and is something leaders face on a daily basis. Managers have been found to spend an average of 18% of their time handling conflicts, and it takes them about ten days to bring conflict to resolution, but only if handled successfully (Acuna, 2013).

Although conflict management has been identified among the list of desired skills and traits of an ideal leader, conflict management has not been thoroughly explored in leadership education. At best the five conflict styles are addressed, and if conflict intervention skills are touched upon, it is usually highlighting the role of a third party intervener rather than from an internal stakeholder (such as the leader's) role. Strong leaders understand conflict plays an integral in team development, and use it constructively to move the team or organization toward the direction of their mission and vision.Yet, how can we expect students to navigate the inevitability of conflict in the leadership or managerial roles they will have upon graduation if there is a gap in the curriculum on this very topic?

Background

In a review of three prominent leadership textbooks, it is clear conflict is a topic which is barely touched upon. In Northouse's (2016) *Leadership Theory and Practice (7th ed)* textbook, conflict management is only mentioned on two occasions; when describing the role of a leader to regulate distress as part of adaptive leadership, and when describing internal relational leadership

actions of a team leader. Northouse (2016) explains it is "the leader's responsibility to handle conflict effectively" and "conflict is inevitable in groups and organizations" but does not provide any insight into how a leader should handle these conflicts (p. 268). Levi's (2017) *Group Dynamics for Teams (5th ed)* textbook at least provides a chapter on managing conflict. It explains conflict is normal, lists different sources of conflict, overviews the five approaches to conflict, and briefly provides some insight into how leaders can prepare for conflict, facilitate and negotiate conflicts, and how to handle conflicts in virtual teams. Lussier and Achua's (2016) *Leadership Theory Application & Skill Development (6th ed)* also touches upon conflict management, but briefly and sporadically throughout the textbook. The text mentions effective conflict resolution strategies are needed when leading teams, also overviews the five conflict styles, and between two additional pages, touches upon initiating conflict resolution, responding to conflict resolution and mediating conflict resolution.

How can we expect leaders to succeed if we do not equip them with the skills to do so? Leadership educators teach various leadership models for cognitive understanding, but do not always fully teach students how to apply themselves and skills needed in leadership situations. Models are usually presented in a factual model, and rarely are they explored in depth to explain what a leader must do during each part of the model. For instance, Tuckman and Jensen's Stages of Group Development is commonly taught in leadership education. The model describes the five stages a group or team will progress through, from first formation to becoming a highly functioning team to ceasing to exist as a team (Tuckman & Jensen, 1977). This model addresses the idea of conflict in the "storming" stages but yet again does not explain how leaders should navigate the task of managing that conflict. Additionally, if conflict management skills are addressed in leadership education, it is usually a separate topic. The skills associated with conflict management may be introduced when teaching skill theory in leadership education and are presented as important to have and use, but are not explained when to be used within the larger context of leadership.

Means for Discussion

Researchers will begin with a brief introduction, followed by identifying what and how [University] is addressing conflict management as a skill set and competency within leadership education. The facilitated discussion will be guided by the proposed questions that will serve as a catalysts for the dialogue. Researchers plan to spend 2-3 minutes providing the introduction, with a 15 minute discussion and 2-3 minutes to summarize and conclude the roundtable.

Proposed Questions:

- In what ways do you believe that conflict management and leadership education are related?
- Does your program address and teach conflict in its leadership curriculum? If so, in what ways?
- If your program does not address conflict, why? Is there another department within your university that addresses this topic and teaches the related skill set of mediation? Are leadership students encouraged to enroll in these courses?
- As a scholar or profession in the field of leadership, do you feel there are ways to improve teaching conflict resolution skills to students? If so, how?

- What conflict management and resolution competencies have you observed, from students, graduated students, workforce experience, etc? Is there a need to address them through leadership education?
- How can leadership educators use existing leadership theories and models to teach students conflict management and resolution skills?

Although the proposed questions will be used to guide the content of the discussion, emerging questions may be entertained, so long as they are relevant to the topic.

Foreseeable Implications

This discussion will serve to allow participants to become more familiar with conflict management as a competency that we briefly address in leadership education. Furthermore, they will develop their own opinions about how/if they believe conflict should be better integrated into the leadership classroom. Students are missing out on a core competency and are not being set up for success as leaders upon graduation by the lack of conflict skills being taught. Through this discussion roundtable the researchers plan to highlight a gap in the leadership curriculum to leadership educators, generate innovative ideas on how to include teaching conflict resolution skills into leadership curriculum, and hopefully inspire leadership educators to begin to include conclint management and resolution competenties into their programs.

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The Intersection of Leadership Studies and Family Communication Theory: Implications for Undergraduate Leadership Pedagogy

Abstract

Leadership scholars have identified stages and models of leadership development throughout individuals' lifespans and the role of family influence in leadership identification and development. This roundtable presentation explores the intersectionality of leadership studies and family communication theory as a basis for leadership pedagogy, particularly for undergraduate leadership-based programs. Leadership and family communication hold immense overlap. However, scholars have yet to adequately explore the available theoretical, conceptual, and pedagogical intersections. Questions to consider include: 1) How does the concept or experience of "family" function as a context for leadership development?; 2) How is the study of family communication helpful for scholars of leadership After a short overview, participants will discuss implications for leadership pedagogues and practitioners, critiques of the approach, and opportunities for further inquiry.

Introduction

Through this presentation roundtable, participants will explore the problem presented by a lack of conversation between leadership studies and family communication studies. The presentation will limit its focus to potential applications to undergraduate leadership pedagogy. Participants will: 1) gain exposure to broad connections between family communication theory and leadership studies; 2) consider possible implications for undergraduate leadership pedagogy; 3) identify areas of further potential inquiry.

Researchers of leadership and organizations have studied stages and models of leadership development throughout individuals' lifespans as well as the role of family influence in leadership identification and development. Scholars continue to study developmental concepts in leadership. Both leadership and family are universal phenomena, and both are significant to the experience of making meaning in interpersonal communication systems. Riggio (2011) acknowledges the multidisciplinary nature of leadership studies at present. One such disciplinary approach for leadership studies is family communication. Family communication theory proves especially helpful as a lens for leadership studies given the initial social science literature that studied leadership focused on "theoretical issues" (Bass, 2008, p. 7).

The discipline of family communication emerged when several disciplines came together in the late 1970s to focus on everyday family functioning. This interdisciplinary literature initially utilized research from psychology, sociology, and family therapy. At that point, the field had not yet narrowed to exploring family from a communication perspective. Today, countless textbooks and courses exist. Ultimately, however, little research exists that discusses family communication scholarship that addresses overlap with leadership studies. To better understand the state of family communication theory and consider possible overlap with leadership studies, one ought to further explore the theoretical frameworks established in family communication including: Family Systems Theory, Symbolic Interaction Theory, Developmental Theory, Social Construction Theory, and Attachment Theory.

Although more theories exist, the theories mentioned above are some of the most popular for family communication scholars. Although family communication theory and leadership studies have not yet found a significant body of research to support intersectional significance, researchers have utilized the concept of family in other research. Researchers of leadership and organizations have acknowledged stages in developing leaders and family influence in leadership identification and development. For instance, issues including birth order, parental standards, family size, treatment by parents, and parents as models are examples of the intersectionality between leadership studies and family studies (Bass, 2008). Below are several representative studies that may further frame roundtable discussion.

Day (1980) completed an analysis of 116 healthcare professionals and found that those who were born first or last within their families were more likely to be more promoted as leaders in their profession. Day (1980) further offers that promoted health care professionals were encouraged more by their parents to practice a strong work ethic than those not promoted to advanced leadership. Although other aspects of life beyond birth order may determine leadership development and success, theorists continue to grapple with the possibility that birth order may shape personality development and therefore alter tendencies toward leadership.
Moreover, Parents have the potential to deeply impact their children positively and negatively. Bass (2008) exemplifies this claim when referencing his previous study that found parents who neglect their children often caused their children to exhibit antisocial potential that interferes with leadership development. In result, such children engage in stealing, lying, and feelings of self-pity (Bass, 1960).

Keller (1999) completed a study that utilized 78 undergraduate seniors. Keller (1999) found a positive correlation between what they deemed as positive leadership and the leadership practiced by their parents. In essence, more often than not, children view their parents' leadership behavior as a primary model for their own practice of leadership. Keller (1999) argued that individuals utilized their parents to formulate their own implicit leadership theories, an understudied connection between family and leadership studies with potential pedagogical implications.

Furthermore, family businesses represent one major area of overlap between leadership and family studies. For example, one major research area is family businesses. Researchers found that family leadership enables executives to exercise greater control over a business or organization (Cruz et al., 2010; Gómez-Mejía et al., 2007; Luo & Chung, 2005; Peng & Jiang, 2010). Chung & Chan (2012) represent this intersectional research area and further studied the family business control mechanism through "a longitudinal, multi-level analysis of datasets for 12 different years" (p. 320). By studying family business groups in Asia, Chung & Chan (2012) claims that if a family that founds a business maintains more direct power over an affiliate firm, "the family will be likely to appoint a trusted family member to the leadership position within the affiliate firm" (p. 320). Furthermore, direct family ownership generates higher financial risk for a founding family as opposed to pyramidal ownership (Chung & Chan, 2012). Pyramidal ownership in an affiliate firm, however, will decrease performance and decrease family leadership choice (Chung & Chan, 2012).

Background

Family Systems Theory, Symbolic Interaction Theory, Developmental Theory, Social Construction Theory, and Attachment Theory all have potential overlap within the study of leadership. Research consistently proves that early life experiences impact the potential for adult leadership (Brungardt, 1997). Historically, psychologists have noted that the desire to achieve, the ability to connect interpersonally, and the tendency to exhibit confidence or assertiveness are deeply impacted by experiences in childhood, adolescence, and based upon parent(s)' support (Gardner, 1990). Even earlier, Brungardt (1997) points out, research by Cox (1926), Jennings (1943), and Barton (1984) cite "family influence" on qualities such as self-confidence, intelligence, achievement orientation, assertiveness, and reliability. Moreover, Anderson (1937), Bishop (1951), and Bass (1990) found that "parental standards" and "treatment by parents" influenced leadership development. All three of these studies indicated that positive parental relationships developed children into more socially outgoing, constructive, and active people. Positive parental relationships also encourage children and adolescents to pursue leadership more often. When families implicitly or explicitly endorse high educational standards, an increased work ethic, and maintaining responsibility, young people within families tended to seek out more leadership roles and find success socially (Bass, 2008; Gibbons, 1986; Hoffman, Rosen & Lippitt, 1960). When tracing the history of leadership development research, Brungardt (1997) cites the family as a primary influence in childhood but in adolescence focuses primarily on school. At the collegiate level, Brungardt (1997) argues that little research up until that point focused on collegiate leadership development, especially through formal education. In adulthood, scholars claim leadership development occurs primarily on the job (Brungardt, 1997). A gap exists in leadership studies research that explores the effect of family on leadership development beyond childhood. The discipline of leadership studies needs to ignite more inquiry regarding the study of the family, especially from the lens of family communication theory.

Means for Discussion/Interaction OR Primary Objectives of Presentation

The first five minutes will offer a brief presentation of the overall problem and potential intersection of the disciplines: leadership studies and family communication. The next five minutes will provide a concise overview of literature, implications for pedagogy, finally leading to discussion questions. After the ten-minute presentation, the discussion questions will be available via a handout, granting participants the opportunity to identify further areas of inquiry and respond to the proposed implications for pedagogy.

Foreseeable Implications

As scholars and pedagogues of leadership studies, we continue to refine and innovate within our discipline. Leadership does not happen in a vacuum, and those who work with undergraduates need to understand the depth of leadership development that students have experienced not only from their previous academic institutions and extra-curricular activities, but also from their meaningful social relationships such as families. Given the conference theme of leadership innovation and inclusion, it is time to broaden and deepen our understanding of leadership formation and development by further considering the social systems that shape undergraduate students.

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A Discussion of MOOCs and Fully Online Courses: Recommendations for Facilitating Inclusion and Connection through Web-based Learning

Case Abstract

The delivery of leadership education continues to evolve. Through the use of online delivery tools, both Massive Open Online Courses (MOOCs) and more traditional post-secondary online courses, the accessibility to leadership education has never been greater, while facing more challenges in its' delivery. Web-based approaches to learning enhance accessibility to leadership education for all populations and provide opportunities to connect diverse students from a variety of backgrounds. Undoubtedly, these wide-reaching tools provide opportunities for inclusion and connection beyond those of the traditional face-to-face courses. The implementation of web-based leadership education facilitates connection and requires the investigation of leadership pedagogy, best practices, and measurable outcomes. This roundtable presentation will seek to address the needs of online leadership educators and to establish future directions for the nature of scholarship and practices related to reaching leadership audiences in the 21st century.

Introduction

The purpose of this roundtable presentation is to explore online leadership instruction through a comparative discussion of Massive Open Online Courses (MOOCs) and more traditional post-secondary fully online courses. Students and educators recognize the lack of connection in web-based learning (Miller, 2014; Zelihic, 2015). While the challenges of web-based learning are different from those of the traditional face-to-face courses, the features of web-based learning actually better support students' sense of belonging when managed correctly (Picciano, 2002; Zelihic, 2015). Differences between fully online courses and MOOCs will be explored as well as the major advantages and disadvantages of each in terms of facilitating student connection. Additionally, suggestions for best practices and direction for future scholarship about web-based learning within leadership education will be discussed.

Background

Online Approaches to Learning

The popularity of Massive Open Online Courses (MOOCs) has steadily risen over the years and many U.S. universities provide classes in this format (Boyatt, Joy, & Sinclair, 2014). Furthermore, MOOCs have become common in post-secondary education and were pegged to be a game changer in the way that access to education was offered (Dennis, 2012). The introduction of MOOCs also brought renewed attention to the role that technology plays in higher education and learner experiences (Kop, 2011). The efficiency and flexibility of online instruction make MOOCs likely to continue to grow in popularity (Carr, 2012). Glance, Forsey, and Riley (2013) state that MOOCs are not any less effective than face-to-face instruction, and may, in some aspects, improve learning outcomes. Jenkins (2016) has examined instructional methods in online leadership courses. Problems in structure and format as well as a general lack of understanding of the differences between MOOCs and fully online courses have deterred some leadership educators from embracing web-based approaches. This roundtable presentation will work to provide clarity by outlining MOOCs and fully online courses, methodological approaches to web-based learning, and existing scholarship needs.

Facilitating Connection and Inclusion through Online Learning

The advent of the Internet has ushered in a new era of global interaction as individuals all over the world can connect to others virtually anywhere with the simple stroke of a keyboard. Perhaps an unintended consequence of its potential for interglobal connectedness, many individuals actually become more isolated in their physical realities as they spend less time engaged within their immediate communities. For leadership educators, this presents great challenges and opportunities as we work to find a balance that encourages global interaction while emphasizing connection and inclusion.

The value of inclusion within education cannot be underscored enough as Maja Zelihic (2015) asserted, "Relationship building enhances the learning process, ensures smooth communication, and ultimately creates a learning environment which is more likely to promote achievement of course objectives while increasing retention and students' success rate" (p. 216). However, focus on relationship building strategies is often under prioritized (Zelihic, 2015). This is primarily because of challenges to facilitating connection in web-based learning environments. Research by Conrad (2005) highlighted factors that contributed to the quality of online learners' experiences through focus on building communities. Strategies, which help develop student cohorts, provide connection with the instructor, and involve meaningful discussion, were among those mentioned as most important to learners (Conrad, 2005). These approaches along with other tools for leadership educators will be discussed as a part of this round table presentation.

Means for Discussion/Interaction OR Primary Objectives of Presentation

The presentation will outline the differences between MOOCs and fully online courses. Additionally, the limited scope of research about MOOCs will be explored and strategies for improving the quality of instructional methods in web-based learning will be discussed. Lastly, the major challenges and opportunities related to student connection and inclusion will be presented to help determine the appropriateness of different online approaches toward leadership education.

Foreseeable Implications

Given the limited research involving MOOCs, there remain questions regarding the future of this delivery method, including opportunities in scholarship and leadership education in best practices and further clarification. The discussion will present approaches toward inclusion and student connectedness, and call for the needs of scholarship related to leadership education methods. Also, one of the major caveats of online learning is the threat of individual isolation among students and the investigation of more inclusive approaches within leadership education is especially salient. Innovative approaches and strategies for educators could help develop person-to-person connection within virtual learning environments. Future research must look at effective means of leadership education through both fully online and MOOC courses. The growth of online leadership education provides an opportunity to facilitate strategies for connection and inclusion between leadership educators and students. This discussion will inform current research going on related to leadership education MOOCs and their delivery, including

pedagogy and methodology, and assist in the understanding of the needs of leadership educators related to online course delivery.

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Leadership & Civil Discourse: Helping Students Understand the Relationship in the Current Environment

Abstract

This discussion roundtable offers an opportunity for dialogue about ways leadership educators can help students to understand the essential relationship between leadership and civil discourse. In the current environment, it can be argued that the exchange of views between individuals is often "uncivil" and counter to the type of inclusive and respectful dialogue deemed to be essential in a number of established theories of leadership, including Burns' (1978) view of transformational leadership and Uhl-Bien's (2006) conceptualization of relational leadership. This roundtable provides a unique setting for inclusive sharing of diverse experiences and, ideally, generation of innovative approaches for class discussions, readings, and assignments to foster student learning.

Introduction

This discussion roundtable offers an opportunity for dialogue about ways leadership educators can help students to understand the essential relationship between leadership and civil discourse. In the current environment, it can be argued that the exchange of views between individuals is often "uncivil" and counter to the type of inclusive and respectful dialogue deemed to be essential in a number of established theories of leadership, including Burns' (1978) view of transformational leadership and Uhl-Bien's (2006) conceptualization of relational leadership. The learner/participant objectives for the session include:

1. Provide learners/participants with an opportunity to share their experience working with students regarding civil discourse and leadership.

2. Generate innovative ideas for introducing this topic in the classroom, facilitating discussion, and developing challenging assignments; more broadly, generate ideas for creating an overall classroom culture in which mutual respect, inclusion, and varying perspectives are valued.

3. Model in the roundtable dialogue those leadership principles of mutual respect, inclusion, and valuing of different perspectives we seek to instill in our students.

Background

Some might suggest that the current environment is filled with more examples of "uncivil" than civil discourse. While such an assertion is troubling in many respects, the current environment presents an opportunity for leadership educators to challenge students to consider the relationship between what they understand to be "leadership" and what they understand to be "civil discourse." While the early leadership literature placed more emphasis on the traits and behaviors of the hierarchical “leader” utilized to influence “followers” to achieve desired outcomes, leadership research now clearly recognizes the relational aspect of the leadership process (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Uhl-Bien, 2006). Thus, the emphasis on leadership

construction has shifted from leader's traits and behaviors to the *process* of leadership construction via mutual influence. Seminal leader theorist James Macgregor Burns (Burns, 1978) articulated leadership as a reciprocal influence relationship among those leaders and followers, where both raise one another to higher levels of morality and motivation. His view of leadership was dialectic and collective. While he didn't use the specific terminology of "civil discourse," one of key ways in which the reciprocal influence relationship he articulated was clearly accomplished through dialogue. More recently, Nelson & Squires (2017) asserted that the increasingly complex problems that organizations face need to be examined through the sharing of multiple perspectives to find the best solutions. Again, while they may not have labeled it civil discourse, it is through this particular type of dialogue that they suggest this problem-solving will be achieved.

There are a number of working definitions for civil discourse, including those that emphasize it as a type of robust, frank and constructive dialogue (Brosseau, 2011), as well as those that emphasize that it must include the exercise of patience, integrity, humility and mutual respect (Davis, 2010). Frank (2002) suggests that a common theme across the varying definitions is that discourse is an attempt to develop shared meaning through a socially interactive process that engages participants in ways that evoke and legitimate the inclusion of not just so-called facts but also values. This is echoed by Bornstein (2010) who argues civil discourse is neither liberal or conservative, but adds that neither is it (or should it be) value-neutral.

The call for higher education to promote civil discourse has become quite pronounced; Leske (2013) asserts that higher education has a responsibility for assuring that all students have the skills and knowledge they need to become informed, civically engaged citizens. She challenges the academy to commit itself to improving civil discourse across all academic disciplines. She adds that students need to be taught, and not simply asked to use, civil discourse. Finally, she suggests that such teaching and learning can occur in both curricular and co-curricular activities. Bornstein (2010) argues that educational institutions have already committed themselves to promoting responsible citizenship by championing civic engagement, service, and leadership programs for their students. She argues that education for civil discourse is the natural next step if we want to "restore civility in America" (p.28). Handling controversy with civility is listed as one of the key dimensions of leadership for positive social change and is deemed to be an essential outcome of higher education (Komives, Wagner, & Associates, 2009).

There is no universal pedagogy for developing in students an understanding of, and ability in, civil discourse. Reitz (2015) identified from her research practices that can facilitate the type of dialogue that most would associate with "civil discourse;" these include having an orientation towards curiosity (about what new might come from the dialogue), modeling fragility (vulnerability), and striking a balance between advocacy and inquiry. She makes the point that this type of dialogue, when it does occur, should not be expected to always be comfortable or harmonious. Because of this, the challenges to educators to develop classroom exercises and assignments to develop such skills in students are formidable. Nevertheless, it can be argued that the development of such skills is essential to the relational process of leadership construction. The relational processes of leadership construction require honoring, and working with and through, differences. It is through that authentic, heart-felt, and courageous interaction that new meaning can emerge (Reitz, 2015; Uhl-Bien & Ospina, 2012).

Means for Discussion/Interaction

The roundtable session will begin with going around the discussion table introducing ourselves. A brief one-page "stage setting" document will be shared with participant that includes literature-based definitions of civil discourse and leadership, as well as their relationship. Also included in that document will be a few question prompts (e.g., "What are some of the ways in which integrate the concept of civil discourse into your leadership class discussion?") to stimulate discussion (but not as a script that might limit the free exchange of thoughts and ideas). Given the importance of giving voice to each roundtable participant and the discussion roundtable time limitations, I will politely ask at the beginning of each roundtable discussion for each participant to keep their remarks brief.

Foreseeable Implications of Session

The primary objective of the session is to share our teaching ideas about helping students consider the relationship between civil discourse and leadership theory and practice. I am hopeful that participants leave with a number of suggestions to try in the classroom. I am also hopeful that participants might leave with a heightened interest in the topic. A possible implication will be that the group of participants may want to keep in touch and share how what they try in the classroom works out, continue to discuss the topic, etc.; thus, a Google or Linkedin subgroup may be formed to continue the dialogue. Finally, if there are participants interested in conducting and publishing classroom research (scholarship of teaching and learning) and/or theoretical exploration on this topic so that a broader audience might benefit, such collaboration would be welcomed.

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LEADERSHIP EDUCATION FOR INCREASED WILL-POWER AND WAY-POWER: INCORPORATING HOPE

Abstract

This roundtable is about potential practices and innovative strategies that infuse hope theory in Leadership education for the purpose of increasing agency and pathways thinking in academic performance goals and in pursuit of authentic leadership. While nearly 50% of students entering higher education will not graduate, research reveals hope as a malleable psychological state among college students and that Hope Theory significantly predicts academic performance as well as impact in follower attitudes and behaviors. These results lead researchers to explore ways to grow and increase hope in leadership courses and within the dyadic relationship between Instructor and student.

Introduction

The unique challenges and opportunities of leadership education invite leadership educators to explore how they might utilize the classroom and the instructor-student relationship to increase hope among a diverse student population. Empirical results in the last twenty-five years show that hope significantly impacts college student academic progress and well-being (Snyder, Shorey, Cheavens, Pulvers, Adams, Wicklund, 2002; Feldman and Kubota, 2015; Gallagher, Margues, & Lopez, 2017). Recent research confirms the malleability of hope among college students (Davidson, Feldman, & Margalit, 2012; Feldman, Davidson, Margalit, 2015) and that generalized hope predicted academic hope and academic hope predicted GPA (Feldman and Kubota, 2015). Examined alongside self-efficacy and engagement academic hope uniquely predicts continued enrollment, GPA, and graduation in four years (Gallagher et al., 2017). Hope's unique relationship with academic performance and retention justifies a search for innovative strategies to increase hope in college students within Leadership courses.

Leadership education presents unique opportunities when compared to the traditional classroom setting in liberal arts education (Williams & McClure, 2010; Eich, 2008). Increased globalization and diversity among student populations also reveals a consequent need for leadership education to become inclusive of this diversity (Chin & Trimble, 2015) and to facilitate growth in student agency. Hope is a strong predictor of student leader behaviors and practices (Wisner, 2011) and the instructor's behaviors, attitudes and practices within the classroom contribute significantly to student engagement and academic performance (Umback & Wawrzynski, 2005; Bright, Turesky, Putzel, & Stang, 2012). The integration of creative and active teaching methods is important and useful (Burback, Matkin, & Fritz, 2004) and must coincide with ongoing evaluation and use of intentional leadership education instructional strategies and signature pedagogies for targeted impact (Jenkins, 2012).

The purpose of this roundtable discussion is to identify innovative methods and intentional practices for use in the leadership classroom that increase purposeful agency and pathways thinking within a diverse college student population. Participants will be asked to share ideas from their own research and experience as leadership educators. Learning objectives include:

1. Identify *teaching activities* for leadership educators that increase the hope and/or academic hope of diverse students in a leadership class.
2. Identify *instructor behaviors and practices for the leadership classroom* that increase the hope and/or academic hope of diverse students in a leadership class.
3. Identify instructor behaviors and practices for *the instructor-student* relationship that increase the hope and/or academic hope of diverse students in a leadership class.

Background

Hope Theory (Snyder 2002) defines hope as a cognitive process that drives goal pursuit and goal accomplishment. As a state (Snyder 2002) hope consists of three related and essential concepts: Goals, Agency Thinking, and Pathway thinking. Hope theory argues that human actions are goal directed (Snyder 2002) and high hope individuals think about and pursue various kinds of goals. Agency thinking identifies the motivational energy to start and persist toward goal attainment despite impediments (Snyder, 1994b). Pathway thinking identifies the ability to produce plausible routes toward goals, with concomitant confidence in those routes, especially when encountering roadblocks (Irving, Snyder, & Crowson, 1998). Academic hope is a domain specific hope (Snyder, Shorey, & Sympson, 2005) that includes agency and pathway focused on education goals and grades. University students with high hope think about and pursue goal directed behavior and with academic hope they possess both will power and way-power to achieve increased academic performance within a class (Snyder, 2002).

Agency and pathway create an iterative and additive cognitive process throughout the pursuit of a goal (Snyder, 2002). Different levels of agency and pathway thoughts, plus the fluidity and speed of these thoughts, distinguish levels of hopeful thinking among persons (Snyder, 1995). This equal emphasis on both goal-directed energy and goal-directed plans within hopeful thinking distinguish hope and hope theory from similar theories. For example, hope is distinct from optimism, which emphasizes agency but not pathways thinking (Snyder, Cheavens, & Michael, 1999). Hope differs from Banduras self-efficacy theory (1977) because self-efficacy emphasizes situational goals and situational efficacy thoughts, while hope theory builds on one's desire and ability to develop plans for enduring and cross-situational goals, both initial routes and alternate plans when necessary (Snyder, 2002). Hope theory overlaps with goal setting theory (Locke and Latham, 1990), except instead of goals producing behavior, it is people's thoughts regarding their own ability and distinct possibilities that lead them to embrace goals.

The last two decades brought increased interest in hope as a leadership concept. Hope is posited as a key element in the process of how authentic leaders impact follower attitudes and behaviors (Avolio, Gardner, Walumbwa, Luthans, and May, 2004). The first empirical study that explored the impact of hopeful leaders (Peterson & Luthans, 2003), found the subordinates of high-hope leaders experienced more satisfaction, greater productivity, and higher retention rates than the subordinates of low-hope work units. Peterson and Byron (2007) found more hopeful employees outperformed lower hope employees and higher hope executives generated more and better solutions to work-related problems. As the motivational and goal-setting elements of hope align with leadership theories and concepts (Souza & Klein, 1995: Ilies, Judge, Wagner, 2006), so the

development of hope in leadership education courses contributes to leadership development (Shorey and Snyder, 2004; Avolio, et al., 2004).

Hope uniquely predicts objective academic achievement more than personality, previous academic performance, and intelligence (Day, Hanson, Maltby, Proctor, & Wood, 2010). Higher hope students possess higher levels of motivation, are more likely to stay on task, and exert greater effort and determination toward class goals (Snyder, Shorey, Cheavens, Pulvers, Adams, & Wiklund, 2002). Hope beyond self-efficacy, engagement, and educational history (i.e. High School GPA, ACT scores) uniquely predicts GPA, continuous enrollment, and graduation status (Gallagher, et al., 2017).

Means for Discussion

The facilitators of this round table discussion will use the following outline:

Introduction: 1 – 2 minutes
1. The facilitators and participants will introduce themselves and educational background.
2. Participants will receive the hand-out providing the definition of Hope Theory, a diagram illustrating the infusion of Hope theory into the leadership classroom, and the key questions to generate ideas.

Discussion: 13-14 minutes
The facilitators will use questions consistent with the learning objectives to guide the discussion:
1. What teaching ideas and instructor behaviors have you used to increase the academic hope and performance of diverse students in your leadership classes?
2. What teaching ideas and instructor behaviors have you used to develop purposeful agency and pathways thinking in the diverse students in your leadership classes?
3. What behaviors and practices inform your relationships with the diverse students in your leadership classes resulting in increased academic hope and/or purposeful agency and pathways thinking?

Foreseeable Implications

Colleges and universities spend a significant amount of time and resources in student leadership development through education, residence life, service learning, and student organizations (Wisner, 2011). Increased globalization and diversity in student populations requires Colleges and Universities to embrace this diversity in leadership education (Chin and Trimble, 2013). Therefore, university staff, scholars, and educators benefit from increased efforts to identify innovative and effective strategies to develop hope, a concept integral to leadership development.

According to the Center of College Student Retention nearly 50% of students entering higher education will not graduate, (Waller & Smith, 2009). These realities combined with hope's potency to impact academic performance and psychological adjustment (Kwon, 2002), and to promote resiliency, well-being, and mental health (Gallagher & Lopez, 2009; Snyder, 2002) suggests college students and university communities might benefit from Leadership education that facilitates increased hope, both agency and pathways thinking.

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Developing a Diverse and Inclusive Leadership Environment: Advice from the Field

Abstract

Diversity and inclusion are an increasing focus of leadership and education literature and programs (Benjamin, 2001). Despite the well researched benefits of diverse groups and classrooms (Hewlett, Marshall, & Sherbin, 2013; Hunt, Layton, & Prince, 2015; Schedlitzki & Edwards, 2014), actual change can be limited (Leo & Barton, 2006). During this roundtable discussion, two staff members of a leadership development program will share challenges faced and lessons learned regarding diversity efforts and will facilitate a conversation on inclusive practices in leadership education. The discussion will consider the political and contextual factors associated with diversity and will elicit advice and innovative practices for creating an inclusive and diverse environment from those engaged in leadership programs and classrooms.

Introduction

Diversity and inclusion are an increasing focus of education programs (Benjamin, 2001), thus encouraging scholars and practitioners to discuss practices that promote meaningful engagement with the concept of diversity. The facilitators of this roundtable discussion are staff members within a leadership mentoring organization at a four-year, Midwestern, Land-grant University. The mentoring organization has 180 college student mentors that build one-on-one relationships with 180 1st-12th grade students in the local public school system. Although the organization has increased its size and some aspects of demographic diversity in the past 10 years, there is room to grow in group diversification and discussions of cross-cultural understanding.

The goal of this discussion roundtable is to provide facilitators and participants with the space to have an open conversation about best practices for promoting diversity and inclusion in groups and classrooms. Specifically, the facilitators hope their experiences of connecting with a variety of groups on campus, as well as implementing activities in their leadership development class that promote engagement with other groups and people, will be useful to other leadership educators. Furthermore, the facilitators hope to learn innovative strategies and activities from others who are passionate about meaningfully engaging with diversity and inclusion.

Background

Diversity is an increasing focus of education and leadership programs (Benjamin, 2001). For example, the Association of American Colleges & Universities (AAC&U), NASPA: Student Affairs Administrators in Higher Education, disciplinary accreditor members of the Council for Higher Education Accreditation (CHEA), and the ACPA: College Student Educators International, all list diversity as a critical student learning outcome (AAC&U & NLC, 2007; Dreschsler Sharp, Komives, & Fincher, 2011;NASPA/ACPA, 2004). Inclusion has also been noted as a 'global agenda' for education policymakers (Dyson, 2000; Pijl, Meijer, and Hegarty, 1997). Given the emphasis on diversity and inclusion in the fields of education and leadership, this brief review of relevant literature provides a theoretical framework for continued discussion.

Leaders promote diversity in their organizations by recognizing and valuing individual members' uniqueness. Opportunities for improved group performance occur when an individual feels that their unique characteristics are valued by the group (Shore, Randel, Chung, Dean, Ehrhart, &

Singh, 2011). While this desire for uniqueness is important, it is balanced by a need for similarity to others (Brewer, 1991). Leaders hoping to create effective and diverse teams must navigate the dichotomy between validation and individuation.

Furthermore, researchers studying organizations and educational programs focused on diversity and inclusion efforts often discuss the concept of belongingness. Inclusivity exists when individuals feel a sense of belonging in a group (Liro, Lee, Williams, Haugen, and Kossek, 2008). Leaders who promote belongingness and uniqueness create environments where individuals are treated as insiders and benefit through performance improvements (Shore et al, 2011). These individuals undergo self-verification processes that improve interactions among diverse group members (Swann, Polzer, Seyle, & Ko, 2004). Self-verification theory suggests that people join groups to validate their personal and social views (Swann et al, 2004). An organization hoping to make strides in diversity efforts should recognize that individuals seek to identify with the views and identity of members in that group. In particular, the race, gender, and ethnic distributions of an organization shape the meaning insiders and outsiders attach to the group (Barak, Findler, & Wind, 2001). There is an innate challenge associated with this phenomenon when a group or classrooms lacks diversity. Leaders and teachers must consider how to make individuals feel and believe that the organization will value their unique characteristics if the individual does not see their identity or views reflected in the organization.

Similar to previous findings that articulate the importance of individuals identifying with group attributes, leadership education research has demonstrated that leadership for inclusion in education can be successful if it engages a broad constituency and creates an adaptive organization with systems and processes that encourage leaders and participants to think beyond current systems and processes (Leo & Barton, 2016; Salaman & Asch, 2003). Furthermore, moral leadership, which is defined as leaders who make ethically and morally purposeful decisions, has also been discussed as an integral aspect of inclusion in education (Leo & Barton, 2006) For example, the moral leader may respect and support values of human rights that resonate meaningfully with followers (Burns, 1978). Understanding the actions and attributes that can facilitate diversity is critical to reaping its benefits as scholars and educators.

While the benefits of diversity for organizations and classrooms are well documented (Hewlett, et al., 2013; Hunt, et al., 2015; Schedlitzki & Edwards, 2014), the topics of diversity and inclusion have become deeply politicized and tense, exposing differences in social justice and democracy (Leo & Barton, 2006). Although practices associated with promoting diversity can certainly produce some positive reconceptualizations of difference, actual change can be limited by the political derivation of the word and contextual factors, especially given the high stakes culture of outcomes prevalent in education today (Benjamin, 2001). The current roundtable seeks to address the thoughts and concerns associated with euphemistically 'valuing diversity' by discussing innovative strategies to create and sustain diverse and inclusive classrooms, organizations, and experiences to the benefits of our students, subordinates, and selves.

Means for Discussion/Interaction

This roundtable discussion will begin with the facilitators giving a one-minute explanation of their work with a leadership organization, and their attempts at increasing diversity in the classroom content and organization. The facilitators will then spend one minute highlighting

fundamental components of research on diversity and education, such as the importance of promoting belongingness and uniqueness, the benefits of diverse groups and experiences to decision making, and the potential risk of 'valuing diversity' becoming a euphemistic term that masks continued inequalities. Finally, the group will spend 13 minutes discussing innovative strategies to engage in meaningful diversity within leadership classrooms and programs.

Research questions: How do we as leadership educators promote meaningful diversity through innovative strategies in hopes of avoiding euphemistic situations in which oppressive relations and inequalities continue to exist? What have you learned from attempts at making space for diverse experiences, conversations, and groups? What strategies have been successful?

Foreseeable Implications

Given the widespread focus on diversity and inclusion in educational settings (Benjamin, 2001; Schedlitzki & Edwards, 2014), it is critical that leadership scholars and practitioners engage in conversations about innovative practices that can promote true inclusion in organizations, groups, and classrooms. Participants may share innovative practices such as creative classroom experiences that encourage cultural understanding, interactive ways to facilitate relationship and trust building, and strategies for promoting belongingness with a diverse constituency of students. By sharing best practices and advice from the field, we will all be better able to create transformational, diverse, and inclusive experiences and groups.

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Title: Teaching Global Leadership: Integrating Cultural Competency and International Leadership Education

Short Description: Global/international leadership is prevalent in leadership education combining leadership practices with cultural competency while emphasizing the dynamic & complex context in leadership processes. A recent GL study was conducted, including development & testing of a model. This will be a guided discussion on teaching global/international leadership.

Detailed Abstract: Colleges and universities in the United States have made leadership education a priority as they prepare students to confront adaptive challenges in the 21st century; "wicked problems" such as poverty, uneven opportunities for education, homelessness, and illnesses worldwide. In addition, with the increased globalization of our world, the need to teach students how to lead in a complicated, multicultural context intensifies (Brown, Whitaker, and Brungardt, 2012). Global leadership and international education are prevalent in the leadership field combining leadership practices with those of global cultural competency while highlighting the significance of a dynamic and complex context in the leadership process.

While there has been a significant development of leadership theory over the past 100 years much of it has been focused in the west and this can cause difficulties when translating leadership across cultures. This challenge could be addressed through teaching global leadership and cultural competency, as well as examining how culture and leadership interact in order to better prepare leadership students to be the next generation of global leaders. Priority VII of the National Leadership Education Research Agenda (NLERA) states, "Global competence is increasingly a priority within higher education, and the development of global leadership knowledge and capacities are vital for the future of our global community. This priority 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). However, very little research has been conducted to examine if global leadership is being taught at the collegiate level, what content is being communicated, the methods used, and if this curriculum is positively impacting the students.

A recent nationwide study was conducted to examine how global leadership was being taught, across the United States, within undergraduate leadership education programs and curriculum (Edberg, 2016). This was accomplished by executing a survey of leadership educators directing undergraduate Leadership Majors, Minors, and Certificates across the country concerning their global leadership and cultural competency courses. After completion of the initial survey qualitative interviews were conducted in order to better understand the curriculum, assessment, how decisions were made when designing the curriculum. It was found that global leadership was being taught at 40% of those universities who completed the survey, utilizing a variety of methods and curriculum (Edberg, 2016). Best practices were shared by the interviewees, which in turn could inform others as they work to develop global leadership classes. Findings will be shared from the nationwide study, including the Global Leadership Development Model created from the research.

After the completion of the initial research a follow-up study was conducted to test the effectiveness of the model that was created. The model was used to create curriculum for three different types of global leadership and cultural competency classes in a variety of contexts; in a month long study abroad course in Sweden for a large public university, in a semester-long corporate supported course that includes a week long trip in the Netherlands, and the development of an online course. Quantitative and qualitative research was conducted in order to assess student growth in the various courses and data will be shared.

In addition to the research findings and model, the presenter will also discuss the importance of the assessment of student growth. Global leadership, because it traverses borders and identities, requires a great deal of self-awareness including intercultural competence. The assessment of self-awareness and intercultural competencies plays an integral role in helping the leadership educator know when development in intercultural competence is being achieved. The assessment of intercultural competence is complex and encompasses a developmental process of growth (Deardorff, 2009; Bennett, 1993) that goes hand in hand with attitudinal, knowledge and skill competencies at each level of that process. The leadership educator therefore needs to collect data at multiple intervals and in multiple ways to gain insight into the growth of intercultural competence. The presenter will discuss the Intercultural Development Inventory assessment (Hammer, Bennett, & Wiseman (2003) and the role it played in developing global leaders in this program. Finally, the presenter will share best practices for developing a global leadership course for a variety of contexts.

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Rural youth leadership development: Focusing on youth in central Appalachia

Abstract

According to LaVergne (2013), the US cultural landscape has steadily changed, but the ability to recruit and retain a diverse population in 4-H youth development is a work in progress (Introduction and Background, para. 1). With this roundtable discussion, participants will explore how youth leadership programs can be more inclusive with a particular focus on rural youth programs. It is the hope that the collective will gain insight from one another, with the goal to improve programming. Discussion questions will guide how information can be utilized further in advancing youth development and leadership opportunities for rural youth.

Introduction

According to the National 4-H Council Annual Report (2016), "In 4-H, we believe every child has the potential to be a true leader. And they need our support" (p. 5). The 4-H National Youth Survey on Leadership found that many youth do not feel encouraged by the adults who influence their lives. Youth also shared that adults only recognize negative characteristics in younger generations. Further, the report also directed that youth need more motivation from adults to help them build confidence and grow skills (National 4-H Council Annual Report, 2016).

The 4-H program has evolved and is committed to serving all youth in a community. The stereotype that surrounds 4-H programming, however, is that it is a program for rural, conservative, straight, Christian, white youth who want to raise animals and who live on a farm, which is hard to overcome because of its history. McKee, Talbert & Barkman (2002) found that both paid and volunteer staff indicated frustration that 4-H is still seen as a traditional, agricultural program only available to youth who live on a farm or only for those that have the means to raise animals. Staff members recognize that the rural image can be troublesome when attempting to introduce the programming opportunities to new audiences (Findings: The 4-H Program's Rural Image section).

We need substantive conversations that generate solutions to how we overcome to narrow reputation of the program, and how we can best create a change of climate and culture within rural programming efforts. Targeted areas of interest include 4-H programs in the central Appalachian region.

Background (Literature)

It is noted that over 50% of U.S. public school districts and 10 million students are in rural areas (Irvin, Byun, Meece & Farmer, 2011, p. 1). Kress (2006) writes that our society is changing at a rapid rate and there is a decrease in community. Opportunities for many youth to receive the support necessary to become effective in leadership and citizenship is decreasing. However, Leffert, Saito, Blyth and Kroenke (1996) suggest that the experiences that youth have during early teen years provides a foundation for personality development. Positive experiences can make this confusing developmental period easier, but that requires a new way of thinking and a new way of viewing the world (Garst, et. al., 2006).

Avent & Jayaratne (2017) suggest that participation in 4-H programs in underserved areas is not where it should be. The lack of participation in 4-H in these areas could prove to have a negative effect on how youth develop through adolescence into adulthood (2017). Particularly salient to this discussion was the finding that youth feel excluded from youth development opportunities (2017). Avent & Jayaratne (2017) also suggest that 4-H programs are designed to help youth members develop and gain necessary skills to be productive members in their own communities. However, youth only participate where they feel safe and included. (2017). As educators we must renew our commitment to providing environments where all students feel included because there is work to be done in all geographic locations but particularly rural areas.

Soder (2009) states, "[State 4-H] leaders who identified as non-rural or liberal had lower homonegativity scores than leaders who identified as rural or conservative…"(p. 82). Further, it was found that non-rural and liberal 4-H leaders recorded lower scores on the homophobia scale than leaders with rural upbringings and conservative political identities (2009, p. 110). The study found that 4-H state leaders', gender, age, commitment to religious traditions, having a gay friend or family member, and years of education had a low correlation with homophobia. Evidence shows there was a large association between rural environment and political identity to homophobia (2009).

Gray (2009) notes that rural dynamics such as class, age, gender, race and location can drive belonging in rural youth development. There is belief that rural youth escape to urban areas for refuge and comfort because of the lack of inclusive opportunities in their home communities. However, rural youth who identify as LGBTQ are standing their ground, living their truth out loud and visibly in their rural locales (Gray, 2009). "I hope to challenge pervasive stereotypes of rural places as static and monolithically repressive and push us to rethink metrocentric assumptions of what it means or looks like to be 'isolated,' in need of 'outreach,' or 'out' in public spaces beyond the city's limits" (2009, p. 30). One way to rethink (and reframe) rural culture and create environments where all youth can thrive is is through youth programs.

Russell & Campen (2011) concluded that programming efforts have been made to reach marginalized youth, but dominant cultures have skewed emergent attempts for inclusion (Conclusion, para. 1). Consequently the centering of those dominant cultures leave some youth audiences underrepresented and underserved. Russell & Campen (2011) further explain that in these cases the marginalization is not about individual demographics or characteristics, but rather rooted in the culture of current youth development programs (Conclusion, para. 1). Some youth become isolated from the mainstream in ways that are often invisible because participants have accepted whatever the culture is, as normal. If we can upack the unfamiliar and (sometimes weird) rules and rituals of youth organizations, we can start to reveal why youth might feel marginalized and excluded. We should be asking what about the program reinforces marginalization and stop asking why are marginalized youth not represented (Conclusion, para. 3)? One puts the responsibility on us, as educators and program facilitators, while the other puts the responsibility on the marginalized population. The responsibility lies with us.

Organizations with inclusive cultures embrace all social identity groups, welcome their opinions, and provide opportunities in leadership programming efforts. (Wasserman, Gallegos, &

Ferdman, 2008). How then, can we begin to break down the barriers to participation that are rooted in the feelings of exclusion (conscious and otherwise)?

Means for Discussion/Interaction OR Primary Objectives of Presentation

The aim for this roundtable is to open discussion about the culture and climate of (rural) youth (4-H) leadership development programs. While the Appalachian region of the US will be the primary focus, the product of the discussion has broad implications for other rural areas.

Questions for Discussion

1. What is your experience with (rural) youth leadership programs? With working with marginalized youth?
2. How do we overcome culture and climate barriers in rural (4-H) youth programs?
3. How can we focus our programming efforts to address the intersections of race, class and sexuality, which coalesces to exacerbate marginalized youth populations?
4. Why does it appear that inclusivity is a difficult, long term outcome in rural youth leadership development programs?

Foreseeable Implications

Through this discussion, we hope to gain some insight on climate and culture issues in rural programs. We will also work with participants to generate strategies for breaking down barriers to youth participation related to culture and climate.While the focus will be on the Appalachian region, the strategies generated could be broadly applied to other rural areas or adapted across educational contexts.

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Nonprofits Shoulder Increasing Responsibilities: How Are We Educating Their Leaders?

Abstract

Effective leadership in the United States' growing nonprofit sector serves the missions of such organizations, meaningfully impacting society through their aid, products, and services. Leaders of nonprofits, paid and volunteer alike, have access to professional development through national groups, and increasingly, colleges and universities serve current and aspiring nonprofit leaders through specialized programs as well as majors, minors and Master's degrees in nonprofit management/leadership. Largely growing out of schools of public policy or business, these programs focus attention on the unique aspects of nonprofit management and leadership. This roundtable seeks to engage conference attendees in dialogue around if and how they target education for leadership in nonprofits, and to spur forward-thinking discussion regarding leadership education for paid and volunteer nonprofit leaders.

Introduction

A recently created Nonprofit Leadership Certificate Program at a university in Pennsylvania called to attention the growing interest from the nonprofit sector for rigorous and applicable education for its leaders. Such education can serve both professionals (paid employees) in the field and the volunteers that often hold significant leadership roles in nonprofit organizations. This specific facet of leadership education warrants exploration, and this discussion roundtable intends to do just that.

Objectives for participants include:

1. Reflect on current efforts at their institutions/organizations around education for nonprofit leaders
2. Discuss the unique content needed for current and aspiring leaders in the nonprofit context
3. Explore innovative opportunities for collaboration across departments/schools and external organizations to serve the growing number of people working (paid and unpaid) in nonprofit organizations and their need for leadership education in that arena

Background

In July of 2015, the U.S. Internal Revenue Service (IRS) registry of nonprofits included more than 1.5 million organizations, excluding houses of worship and public schools (GuideStar, 2015.) In 2016, the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics reported that employment, annual wages and the number of organizations in the nonprofit sector grew steadily between 2007 and 2012, including during the recession of 2007-09. The study highlighted the significance of this in comparison to the losses suffered by other sectors during that time, "The resilience of the nonprofit sector during the 2007-09 recession demonstrates its importance to the U.S. economy" (Friesenhahn, 2016, np). In addition to its economic importance, the nonprofit sector provides much needed aid, products, and services to diverse constituencies across the country, shouldering a great deal of responsibility on behalf of millions of Americans.

Typically, both volunteers and paid staff carry out the management and leadership functions of nonprofit organizations, even though "nonprofit America has undergone a massive professionalization over the past two decades" (Salamon, 2010, p. 93), because incorporated nonprofits must have formal governing bodies (Renz, 2010). The activities of such bodies come under scrutiny from the federal government and watch-dog groups. The Public Company Accounting Reform and Investor Protection Act of 2002, commonly known as the Sarbanes-Oxley Act:

> targeted the practices of the leaders of for-profit companies, and not long after, the Internal Revenue Service (IRS) published a governance document for nonprofits (tax-exempt organizations) that stressed active and engaged leaders (https://www.irs.gov/pub/irs-tege/governance_practices.pdf) and enacted policies requiring annual reporting by nonprofits about their leadership practices. (Shaefer, 2015, p. 3)

Increasingly, leaders in the nonprofit sector have opportunities for leadership development from associations and organizations. For example, the National Association of Nonprofits credentials members with designations including Certified Nonprofit Executive (CNE), Certified Development Executive (CDE), and Certified Nonprofit Consultant (CNC) (https://nanoe.org/nanoe-credentialing/), and in addition to its Certified Association Executive (CAE) designation, the American Society of Association Executives (ASAE) offers leadership development programs such as CEO Symposium, Exceptional Boards, and Future Leaders Conference (www.asaecenter.org/programs/leadership-development).

Similarly, BoardSource, self-defined as, "the recognized leader in nonprofit board leadership" (https://boardsource.org/about-boardsource/), provides Certificate of Nonprofit Board Education, Leadership for Nonprofit Board Chairs, Leadership Certificate for Nonprofit Chief Executives, and Certificate of Nonprofit Board Consulting. Additionally, every two years it hosts the BoardSource Leadership Forum with content from a variety of researchers specializing in the nonprofit sector and/or in leadership.

Many of those involved with BoardSource are members of the Association for Research on Nonprofit Organizations and Voluntary Action (ARNOVA). Members can participate in a Governance Section of the organization, and its 2018 Conference includes among its tracks Boards & Governance, Management, Leadership, & Strategy, and Teaching & Education. The personal experience of one of the co-authors of this submission suggests that most members come out of schools of public policy or business, and individuals looking for rigor in research and practical applications for the nonprofit sector frequently turn to this organization.

Another co-author of this proposal serves as a faculty member in a business school at a university in Pennsylvania. Two years ago, a large foundation approached the school to fill what it identified as a desperate need for professional development for local nonprofit leaders. The school responded to the call, creating a program focused on providing high potential leaders with the knowledge and insight required to enable their nonprofit organizations to achieve and sustain their respective missions and ensure positive community outcomes.

Several local organizations underwrote much of the program cost, and ensured its inclusiveness by granting needs-based scholarships to allow nonprofit leaders to attend regardless of the financial means of their organization. Additionally, the university identified its need for content support and innovated in its partnership with the Pennsylvania Association of Nonprofit Organizations to create customized resources based on best practices in nonprofit governance, ethics, and accountability.

Reflection on the clear need from the nonprofit community for leadership development and the expertise and experiences of Association of Leadership Educators (ALE) members surrounding education for leaders led to this discussion roundtable proposal. A cursory comparison of member lists of ALE and ARNOVA reveals institutional duplication, and the authors seek to learn what connections may or could exist within those institutions to unite nonprofit and leadership educators.

Means for Discussion/Interaction

Participants in the discussion roundtable will receive a handout highlighting the genesis, creation, and delivery of the first iteration of the Nonprofit Leadership Certificate Program by one of the authors' universities. A brief overview of the handout (2-3 minutes) will serve as a starting place for dialogue with an opening question for participants asking to share their experiences to date with leaders/leadership development in the nonprofit context. Question prompts to generate meaningful and engaging dialogue may include: What steps have your institution taken to ensure programs can include diverse participants, regardless of financial means? In what ways have or might you create an innovate response to the need for nonprofit leader education, and does or may it include other departments or schools on your campus or outside groups? Do the approaches and/or content for educating paid versus unpaid nonprofit leaders differ, and if so, how?

Foreseeable Implications of Session

The authors perceive synergy between the work of ALE members and ARNOVA members, and through this discussion roundtable seek to explore what within-institution efforts and external collaborations may already be occurring to educate leaders in the nonprofit sector. This may serve as the first step toward a quantitative and qualitative research project that examines the phenomenon of nonprofit leader development for both nonprofit professionals (paid staff) and volunteer leaders. This will add to the existing body of research around nonprofit governance, focusing largely on types of governance, the recruitment of directors/trustees, and benefits and tensions resulting from the dichotomous leadership of nonprofits between the chief staff officer and the board (see for example Brown, 2007; Miller-Millesen, 2003; Nobbie & Brudney, 2003; Ostrower, 2007).

For session participants, implications include heightened awareness of leadership education needs for paid and volunteer nonprofit leaders and efforts to educate nonprofit leaders, as well as potential motivation to pursue innovative programs to fill this need.

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Student Experiences Within Leadership and Social Justice Programs

Abstract

Discussions of social justice and equity are not often given space within a [College] where the focus is often [product] production. Providing programs to students that facilitate and explore difficult topics allows opportunity for growth and development in the unique environment of the [product] community. These spaces allow students to further explore ideas at the intersection of social justice and leadership theory in a manner that promotes diverse and unique thought. The [Program] provides opportunities to explore leadership, justice, and equity. This sets the stage for advocacy and action.Simultaneously, program directors and students establish a community of inclusivity that aims to enhance the environment within which they currently exist.

Introduction

The [Program], at its heart, is a leadership program. Existing at the intersection of leadership and social justice, students build skills that allow them to be positive change agents in their communities. Additionally, and perhaps as importantly, The [Program] builds and maintains an environment for students to establish a network of safe spaces, allies, and knowledge. This program is focused on the application of theory. The theories of transformative leadership, on which the program is based, promote examining leadership and justice from a systems level approach. Students examine barriers to social justice and equity while studying the leadership skills required to confront those barriers including: demonstrating peacefully and responsibly, calling others in, enhancing communication skills, and resolving conflicting ideologies and attitudes. Students explore new concepts not readily accessible in a typical curriculum within the [College]. They also develop their own space, literally and psychologically, establishing a sense of belonging that is not always present.

Along with the structured curriculum, students are allowed to explore related concepts, and design and facilitate their own project relating to an area of justice and equity. Students are given networking opportunities to enlarge their circles with faculty, staff and administrators within the College and University, and external organizations and leaders. These chances to network, in conjunction with the final project, give students ample opportunity to test out their knowledge and skills. This gives students room to grow in ways that allow for real life tests, within the safety net of the program.

Background

The [Program] methods are rooted in transformative leadership theory. The program begins with identifying the eight barriers to justice and equity alongside an introduction to transformative leadership (Shields, 2010). Central to this program is that, while existing as a leadership

preparation program, it simultaneously teaches justice and equity theory that is often left out or narrowly covered in other programs. The program addresses the systems of inequity analyzed by other justice and equity scholars (Furman, 2012), while contextualizing the discussions within [product] production. Three hallmarks of the program focus on systems

thinking to understand how to enact positive change at an institutional level, removing hegemony as an instrument of oppression, and the centering of groups most affected by inequity, commonly referred to as, "distributive, cultural, and associational" justice, respectively (Furman, 2012, pg. 193). Just as Freire acknowledges that "transformation cannot occur," without education (1998, Pg. 39), the [Program] focus on providing participants with the tools to effect positive social change by leading advocacy and action for a more just and equitable society. The program is broken into sections of facilitation, application, and reflection to develop that skill set. Facilitation provides opportunities for learning the inherent connection between social justice and transformative leadership. The educational component is one of the strongest avenues to overcome inequity and systemic barriers (Marshall and Olivia, 2009). Application focuses on practicing the skills learned, as it is not enough to know the systems exist, students are encouraged to disrupt the systems in ways available and meaningful for them (Cooper and Trujillo, 2014). Finally, reflection allows participants the opportunity to think critically about what they have learned, practiced, and gained from the curriculum provided and how that is enacting positive change (Brown, 2004). The program unites transformative leadership, and social justice and equity because they are "inextricably linked," allowing participants the chance to study this intersectional approach and apply it to a variety of contexts (Shields, 2010).

Primary Objectives of Presentation

This roundtable discussion is meant to engage participants who are interested in teaching or leading programs at the apex of leadership and justice and equity in examining the work from the student perspective. The roundtable session will start with a brief introduction to the [Program], lessons learned, and the impacts this program can create in a [College] and beyond. Specific questions that will be discussed include:

- How can you engage students in leadership and social justice programming?
- How does leadership and justice/equity program fit into the mission of your college?
- What is the student experience like in these kinds of programs and the impact on the student experience?

Foreseeable Implications

The three main foreseeable implications from this presentation include: an exploration of programmatic impacts that programs of this kind have on students, generation of strategies for developing spaces of inclusivity within academic settings, and an examination of the grounding of justice and equity education within the transformative leadership theory paradigm . If we believe that leadership is a mechanism for positive change, then we must also believe that justice and equity are inherent to leadership. Discussions like these can lead to a deeper understanding of the impact of, and strategies for, providing leadership programs like these.

A key piece of the [Program] is that it provides the language and skill set to students in ways they can understand and use them. Many of the participants come into the program having a vague concept of what they will learn. They lack the background and the vocabulary to convey clear thoughts related to these issues. Discussions that happen in programs like these offer

critical insights into the ways college students understand equity, justice, and leadership. Without these discussions, done in real, raw, earnest ways, we miss an opportunity to equip our students to lead and address the complex, systemic institutions that are barriers to equity.

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Leadership Education Innovation for Gen Y and Gen I: Enhancing Experience, Engagement and Knowledge Retention Through Interactive Digital Technology.

Abstract

Interactive digital technology is seamlessly incorporated into daily activity of today's learners and tomorrow's leaders: Gen Y and Gen I (Z). Consequently, it can serve as an effective learning tool for contemporary students, if thoughtfully integrated into instruction. Research demonstrate that interactive digital technology creates student-centered, interactive, collaborative and flexible environment that appeals to contemporary learners, thus increasing their engagement in the learning process, as well as knowledge retention. However, full capacity of interactive digital technology for instruction, and specifically for leadership education is yet to be utilized. This roundtable presentation examines utilizing innovative interactive digital technology-based gamified tools for leadership instruction, the benefits and challenges thereof.

Introduction

Gen Y and Gen I (Z), characterized as "digital natives" (Prensky, 2001), incorporate a lot of interactive digital technology into their lives. Gen Y, the U.S. largest living generation, is increasingly taking on senior roles in their organizations, with Gen I (Z) waiting in the wings. According to Deloitte, two thirds of surveyed Millennials expect to be in leadership position by 2024 (Deloitte, 2017) and could benefit from learning effective leadership skills (Deloitte, 2014). Because interactive digital technology is a major part of Gen Y and Gen I identity, educators are looking for ways to incorporate it into various types of instruction, including leadership. Thus, as evidenced by research, gamified instruction, when appropriately integrated with curriculum, offers active learning components, group collaboration and increases learner's engagement and outcomes (McFarlane, 2002; Wolfe, 1997). Most recently, some digital gamified elements have been occasionally introduced into Higher Ed instruction and Learning Management Systems (LMS), but full capacity of interactive digital technology, specifically for leadership education, is yet to be utilized (Burgos et al., 2007; Torrente, 2009). This roundtable presentation aims to examine emergent trends in interactive digital technology as applied to leadership education.
Specifically, incorporating gamified elements into leadership instruction and achieving interoperability of self-contained gamified elements within existing learning systems.

Background

Term "digital natives" vs "digital immigrants" (Prensky, 2001) captures the difference between the way today's learners and their instructors relate to interactive digital technology. Chronicle of Higher Education (2011) reports that most students (a) own various laptops and internet-capable handheld devices; (b) feel that technology incorporation improves convenience and quality of their learning experience; and (c) like to use technology to learn. At the same time, instructors' use of technology ranges between five and twelve percent. There is a disconnect between the way contemporary students effectively acquire and process information and the way educational content is delivered to them. Interactive digital technology bridges the gap and enhances learners experience by introducing digital gamified components into traditional instruction (Goryunova & Jenkins, 2017).

Games (board, paper, and various in-class simulations) have been utilized for instruction purpose for many decades, offering benefits of active learning components and group collaboration (Guest, 2015; McFarlane, 2002; Wolfe, 1997). Currently, the attention of educational specialists is captured by games based on interactive digital technology, as a new way to meaningfully align educational and cognitive components (Dickey, 2005; Gee, 2003; Wang et al., 2015; Wideman et al., 2016). For example, gamified learning applied to training in medical and information systems domains of expertise resulted in increased learners' motivation and superior learning performance (Papastergiou, 2009; Wang et al., 2015).

When applied to leadership education, a combination of theory of situated learning (Lave, 1988) with experiential learning (Kolb, 1984) provides a foundation for building virtual-reality/game based leadership development opportunities (Guthrie et al., 2011). Specifically, in a gamified environment, learners experience combines cognitive process along with actual knowledge acquisition, in a series of "remembering and understanding" processes typical for gamified environment (Wang et al. 2015). This roundtable presentation examines ways to

incorporate elements of interactive digital technology/gamified instruction into leadership education, to benefit future leaders: "digital natives"

Means for Discussion/Interaction OR Primary Objectives of Presentation

In allocated time, presenter will

1. Share with participants background of the issue and its relevance to the leadership education
2. Offer an overview of selected applications of interactive digital technology
3. Examine experience of utilizing innovative gamified educational platform for leadership instruction at a graduate level
4. Seek participants comments and input
5. Answer questions

Foreseeable Implications

Presently, institutions of Higher Ed utilize subscription-based digital learning management systems (Blackboard, Canvas, Brightspace etc.) that are mostly instructor-centered and focused on efficient content delivery and educational process administration. Most recent (since 2000-) development in educational interactive digital technology: gamification (or introduction of game elements in the design of learning processes) is student-centered, and as such it can be used to increase students' engagement, motivation and knowledge retention (Belotti et. al., 2013; Goryunova, E., Jenkins, D., 2017; McFarlane, 2002; Wolfe, 1997). Currently, the most typical game elements introduced into a learning management system to increase students' engagement and motivation are badges, awards and mastery levels (https://www.zunos.com/). Yet combination of cognitive development and knowledge acquisition essential for developing leadership skills could be achieved through deployment of an actual game built into a learning process (so-called learning path) either as an interactive content, exercise or a test. This roundtable presentation offers leadership educators an insight into innovative interactive digital instruments for engaged learning and knowledge retention, and examines actual experience (lessons learned, best practices, examples of educational content) of utilizing innovative gamified educational platform for leadership instruction at a graduate level.

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Advancing Leadership Education through Community-Engaged Scholarship

Abstract

In this roundtable discussion, we invite inviting participants to consider their own identities as community-engaged scholars, and the role that community-engaged scholarship can play in advancing the work of leadership education. By cultivating the potential for scholars to use CES as an approach for leadership education, we can sustain beyond just teaching about community change and instead enact leadership practices that creates the conditions for leadership educators/students/programs to exercise leadership - with communities - for real change.

Introduction

Past ALE conferences and conversations with members has surfaced a faction of leadership educators interested in civic engagement. Civic engagement - through forms of service learning and community engagement – can be described as collaborative processes between institutions of higher education and organizations/communities 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.

A recent Symposium of the *Journal of Leadership Studies* explored the role of Community-Engaged Scholarship (CES) in advancing the field of Leadership Studies. In framing the potential of CES, Priest and Kliewer (2017) asked, "What if leadership researchers and educators saw themselves as scholar practitioners who integrated teaching, research, and civic engagement to produce new knowledge for social, political, economic, and moral change?" (p. 37). In this roundtable discussion, we bring this question to the table, inviting participants to consider their own identities as community-engaged scholars, and the role that CES can play in advancing the work of leadership education. This session addresses the National Leadership Education Research Agenda (Andenoro et al., 2013) priority of *Social Change and Community Development.* Participants will:

1. Examine the purpose of CES, including critical components that support broader contributions in educational and community change;
2. Explore different forms of CES;
3. Generate examples of integration of CES into leadership education scholarship and practice; and
4. Share resources for continued learning and practice.

Background

In *Scholarship Reconsidered* (1990), Ernest Boyer noted the tensions and limitations within higher education institutions that arise when teaching, research, and service are treated as separate (and

competing) goals. Recognizing multiple forms of scholarship (discovery, application, integration, and teaching) in pursuit of the public purposes of higher education has spurred on a movement of community-engaged scholarship. Boyer (1996) went on to advocate for the *scholarship of engagement,* which he described as, "connecting the rich resources of the university to our most pressing social, civic, and ethical problems, to our children,to our schools, to our teachers, and to our cities …" (p. 27).

Barker (2004) elaborates on scholarship of engagement, acknowledging a movement within higher education that not only challenges traditional forms of scholarship, but deepens connections between academics and the common good. More than just communicating what is learned within the institution to the public, this form of scholarship invites public participation in generating new knowledge (Barker, 2004). "Emphasizing 'scholarship' rather than 'learning,' the scholarship of engagement suggests a set of practices that cuts across all aspects of the traditional functions of higher education" (Barker, 2004, p. 126).

Certainly civic/community-engagement through service learning is regarded as a high impact educational practice generally (Kuh, 2008), and a pedagogy for the development of socially responsible leadership (Dugan, Kodama, & Associates, 2013) and other workplace readiness outcomes (McElravy, Matkin, & Hastings, (2018). However, Kniffin and Clayton (2017) point out that "pedagogy" is only one pathway (or purpose) for service learning/community-engagement. Indeed, community-engagement can also fulfill the purpose or mission of institutions, contribute to community change, and generate new knowledge through participatory, engaged methods of inquiry (Kniffin & Clayon, 2017).

The emphasis on *community-engaged scholarship* creates space for multiple approaches to learning and inquiry that emphasize public participation, rigorous academic standards, and more fully-realized democratic processes that are mutually reciprocal, equitable, and collaborative (Barker, 2004). Collaborative, community-engaged scholarship may take many forms, a few of which are offered here (see also Barker, 2004; Longo & Gibson, 2016):

1. Public Scholarship (Deliberative Dialogue) - academic work incorporating deliberative practices (e.g., forums, community meetings) to address public problems;
2. Participatory Research - forms of action research that create the conditions for citizens to actively partner in the production of academic knowledge; emphasizing the inclusion of marginalized or previously excluded groups in research processes;
3. Community Partnerships - institutional commitments that support social transformations; often in support of on-going service learning/community-engaged work;
4. Public Information Networks - development of networks/asset mapping processes that generate comprehensive databases of local activists, advocacy groups, and available services; and
5. Civic Literacy/Democratic Education - approaches to supporting the use of democratic approaches within and across disciplines; for example, creating safe spaces to share stories from multiple perspectives.

Means for Discussion/Interaction

For participants who are new to the topic of CES, we will create a participant handout defining CES and offering several examples/types of CES projects. Additionally, we will provide links to relevant websites, articles, and other developmental resources. Our conversation will largely be driven by the interests/questions generated at the table. However, we anticipate the following process and guiding questions:

I. Table introductions - introducing ourselves and what brings us to this work. Participants will introduce themselves and their interest/experience with CES.
II. What is community-engaged scholarship? (Purpose, history, forms)
    A. Distinguish between traditional forms of service-learning/community-engagement and CES
    B. Critical considerations, including emphasis on democratic engagement, mutual benefit, and equity
III. How could CES advance leadership education scholarship and practice?
    A. Sharing of past/current examples (invite group to share, as well as offer example)
    B. Generating ideas for application in future work
IV. Becoming a Community-Engaged Scholar
    A. Engaging across disciplines through CES (e.g., faculty mentoring groups)
    B. CES within graduate programs (e.g., dissertations)
    C. Advocating for the recognition of CES within tenure and promotion materials and process
    D. Other professional communities and resources for development

Implications

Arendsdorf & Brungardt (2017) suggest, "Those who study, teach, and practice leadership within higher education are poised to serve as not only civic educators, but institutional change agents, helping to shape programs and pedagogy toward civic-minded aims" (p. 147). By cultivating the potential for scholars to use CES as an approach for leadership education, we can sustain beyond just teaching about community change and instead enacting leadership practices that creates the conditions for leadership educators, students, and programs to exercise leadership with communities for real change. This discussion has the potential to help leadership educators expand their use of service-learning into forms community-engaged scholarship. Exploring institutional considerations such as community-engaged dissertations and tenure and promotion supports professional pathways into the field, as well as professional identity development. And we will further equip leadership educators to engage in interdisciplinary work that supports and enhances their individual universities and the purposes of higher education.

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First gen again: Exploring the Journey from First-Generation Undergraduate to First-Generation Graduate Student in Leadership Studies

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Abstract

Graduate students' reasons for becoming leadership educators are often as diverse as the students themselves. While significant research has explored the experience of first-generation undergraduate students (FGUS), less focus has been placed on the experience of FGUS when making the transition from college to graduate school. Framed through the lens of motivation and commitment to pursue leadership studies, our overall objective is to openly discuss the experience of FGUS in graduate leadership programs by FGUS and those who support them, along with identifying the challenges and barriers they face.

Background

Defined as being from a family in which no parent or guardian has earned a baccalaureate degree (Soria & Stebleton, 2012), first-generation undergraduate students (FGUS) historically do not possess the same levels of social capital as their non-first-generation peers. Therefore, these students are likely to face more challenges in navigating the university and becoming fully engaged in academics. Responding to these concerns, colleges and universities have adapted more structured policies and practices to ensure academic and social success for vulnerable populations of undergraduate students (Connolly, Flynn, Jemmott, & Oestreicher, 2017). While significant literature has explored the experience of first-generation undergraduate students, less focus has been placed on the experience of FGUS when making the transition from college to graduate school.

While you do not have to be a first-generation student to experience challenges within graduate school, it must be acknowledged first-generation students do face some unique barriers that can affect performance, degree completion and drop-out rates (Shives & Peaker, 2013). As noted by Lunceford (2011), "Because more students in general are pursuing graduate studies, it is therefore likely that many first-generation students will also become graduate students. The issues confronting them as undergraduates – integration, employment status, family situation - will be just as pressing, if not more so, in graduate school" (p. 19). Isolation is common within a graduate program for first-generation students, especially when perceived social, economic, and cultural distances exist between the student and their peers (King, 2017).

Framing this through the lens of motivation and commitment to pursue leadership studies, a strong argument can be made for the necessity of understanding the role of self-efficacy in a first-generation students' graduate experience. In addition, graduate students' reasons for becoming leadership educators are often as varied as the students themselves. Therefore, given the lack of research found surrounding first-generation graduate students desiring to become leadership educators, our discussion's overall objective is to openly discuss the experience of first generation students who pursue graduate degrees in leadership programs and to lay the groundwork for future research in this area based on these discussions.

Primary Objectives of the Discussion

We anticipate that the discussions held with graduate students, those who are working with graduate students, and others who are interested in this topic will result in identifying some common concerns, challenges, and barriers that might exist for first-generation graduate students who are choosing to become leadership educators. For those who have moved into professional leadership roles, a desire to help the next generation succeed frequently surfaces as a motivator (Lunceford 2011; Shives & Peaker 2013; King, 2017). As an FGUS who has moved into a faculty role, Lunceford 2011 writes, "One of my graduate students recently asked me why I help them so much. The long answer involves my conception of what it means to be a professor and mentor to students. The short answer is that I have already made many mistakes that they might also make without the advice of someone who has been there" (p. 13).

After providing an initial framework for exploring the unique phenomenon of being a first-generation student in a graduate leadership program, the primary objectives of this Discussion Roundtable are:

1) To explore this identified phenomenon, expanding upon our own experiences by drawing upon the firsthand experience of first-generation graduate students, educators who work with graduate students in leadership studies, and others who are interested by asking the following questions:
    a. What motivates first-generation undergraduate students to choose to pursue graduate degrees in leadership studies and/or become a leadership educator?
    b. What common barriers arise while pursuing this endeavor?
    c. In what ways does the experience of being a first-generation undergraduate student shape leadership self-efficacy and contribute to pursuing a graduate degree in leadership studies?
2) To learn how individual faculty and/or graduate programs have historically supported first-generation graduate students while pursuing leadership studies.

Forseeable Implications

We hope the discussions will prove fruitful in helping us consider the unique needs of first generation students who enter graduate programs and will help lay the groundwork for future research in this area. As two first generation college students – one who is a current graduate student in leadership studies and the coordinator of a program that supports first-generation students, and the other a first-generation student who is now a faculty member in leadership studies – we are both committed to helping first-generation undergraduate students as well as those transitioning into graduate studies. By identifying motivators and challenges experienced, we hope to inform our research and work to provide a solid framework for supporting these students as they pursue leadership studies. We believe knowledge for understanding the impact of this experience will prove valuable to leadership programs as they prepare graduates for both academic and professional opportunities.

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